Strong foundations
Early childhood care and education
Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2007
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The Education for All goals focus on the need to provide learning opportunities at every stage in life, from infancy to adulthood. With only nine years remaining before 2015 – the target year for achieving these goals – we must not lose sight of this agenda’s profoundly just and comprehensive perspective on education.

Tackling disadvantage and setting strong foundations for learning begins in the earliest years through adequate health, nutrition, care and stimulation. The 1989 United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, ratified by 192 nations, guarantees the rights of young children to survive, develop and be protected. However, many children are deprived of these rights.

This fifth edition of the EFA Global Monitoring Report assesses progress towards the first EFA goal, which calls upon countries to expand and improve comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most disadvantaged children. Such interventions are crucial to improving children’s present well-being and future development.

Yet the evidence suggests that young children in greatest need, who also stand to gain the most, are unlikely to have access to these programmes. Coverage remains very low in most of the developing world and few programmes exist for children under age 3. Even in the context of limited public resources, designing national policies for early childhood carries benefits for the country’s entire education system. It is therefore vital that countries and the international community systematically make early childhood provision an integral component of their education and poverty alleviation strategies. This is essential for reducing extreme poverty and hunger, the overarching aim of the United Nations Millennium Development Goals.

A tone of urgency pervades this Report. While regions farthest from the goals are making impressive progress on enrolling new children into primary school, major challenges remain.

Policies must address the barriers to education: household poverty, rural locations, poor quality, and lack of secondary schools and trained teachers, and not enough adult literacy programmes.

As the lead agency for coordinating EFA, UNESCO carries a particular responsibility for placing EFA at the forefront of national and international agendas. There are promising signs: aid to basic education is increasing and leaders at the G8 Summit in Saint Petersburg in 2006 affirmed the fundamental importance of Education for All as a contributor to national development and peace.

The findings of the 2007 EFA Global Monitoring Report remind us there is no place
for complacency. We have a collective responsibility to ensure quality education for all, a responsibility that begins by providing strong foundations for children in the first years of life and continues through adulthood. Only by taking a comprehensive approach that encompasses all the EFA goals and society’s most fragile and vulnerable members can this mission be honoured.

Koichiro Matsuura
Foreword
Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2007
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Highlights of the EFA Report 2007

Time is running out to meet the EFA goals set in 2000. Despite continued overall global progress at the primary level, including for girls, too many children are not in school, drop out early or do not reach minimal learning standards. By neglecting the connections among early childhood, primary and secondary education and adult literacy, countries are missing opportunities to improve basic education across the board — and, in the process, the prospects of children, youth and adults everywhere.

Progress towards the goals

Primary education continues to expand

Primary school enrolments increased fastest between 1999 and 2004 in two of the three regions furthest from universal primary education: they grew by 27% in sub-Saharan Africa and by 19% in South and West Asia, but by only 6% in the Arab States (see Figure A). The world net enrolment ratio stands at 86%. While grade 1 enrolments rose sharply, too many children who start school still do not reach the last primary grade: fewer than 83% in half the countries of Latin America and the Caribbean with data available, fewer than two-thirds in half the countries of sub-Saharan Africa.

Out-of-school children:

how many and who are they?

Progress is being made in reducing the number of primary school-age children who are not enrolled in school. Between 1999 and 2004 the number fell by around 21 million to 77 million. This is still very high, unacceptably so. Sub-Saharan Africa and South and West Asia are home to more than three-quarters of these children, although the latter region halved its number between 1999 and 2004, mainly due to reductions in India. The global estimate, high though it is, underestates the problem: data from household surveys show that many children enrolled in school do not attend regularly.

The children most likely to be out of school and to drop out live in rural areas and come from the poorest households. On average, a child whose mother has no education is twice as likely to be out of school as one whose mother has some
education.
1999 2004 (increase since 1999) 2004 (decrease since 1999) No change
50 60 70 80 90 100
Net enrolment ratios (%)
Sub-Saharan Africa
Arab States
Caribbean
South/West Asia
Pacific
Centr./East. Europe
Central Asia
East Asia
Latin America
N. America/W. Europe
Figure A: Net enrolment ratios in primary education, 1999-2004
Government policies
to tackle exclusion
Governments urgently need to identify the groups of children most likely never to enrol in school, in addition to those who drop out. This is the first step in implementing policies that reach out to the excluded and improve the quality, flexibility and relevance of education.
Among measures to foster inclusion: abolishing school fees, providing income support to poor and rural households to reduce reliance on child labour, teaching in children’s mother tongue, offering education opportunities for disabled children and those affected by HIV/AIDS, and ensuring that youth and adults get a second chance at education.
Improving teacher recruitment,
training and working conditions
There are not enough qualified and motivated teachers to reach the EFA goals. Sub-Saharan Africa needs to recruit between 2.4 million and 4 million teachers. In this region and in South and West Asia, there are too few women teachers to attract girls to school and retain them. Teacher absenteeism is also a serious problem in many developing countries.
Shorter pre-service training with more on-the-job practice and professional development, and incentives for teachers to work in remote and rural areas, are effective strategies for recruiting and retaining teachers, particularly in difficult contexts.
Secondary education: growing demand and not enough places
The pressure to expand secondary education is rising dramatically. Gross enrolment ratios rose in all developing regions but remain low in sub-Saharan Africa (30%), South and West Asia (51%) and the Arab States (66%).
Low numbers of secondary places slow the achievement of universal primary education because they reduce the incentive to complete primary school. At the same time, increasing demand for secondary education results in competition with other levels for public expenditure.
Gender parity: still not a reality
There are now 94 girls in primary school for every 100 boys, up from 92 in 1999. Of the 181 countries with 2004 data available, about two-thirds have achieved gender parity in primary education. The primary education gender gap in favour of boys has closed in only four of the twenty-six countries that had gross enrolment ratios below 90% in 2000. Only one-third of the 177 countries with data available on secondary education have achieved parity. At this level disparities are in favour of girls as often as boys. At tertiary level, gender parity exists in only five countries out of 148 with data in 2004. Gender equality also remains an issue, with stereotypes persisting in learning materials and, too often, teachers’ expectations of girls and boys differing.

Literacy: an elusive target
Some 781 million adults (one in five worldwide) lack minimum literacy skills. Two-thirds are women. Literacy rates remain low in South and West Asia (59%), sub-Saharan Africa (61%), the Arab States (66%) and the Caribbean (70%). Without concerted efforts to expand adult literacy programmes, by 2015 the global number of adult illiterates will have dropped by only 100 million. Governments must also focus on building literate environments.

Countries in conflict:
often missing from the analysis
Data are unavailable for several countries, mostly in conflict or post-conflict situations, and therefore are not fully reflected in the Report’s analyses. Their EFA situations remain serious and need to be remembered when considering the global EFA picture. Children living in such circumstances require custom-tailored education opportunities to restore some stability to their lives.
HIGHLIGHTS OF THE EFA REPORT 2007 / 3
Finance
and aid
Domestic spending
on education as a share of GNP decreased
between 1999 and 2004 in 41 of the 106 countries
with data, though it increased in most of the others.
Public spending needs to focus on key requirements
for achieving EFA: teachers, adult literacy, ECCE
and inclusive policies at all levels.
School fees
were reduced or abolished in several more
countries but are still far too common, a major
obstacle to the enrolment and continued
participation of the poor in primary school.
Total aid to basic education in low-income
countries almost doubled between 2000 and 2004
(from US$1.8 billion to US$3.4 billion at 2003
prices), having previously declined. As a share
of aid to the whole education sector in low-income
countries, however, it remained constant at 54%.
Half of all bilateral donors allocate at least half of
their education aid to middle-income developing
countries, and almost half allocate less than
one-quarter directly to basic education.
The Fast Track Initiative provides an
important coordinating mechanism for donor
agencies but has not yet led to a global compact
for achieving universal primary education.
Since 2002, disbursements have totalled only
US$96 million and so far have only reached
eleven countries, though donors have increased
their pledges significantly over the past year.
Funding gap: External funding requirements
for EFA, including some provision for adult literacy
and ECCE, are now estimated at US$11 billion a
year, over three times the current level and twice
what recently promised increases in overall aid
are likely to bring by 2010.
Early
care and
education
What is it?
Formal definitions of ECCE vary. This Report
adopts a holistic approach: ECCE supports children’s survival, growth, development and learning – including health, nutrition and hygiene, and cognitive, social, physical and emotional development – from birth to entry into primary school in formal, informal and non-formal settings. ECCE programmes encompass very diverse arrangements, from parenting programmes to community-based child care, centre-based provision and formal pre-primary education, often in schools. Programmes typically aim at two age groups: children under 3 and those from age 3 to primary school entry (usually by age 6, always by age 8).

Why does it matter? ECCE is a right, recognized in the Convention on the Rights of the Child, which has won near-universal ratification. ECCE can improve the well-being of young children, especially in the developing world, where a child has a four in ten chance of living in extreme poverty and 10.5 million children a year die from preventable diseases before age 5. Early childhood is a time of remarkable brain development that lays the foundation for later learning.

ECCE contributes to the other EFA goals (e.g. it improves performance in the first years of primary school) and to the Millennium Development Goals, especially the overarching goal of reducing poverty, as well as the education and health goals.
After sharp declines in the 1990s, pre-primary enrolments in transition countries are slowly recovering in Central and Eastern Europe but still lag in Central Asia. Among developed and transition countries, and in Latin America, most ECCE provision is by the public sector. The private sector is prominent in sub-Saharan Africa, the Arab States, the Caribbean and East Asia. Most regions are near gender parity in pre-primary education. There are large disparities within countries. With a few notable exceptions, children from poorer and rural households and those socially excluded (e.g. lacking birth certificates) have significantly less access to ECCE than those from richer and urban households. The children most likely to benefit from ECCE programmes – those most exposed to malnutrition and preventable diseases – are the least likely to be enrolled. ECCE staff in developing countries typically have minimal education and pre-service training, and are often relatively poorly remunerated. Governments accord relatively low priority to pre-primary education in their spending. The broad mix of public and private providers and a lack of data make it difficult to calculate total national expenditure on ECCE. Countries can estimate the cost of reaching the goal by developing scenarios that differ in terms of coverage, quality and nature of provision. ECCE is not a priority for most donor agencies. Almost all allocate to pre-primary less than 10% of what they give for primary education, and over half allocate less than 2%. It is more cost-effective to institute preventive measures and support for children early on than to compensate for disadvantage as they grow older. Affordable, reliable child care provides essential support for working parents, particularly
mothers. Investment in ECCE yields very high economic returns, offsetting disadvantage and inequality, especially for children from poor families.

What is the situation?

About 80% of developing countries have some sort of formally established maternity leave, although enforcement varies. The youngest children have been neglected. Almost half the world’s countries have no formal programmes for children under 3. Enrolment in pre-primary education has tripled since 1970, though coverage remains very low in most of the developing world. Most OECD countries have at least two years of free pre-primary education. Among developing country regions, Latin America, the Caribbean and the Pacific have the highest pre-primary gross enrolment ratios; far behind come East Asia, South and West Asia, the Arab States and sub-Saharan Africa (See Figure B).

| Sub-Saharan Africa | 12.4 |
| Arab States        | 15.7 |
| Central Asia       | 26.9 |
| South and West Asia| 32.4 |
| East Asia          | 39.7 |
| Centr./East. Europe| 57.5 |
| Latin America      | 60.8 |
| Pacific            | 71.9 |
| N. America/W. Europe| 78.5 |
| Caribbean          | 101.0 |

Figure B: Gross enrolment ratios in pre-primary education, 2004
HIGHLIGHTS OF THE EFA REPORT 2007 / 5

What programmes work?
An approach that combines nutrition, health, care and education is more effective in improving young children’s current welfare and their development than limiting interventions to one aspect.
Inclusive programmes build on traditional child care practices, respect children’s linguistic and cultural diversity, and mainstream children with special educational needs and disabilities.
Mother tongue programmes are more effective than those in the official language, which remain the norm around the world.
Well-designed programmes can challenge gender stereotypes.
The single most important determinant of ECCE quality is interaction between children and staff, with a focus on the needs of the child. This requires reasonable working conditions, such as low child/staff ratios and adequate materials.
Continuity in staffing, curriculum and parental involvement ease the transition to primary school.
Quality improvements in the early years of schooling are needed to better accommodate young children from diverse backgrounds and experiences.

What would it take to reach the ECCE goal?
High-level political support, an essential element.
A consultative process to develop a national ECCE policy for children from birth to age 8, specifying the administrative responsibilities and budgetary commitments across relevant sectors and levels of government.
Ongoing national and international data collection and monitoring efforts to assess needs and outcomes in meeting the EFA goals.
The designation of a lead ministry or agency for policy on young children and ECCE, and an interagency coordinating mechanism with decision-making power.
Well-enforced national quality standards covering public and private provision for all age groups.
Stronger and more partnerships between
government and the private sector, an important ECCE stakeholder in many regions. 
Upgrading of ECCE staff, particularly through flexible recruitment strategies, appropriate training, quality standards and remuneration that retains trained staff. 
Increased and better-targeted public funding of ECCE, with particular attention to poor children, children living in rural areas and those with disabilities.
The specific inclusion of ECCE in key government resource documents, such as national budgets, sector plans and Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers.
More attention – and more funding – from donor agencies.
Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2007

OVERVIEW

PART I. A COMPREHENSIVE APPROACH

Chapter 1

Learning begins at birth

Learning begins before a child walks through the classroom door. This Report focuses on the first of the six Education for All (EFA) goal, which calls upon countries to expand and improve comprehensive early childhood care and education (ECCE), especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children. It adopts a holistic approach encompassing health, nutrition, hygiene and children’s cognitive development and socioemotional well-being. Early childhood programmes are vital to offset social and economic disadvantage. ECCE is an instrument to guarantee children’s rights that opens the way to all the EFA goals and contributes powerfully to reducing poverty, the overarching objective of the Millennium Development Goals.

The Report monitors progress towards all six EFA goals, giving special attention to issues of equity and inclusion. With a 2015 time horizon for achieving the goals, urgent and comprehensive action is needed, particularly to identify and enrol hard-to-reach children, make a dent in the global literacy challenge,
and move ECCE up the agenda.

PART II. MONITORING EFA

Chapter 2
The six goals: how are we doing?
This chapter reviews progress towards the six EFA goals since Dakar, comparing the latest available data with those for 1999. There has been considerable progress towards achieving universal primary education, with sharp enrolment increases in sub-Saharan Africa, and in South and West Asia, and more modest increases in the Arab States. Primary school progression and completion remain major concerns in those regions and, to some extent, in Latin America and the Caribbean. The number of primary school age children out of school declined by 21 million from 1999 to 2004 but remained unacceptably high at 77 million. The chapter details these children’s background characteristics, notably household poverty, place of residence, gender and mother’s education level. About two-thirds of countries with 2004 data have achieved gender parity in primary education, though only one-third have achieved it at the secondary level. Little progress has been made on literacy, with one in five of the world’s adults still not literate. The Education for All Development Index, calculated for 125 countries, shows improvement in many of the lowest-ranking countries. Countries lacking data – many in conflict or post-conflict situations – are not included but are likely to suffer from low levels of educational development, compounding the continuing global EFA challenge.

Chapter 3
Tackling exclusion: lessons from country experience
Education for All requires an inclusive approach. This chapter offers examples of policies and programmes that have been effective in extending education generally and, more
specifically, in identifying and overcoming the barriers that deprive marginalized groups of the same learning opportunities as others. Key policies include abolishing school fees, providing financial incentives to reduce household dependence on child labour, designing specific measures for children affected by HIV/AIDS and helping schools integrate children with disabilities. Non-formal education programmes for youth and adults offer a second chance at learning and are most effective when they are community-based, flexible and relevant to learners’ lives. Armed conflict – increasingly involving child soldiers – and internal displacement call for urgent interventions offering basic education services and medical and psychological care. Countries need sound education plans to overcome exclusion and improve education quality. Adequate public spending, availability of trained and motivated teachers and the capacity to expand secondary education are three key aspects of sound plans. While the overall trend in public education spending is positive (increases of more than 30% in some twenty countries), spending as a percentage of GNP fell in forty-one countries, particularly in Latin America and the Caribbean, and in South and West Asia. Many countries are under increasing pressure to expand secondary education. The EFA goals cannot be achieved without recruiting and training new teachers, and providing incentives for those working in difficult conditions, especially in rural areas.

Chapter 4
International support: making better use of more aid
Basic education benefited from an increase in overall aid to education between 2000 and 2004. Including funds channelled as direct budget support, aid to basic education for all low-income countries increased from US$1.8 billion to US$3.4 billion. Multilateral donors allocated 11.8% of their total aid in 2003-2004 to education, with about half of this going to basic
education. Donor presence remains uneven across the world’s poorest countries and the relative importance donors give to education in total aid is not the same for all regions. At US$11 billion a year, the price tag for fulfilling the EFA agenda is higher than originally expected. Even if recent promises to increase aid are met, the flows for basic education will be inadequate if its current share in total aid and its distribution across levels and income groups are maintained, and further harmonization does not occur. The share of total aid going to basic education must at least double and be focused more on low-income countries rather than on middle-income ones. The Fast Track Initiative process has become an important mechanism for donor dialogue and coordination. Greater efforts, however, will be needed internationally to persuade (a) donors to increase the volume and predictability of aid for basic education and (b) governments of low-income countries to give greater priority to basic education and to allocate to it a bigger share of the savings from debt relief.

PART III. EARLY CHILDHOOD CARE AND EDUCATION

Chapter 5

The compelling case for ECCE

Early childhood sets the foundations for life. Early childhood programmes are important, first, to guarantee the rights of young children, enshrined in the Convention on the Rights of the Child now ratified by 192 countries. Second, early childhood is a highly sensitive period marked by rapid transformations in physical, cognitive, social and emotional development. Undernutrition, deprivation of care and poor treatment are particularly damaging to young children, with repercussions often felt into the adult years. Well-designed ECCE programmes can significantly enhance young children’s well-being in these formative years and in the future, complementing the care they receive at home. Programmes that combine nutrition, health, care and education have a positive impact on cognitive outcomes. Participation in ECCE also
facilitates primary school enrolment and leads to better results in the first years of school, especially for disadvantaged children. From an economic viewpoint, investment in early childhood programmes offers a high pay-off in terms of human capital, so there is a strong case for public intervention. Finally, early childhood programmes can reduce social inequality: they can compensate for vulnerability and disadvantage resulting from factors such as poverty, gender, race, ethnicity, caste or religion.
Chapter 6
Worldwide progress in early childhood care and education

This chapter first examines the changing contexts – smaller households, more working women, maternity benefits and new gender roles – in which the provision of care and education for young children has historically evolved. It then assesses countries’ progress towards the ECCE goal for three groups: children under age 3, those between 3 and the primary school entry age, and vulnerable and disadvantaged children. Finally, the chapter characterizes the type, composition and professional status of the carers and educators in ECCE programmes.

Among the main findings: many countries have no programmes addressing the diverse needs (health, nutrition, care and education) of children in the first three years of life. Few countries have established national frameworks to coordinate ECCE programmes. Access to pre-primary education has expanded worldwide. ECCE enrolments fell sharply in transition countries after the breakup of the Soviet Union but are now recovering, although not to previous levels. Among developing country regions, coverage is greatest in Latin America and the Caribbean but remains low in sub-Saharan Africa and the Arab States. Children from poorer and rural households have less access to ECCE programmes than those from richer and urban ones. In developing countries, the ECCE workforce typically possesses minimal education and preservice training. In most industrialized countries, highly trained professionals work alongside untrained child care workers and part-time volunteers. Many countries have implemented
policies to expand and upgrade their ECCE workforce, but progress is uneven and slow.

Chapter 7
The making of effective programmes
ECCE programmes are extremely diverse: there is no universal model of early childhood provision. No matter the setting, however, successful programmes offer support to parents during the child’s earliest years, integrate educational activities with other services (notably health, care and nutrition) and ease the transition to primary school. Parents, or other custodial carers, are the child’s first educators, and for the youngest age group the home is the prime arena for care. The past decade has seen an increase in the number of parenting programmes that aim to reach children under age 3. Home visiting programmes offer support to individual parents and can be particularly positive for at-risk families by favouring the child’s development and raising parents’ self-esteem. Local communities also play a key role in supporting young children and their families through home- or community-based child care.

The most common form of ECCE, particularly for the 3 to 6 age group, is centre-based provision. It is crucial to make this experience a positive one by ensuring that practices are suited to the child’s age and cultural environment. Research shows that positive interactions between staff and child are the most important predictors of children’s enhanced well-being. Early learning is most effective in the mother tongue yet teaching in the official language still predominates. At the same time, this first exposure to organized learning is an opportunity to challenge traditional gender roles. Finally, programmes should be inclusive and take into account circumstances of children with disabilities.
or in armed conflict. Because ECCE is also an important foundation for subsequent education, it is important to foster continuity between pre-primary and primary school. Several countries are integrating ECCE more closely with primary education to facilitate the transition for children.
Chapter 8
Fostering strong ECCE policies
A more favourable policy environment for ECCE is emerging, influenced by a growing body of research on its benefits and the support of strong international networks. To help build on this momentum, several key elements contribute to strengthening political will and developing national ECCE policies. High-level political endorsement can put ECCE on the agenda. In recent years, leaders in several countries have made early childhood a national priority, leading to new policies and increased resources. Broad stakeholder involvement encourages public support for ECCE. Government partnerships with international organizations or aid agencies can generate important seed money for projects that can then be taken to scale. Aligning ECCE policies with other national and sector development policies is strategic to leverage resources. Public campaigns can promote ECCE and provide information to carers. Although national ECCE policies are countryspecific, they should include guidelines on governance, quality and financing questions. ECCE involves multiple sectors, making coordination a frequent challenge. Defining a lead administrative body and setting up coordination mechanisms with real decision-making power can advance the agenda for young children. Governments need to ensure that minimum acceptable standards are met for all children, whether the provider is public or private. Expanding and improving ECCE will require additional public and private funds. In many developing countries, targeting of resources to the most disadvantaged children may be the first step of a broader national ECCE policy for all children. Finally, donor support for ECCE has been limited; increased support is essential.

PART IV. SETTING PRIORITIES
Chapter 9
EFA: action now
The considerable progress made towards the EFA goals since the Dakar forum provides a measure of just how much can be accomplished when countries
and the international community act together. This chapter makes nine recommendations that warrant urgent policy attention:

1. Return to the comprehensive approach of Dakar.
2. Act with urgency to enrol all children in school, expand adult literacy programmes and create opportunities for children living in conflict and post-conflict situations.
3. Emphasize equity and inclusion.
4. Increase public spending and focus it better.
5. Increase aid to basic education and allocate it where it is most needed.
6. Move ECCE up domestic and international agendas.
7. Increase public financing for ECCE and target it.
8. Upgrade the ECCE workforce, especially as regards qualifications, training and working conditions.
9. Improve the monitoring of ECCE.

Policies must address all six EFA goals and stay the course: with only nine years left to 2015, the time for comprehensive action is now.
PART I. A comprehensive approach
Chapter 1
Learning begins
at birth
The child’s early experiences, the special focus of this year’s EFA Global Monitoring Report, create the base for all subsequent learning. Strong early childhood foundations — including good health, nutrition and a nurturing environment — can help ensure a smooth transition to primary school, a better chance of completing basic education, and a route out of poverty and disadvantage. It is therefore no coincidence that the first EFA goal calls on countries to expand and improve early childhood care and education (ECCE), especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged. ECCE is an instrument to guarantee children’s rights, opens the way to all the EFA goals and contributes powerfully to reducing poverty, the overarching objective of the Millennium Development Goals. It is high time to move ECCE up the policy agenda, in line with the comprehensive view of EFA as conceived in Dakar.
Learning begins at birth
Learning begins before a child walks through the classroom door. From the earliest age, children’s development and learning are fostered through their interactions with caring human beings in secure, nurturing and stimulating environments. Young children’s experiences in the first years of life – well before they begin school – create the foundation for subsequent learning. Although early childhood is a period of great potential for human growth and development, it is also a time when children are especially fragile and vulnerable.

Today, despite considerable progress, the status of young children remains disturbing, particularly in the poorest countries. A child born in the developing world has a four out of ten chance of living in extreme poverty, defined as living on less than US$1 a day. An estimated 10.5 million children died in 2005 before they reached age 5, most from preventable diseases and in countries that have experienced major armed conflict since 1999. AIDS has orphaned more than 15 million children under age 18, 80% of them in sub-Saharan Africa. The rights of millions of children are violated by trafficking, labour, abuse and neglect. Finally, many of the 50 million children whose births are not registered each year are unable to access basic services or schooling as a result (UNICEF, 2005b).

For all these reasons early intervention is crucial: it is far more challenging and costly to compensate for educational and social disadvantage among older children and adults than it is to provide preventive measures and support in early childhood. Good-quality early childhood care and education programmes – including immunization, parenting education, home-based activities and kindergartens, preschools or nurseries – provide health, nutrition, hygiene, stimulation and social interaction that support children’s development and learning. Participation of young children in such
programmes can lead to a more equitable society. This edition of the EFA Global Monitoring Report recognizes the significance of the early years of children’s lives in shaping the quality of their childhoods as well as their future education, health and economic welfare. In addition to its core function of monitoring and analysing progress on all six Education for All (EFA) goals (Box 1.1), this Report highlights the need for (a) a comprehensive approach (working toward all six goals and taking a broad view of early childhood care and education); (b) special attention to issues of equity and inclusion; and (c) urgent action in order to achieve all the EFA goals on time.

Comprehensiveness, equity and action

The EFA goals were conceived as an indivisible whole, addressing the rights of all children, youth and adults. Thus, the educational needs of populations in situations of conflict and crisis, or people who are marginalized through language, disability, poverty or culture, deserve special attention. The goals further call for quality in education for everyone, as a prerequisite for the acquisition of sustainable skills, knowledge and attitudes that enhance human capabilities and counter poverty and inequality.

In this way the EFA goals contribute directly to the Millenium Development Goals (MDGs), especially the overarching goal of eradicating poverty (Box 1.1). The EFA goals are also more ambitious than the MDGs. Cautiously phrased, the two education MDGs omit mention of ‘free and compulsory’ aspects of primary schooling and are restricted to seeking the elimination of gender disparities in education rather than to achieving the more ambitious gender equality espoused by the Dakar Framework. Further, literacy (EFA goal 4), early childhood care and education (EFA goal 1) and youth and adult learning needs (EFA goal 3) are not mentioned. This Report, like all its predecessors, reflects the conviction that a comprehensive approach is needed, encompassing all the EFA goals – a view also stressed at the 2005 World Summit, the 2005
EFA High-Level Group Meeting and the 2006 G8 Summit.

The EFA goals were set in 2000 with a target date of 2015. This is the fifth Report monitoring general progress and addressing a special theme: this year the theme is early childhood care and education (ECCE), the subject of the first EFA goal. Previous Reports have featured gender (2003/4), quality (2005) and adult literacy (2006).

The next Report, in 2008, like the first in 2002, will not address a special theme but will review overall progress towards all six goals at the halfway mark.

Each year the information available for monitoring progress on the EFA goals improves. Children’s experiences in the first years create the foundation for subsequent learning.

PART I. A comprehensive approach
LEARNING BEGINS AT BIRTH / 13

New monitoring features

In this 2007 Report:
The data provided by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) cover more countries and are more up to date, including for the school year that ended in 2004.

A major problem with data availability for some countries persists, however, often because of recent or current armed conflict. This means the EFA situation in these countries is unlikely to be improving, but the lack of data makes it impossible to include them in the Report’s statistical analyses.

Greater use is made of other sources of data, particularly household surveys, to look in detail at educational coverage across regions, in terms of rural or urban location, household spending on education and, especially, participation in ECCE programmes and the characteristics of children who are out of school. For ECCE, UNESCO’s International Bureau of Education (IBE), together with UNICEF, has established a database of country profiles especially for this Report, which may be consulted on the Report website (www.efareport.unesco.org).

National learning assessments are examined, supplementing previous Reports’ attention to regional and international ones.

Coverage of secondary education is deepened by distinguishing for the first time between lower and upper secondary education. As countries become increasingly committed to universal basic education, they are also extending their definitions of it to include two or three years of the secondary cycle. Indeed, it is increasingly clear that the availability of lower secondary school places is an important determinant of primary completion. Secondary education is also important for EFA because in many countries it is the minimum qualification for primary teachers. Finally, as the fastest growing level in developing countries, secondary education is increasingly in direct
competition with primary education for public funding.

Analysis of aid flows for education in general and EFA in particular is extended with improved data from the OECD Development Assistance Committee (DAC) and by taking a closer look at relationships between donors and recipient governments, as well as attempting, with limited success, to review aid flows for ECCE.

Building on two United Nations instruments, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the Convention on the Rights of the Child, the international community adopted the World Declaration on Education for All at Jomtien, Thailand, in 1990. At its heart is the recognition that universal education is the key to sustainable development, social justice and a brighter future.

The 2000 Dakar Framework for Action expresses the international community’s commitment to a broad-based strategy for ensuring that the basic learning needs of every child, youth and adult are met within a generation and sustained thereafter. It sets the six EFA goals:

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

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), approved by world leaders at the United Nations Millennium Summit in 2000, form an agenda for reducing poverty and improving lives. For each goal, one or more targets have been set, most for
2015. The first goal cannot be achieved without education, and two other goals and two targets make explicit reference to education:

Goal 1. Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger.
Goal 2. Achieve universal primary education. (Target: ensure that by 2015 children everywhere, boys and girls, will be able to complete a full course of good quality primary schooling.)
Goal 3. Promote gender equality and empower women. (Target: eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and at all levels of education no later than 2015.)


Box 1.1: The Dakar EFA goals and the Millennium Development Goals
Two aspects of EFA remain very difficult to monitor: Goal 3 on learning needs of youth and adults. Interpretations vary enormously, but the Report suggests how progress in this area might be monitored in future, using empirical studies of what countries are actually doing. National spending on education. Reporting on national expenditure remains patchy. The UIS is working to improve the data, starting with sub-Saharan Africa, but this remains the weakest element of EFA monitoring. This is unfortunate, as adequate finances and strong commitment hold the key to sustaining and extending the EFA progress achieved so far.

Addressing disadvantage and inclusion

The latest World Development Report from the World Bank (2005d) and Human Development Report from UNDP (2005) both highlight the inequities in opportunities that various groups face, and the setbacks these gaps can result in for children, adults and social and economic development. Educational attainment is one, if not the major, determinant of life chances and the opportunity to escape poverty. These facts are powerful reasons for reinforcing efforts to achieve the EFA goals.

Aggregate measures of education coverage hide wide variations among particular groups of children and young adults. This Report provides examples of such variations, taking a closer look at children who are not attending primary school and describing specific efforts to reduce inequities and promote inclusion. It also underlines the financial implications for governments of trying to include the hardest-to-reach children, youth and illiterate adults through such actions as fee reduction, and the hiring and training of more teachers. Access to ECCE programmes, in particular, is shown to be highly inequitable in most developing countries, yet ECCE is a particularly effective instrument for offsetting disadvantage.

The need for urgent action
With a 2015 target date for achieving the goals, very little time for action is left. A majority of countries have a six-year primary school cycle. To achieve UPE in these countries by 2015, all children of the age to complete primary school that year will have to be enrolled by 2009, less than three years away. Two steps are needed: first, identifying all hard-to-reach children and assessing their characteristics and the obstacles to their attending school; and second, devising strategies and policies to reach them, and obtaining and allocating the financial resources, both domestic and external, needed for implementation. Addressing the first part of the gender goal, ending disparities in primary and secondary education, whose target date of 2005 has already been missed, is equally urgent. Gender issues are a recurring theme throughout the Report. A sense of urgency about EFA is particularly necessary because many governments and donors are starting to focus more attention on economic growth and the role of the upper levels of education in fuelling the knowledge economy. The international community thus needs extra vigilance to keep the EFA goals at the forefront of international and national agendas, to maintain a comprehensive view of EFA that recognizes all six goals as interrelated parts of a whole and to ensure that the necessary financing is in place.

ECCE: a conceptual framework
The first EFA goal – expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education – includes several concepts that are variously interpreted: early childhood, care, education, and vulnerable and disadvantaged children. The goal’s complexity, along with its intersectoral nature and the absence of a quantitative target, makes it more difficult to monitor than some of the other EFA goals. Understandings of and approaches to early childhood vary depending on local traditions, cultures, family structures and the organization of primary schooling (Dahlberg et al., 1999; Nsamenang, 2006; Woodhead, 2006). It is important to acknowledge and value this diversity.
For monitoring purposes, this Report follows the increasingly recognized convention that early childhood covers the period from birth to age 8.1 The early years are a time of remarkable brain development that lays the foundation for later learning. During this time, young children learn by manipulating objects and materials, exploring the world around them and experimenting, using trial and error. Also during the early years children receiving emotional support develop their sense of personal and physical security, and strengthen bonds with family and community. By age 8, all children around the world are expected to be in primary school.2 With a 2015 target date for achieving the goals, very little time for action is left 1. Although the prenatal period is often included as important for maternal and child health, it is beyond the scope of this Report. 2. Children’s transition to primary school may occur as early as age 4, but nowhere is it supposed to occur later than age 8.

PART I. A comprehensive approach
LEARNING BEGINS AT BIRTH / 15
Guided by the Expanded Commentary on
the Dakar Framework for Action on EFA goal 1
(Box 1.2), this Report focuses on both the care
and the education of young children. The term
‘care’ generally includes attention to health,
hygiene and nutrition within a nurturing and safe
environment that supports children’s cognitive
and socio-emotional well-being. Use of the term
‘education’ in the early childhood years is much
broader than (pre-)schooling, capturing learning
through early stimulation, guidance and a range
of developmental activities and opportunities. In
practice, care and education cannot be separated,
and good-quality provision for young children
necessarily addresses both dimensions (Choi,
2002; Myers, 1995; OECD, 2001).3 In this respect,
care and education are parts of a whole: both are
needed to foster holistic growth, development and
learning, as the Dakar Framework states.
Defining ECCE
Drawing on this holistic approach, the Report
uses the following definition:
Early childhood care and education supports
children’s survival growth, development and
learning – including health, nutrition and hygiene,
and cognitive, social, physical and emotional
development – from birth to entry into primary
school4 in formal, informal and non-formal
settings. Often provided by a mix of government
institutions, non-governmental organizations,
private providers, communities and families,
ECCE represents a continuum of interconnected
arrangements involving diverse actors: family,
friends, neighbours; family day care for a group
of children in a provider’s home; centre-based
programmes; classes/programmes in schools;
and programmes for parents.
ECCE policies and provision vary according
to the age and development of the child, and can
be organized in formal, non-formal and informal
arrangements (Figure 1.1). The broad, holistic
scope of ECCE is captured in the policy objectives
associated with it around the world:
providing health care, immunization, feeding
and nutrition;
supporting new parents through information sharing and parenting education;
creating a safe environment for young children to play and socialize with their peers;
compensating for disadvantage and fostering the resilience of vulnerable children;
promoting ‘school readiness’ and preparation for primary school;
providing custodial care for children of working parents and family members;
Though the various international agencies differ in the terminology they use (Choi, 2002), there is general recognition of the benefits of such a holistic approach, both within ECCE programmes and at home, as well as during the transition to primary school. This Report takes a similarly broad approach to the monitoring of ECCE. It looks at the family and community contexts, the institutions, the programmes and the policies that affect children’s survival, growth, development, learning and well-being. It covers a wide variety of ECCE arrangements (Figure 1.1).
3. For example, many early childhood specialists argue that programmes labelled ‘child care’ should provide opportunities for children to grow and learn, and those labelled ‘early education’ should nurture children and promote their social and emotional well-being.
4. Where primary school starts at age 6, for example, ECCE programmes serve children from birth to age 5 and primary school covers the rest of early childhood (ages 6 to 8). Care and education cannot be separated,
and good-quality provision for young children necessarily addresses both

‘All young children must be nurtured in safe and caring environments that allow them to become healthy, alert and secure and be able to learn. The past decade has provided more evidence that good quality early childhood care and education, both in families and in more structured programmes, have a positive impact on the survival, growth, development and learning potential of children. Such programmes should be comprehensive, focusing on all of the child’s needs and encompassing health, nutrition and hygiene as well as cognitive and psycho-social development. They should be provided in the child’s mother tongue and help to identify and enrich the care and education of children with special needs. Partnerships between governments, NGOs, communities and families can help ensure the provision of good care and education for children, especially for those most disadvantaged, through activities centred on the child, focused on the family, based within the community and supported by national, multisectoral policies and adequate resources.

‘Governments … have the primary responsibility of formulating early childhood care and education policies within the context of national EFA plans, mobilizing political and popular support, and promoting flexible, adaptable programmes for young children that are appropriate to their age and not mere downward extensions of formal school systems. The education of parents and other caregivers in better child care, building on traditional practices, and the systematic use of early childhood indicators, are important elements in achieving this goal.’


Box 1.2: Comment on EFA goal 1
EFA goal 1 explicitly calls for expanding and improving ECCE for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children, which makes issues of targeting potentially more important here than for other EFA goals. The benefits of good-quality ECCE are greater for the vulnerable and disadvantaged than for others. The goal’s focus on these children is consistent with a rights-based perspective and with the importance of equity and inclusion to EFA more broadly. Just as early childhood arrangements vary among and within countries, so do national and local definitions of ‘vulnerable and disadvantaged children’. Some types of vulnerability and disadvantage are specific to certain difficult contexts (e.g. armed conflict) while others are less so. Poverty is a principal source of disadvantage and it aggravates other types of vulnerability. Even in high-income countries, it is often the disadvantaged who would benefit most from early childhood programmes but who have the least access to them. This Report pays particular attention to how public policy can be designed to include the disadvantaged in ECCE and how programmes themselves can best be adapted to diverse participation.

ECCE: a right in itself

Among the EFA goals, developing country governments thus far have generally given less policy attention to early childhood (and to literacy) than to primary education and gender parity. For vulnerable and disadvantaged children, the lack of a national ECCE policy truly represents a missed opportunity. Where ECCE does get attention, it is usually geared towards ages 3 and up, and focused on the years before primary school entry, leaving opportunities for younger children overlooked.

ECCE, like EFA more generally, is both a right and a major contributor to development and poverty reduction. Fortunately, international commitment to early childhood is growing. The 1989 Convention on the Rights of the Child, signed
by 192 nations, focuses on guaranteeing the rights of young children to survive, develop and be protected. The 1990 World Declaration on Education for All states that ‘learning begins at birth’ and encourages the development of ECCE. The World Education Forum at Dakar in 2000 reaffirmed the importance of ECCE in reaching basic education goals, as did the UN Special Session on Children in 2002. These groundbreaking legal and political commitments all recognize that children are born with the right to have their learning needs met through approaches that promote their holistic development. To date, however, these rights are far from the reality for many children.

5. Country definitions include poor children; children with physical, emotional and learning disabilities; children in emergencies (including refugees and internally displaced children); working children in exploitative conditions; malnourished and undernourished children; abused and neglected children; street children; orphans and children in institutions; children infected and affected by HIV/AIDS; unregistered children; indigenous children; linguistic, ethnic and cultural minority children; and migrant and nomad children.

PART I. A comprehensive approach

Figure 1.1: Schematic description of approaches to the care and education of young children

* International Standard Classification of Education, a system designed by UNESCO and the OECD as an instrument for assembling, compiling and presenting comparable indicators and statistics of education within countries and internationally.
To be holistic, policies and programmes should address health, hygiene, nutrition, social, emotional and educational needs of children.

Age Organized care and education
A. ECCE policies and programmes** for ages 0 to 2
B. ECCE policies and programmes** for ages 3 and up
C. Primary education (ISCED* level 1)

Informal care
and child-rearing
D. Informal
provision of care
for children aged
0 to 8, by parents
or extended family,
mainly at home but
sometimes in other
family or community
settings.

Ideally, children’s
health, nutrition,
cognitive and
psychosocial needs
are addressed.

B1. Pre-primary education programmes designed for children at least 3 years old (ISCED 0)
B2. Non-formal education programmes (age 3+)

A1. Organized care and education programmes
A2. Non-formal care or education programmes
A3. Parental leave

Providers:
Government (national, subnational),
private (non-profit and for-profit),
international non-governmental organization,
community-based organization.
LEARNING BEGINS AT BIRTH / 17
Recent demographic, economic, social and political trends have increased the need for comprehensive ECCE policies and programmes. Urbanization and the resulting changes to household structures have reduced the role of extended family members as carers. Growing numbers of working mothers with young children have increased the demand for non-parental child care. Pressures to increase competitiveness in a world economy that is increasingly knowledge-based have led to calls for improving children’s ‘school readiness’. World health crises (particularly HIV/AIDS) and other emergencies (e.g. famine, natural disaster and war) require responses to protect the safety and well-being of young children. These contextual trends have influenced the types and coverage of ECCE programmes, as well as the extent to which nations have made progress towards achieving EFA goal 1.

A powerful boost to education and development
In addition to being an important goal in itself, ECCE can contribute to the realization of the other EFA goals and the MDGs. Children who participate in ECCE and have positive early learning experiences make a better transition to primary school, and are more likely to begin and complete it (EFA goal 2). By reducing dropout, repetition and special education placements, ECCE can improve the internal efficiency of primary education and decrease costs for both governments and households. Many ECCE programmes provide carers with access to parenting education and other forms of support, which in turn can improve adult learning and skills (EFA goals 3 and 4). ECCE is also an important instrument for promoting gender parity (EFA goal 5). When young children attend ECCE programmes, their older sisters or other female kin are relieved of care responsibilities, a common barrier to girls’ enrolment in primary school. Some evidence regarding primary school outcomes indicates that girls benefit more than
boys from participation in ECCE. The programmes also provide an opportunity to reduce stereotypes about traditional gender roles and to foster gender equality at an age when young children are developing understandings of identity, empathy, tolerance and morality. Participation in good-quality ECCE is linked with achievement at subsequent levels of education and contributes to the quality of the education system as a whole (EFA goal 6). Moreover, when the transition to primary education is well managed, ECCE has the potential to influence the quality of pedagogy in primary school, making it more child-centred, for example.

Reaching the MDGs and reducing poverty depends on efforts to support young children’s rights to health, education, protection and equality. Holistic ECCE can make a major difference in reducing poverty and hunger (MDG 1) and child mortality (MDG 4), and can help combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases (MDG 6). This role of ECCE as part of a broader anti-poverty strategy deserves far greater recognition by the international community (UNICEF, 2003).

Recognizing the benefits of good-quality ECCE to children, families and society, most OECD countries provide children with access to at least two years of free ECCE before they begin primary school, and parents receive maternal or parental leave benefits. Over the past two decades, these countries have focused on strengthening the quality and the coherence of such services (OECD, 2001). Although a growing number of policy-makers elsewhere realize the early years are a springboard for future academic and economic success, and for reducing poverty, access to good quality ECCE is still not widespread, particularly in the poorest countries. The time has come to move ECCE up the policy agenda in the developing world and among international donors in order to achieve EFA and to reduce poverty.

Good-quality ECCE contributes to the quality of the
education system
as a whole
All eyes on the alphabet outside a village primary school in Sathkira district, Bangladesh.
PART II. Monitoring
Education for All
Chapter 2
The six goals:
how are we doing?
This chapter looks at how countries have progressed since the World Education Forum in 2000, with a stronger focus on pre-primary education than in past editions (see also Chapter 6). It highlights the considerable progress towards achieving universal primary education and expresses a concern that countries trailing behind are those affected by internal conflict. Special attention is paid to children who have been left out of school. The growth of lower secondary education is emphasized and gender analysis is integrated throughout. The review of education quality focuses as always on repetition, dropout and completion, and on the supply and qualifications of teachers; new this year is reporting on the spread of national assessments of student achievement. Adult and youth literacy patterns are presented and some aspects of literate environments are discussed. The EFA Development Index, incorporating four goals, has been updated for 125 countries.
Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2 0 0 7 1 9
Pre-primary education: spreading, but very slowly

This section focuses on pre-primary education, the education component of early childhood care and education (ECCE). The International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) defines pre-primary education (ISCED level 0) as all programmes that, in addition to providing care, offer a structured and purposeful set of learning activities, either in a formal institution or in a non-formal setting. Pre-primary programmes are usually for children aged 3 and above, and are held for the equivalent of at least two hours a day for at least one hundred days a year.

Worldwide, almost 124 million children were enrolled in pre-primary education in 2004, an increase of 10.7% over 1999 (Table 2.1). Increases were particularly pronounced in sub-Saharan Africa (43.5%), the Caribbean (43.4%) and South and West Asia (40.5%). In most other regions the increases were modest, and in East Asia enrolments declined by almost 10%, mainly due to trends in China. Some 48% of the world’s pre-primary enrollees were girls, a proportion unchanged since 1999 (see annex, Statistical Table 3B).

Figure 2.1 displays the pre-primary gross enrolment ratios (GER) globally and by region for 1999 and 2004. The global pre-primary GER increased from 33% to 37%. Increases were rather moderate in developed and developing countries (four percentage points each), but more pronounced in transition countries (eighteen percentage points). Among developing regions, there were marked increases in the Pacific and the Caribbean, and much smaller increases elsewhere; the GER for East Asia was stable. A large absolute enrolment increase in sub-Saharan Africa was not matched by a similar increase in the GER because of continuing high population growth.

Most of the fifty-two countries with preprimary GERs below 30% in 2004 are in sub-
Saharan Africa and the Arab States (Figure 2.2). In general their recent progress has been slow. Among the forty-two for which the 1999 data are also available, the GERs increased in three-quarters of the countries, but typically by fewer than five percentage points. More rapid change occurred in Azerbaijan, Cameroon, Madagascar, Namibia and Tunisia. In the remaining one-quarter of the countries, pre-primary enrolment ratios declined, sometimes quite markedly, as in Bangladesh and the Palestinian Autonomous Territories, which had decreases of more than ten percentage points.

Of 104 countries with pre-primary GERs above 30% in 2004, the ratio had increased since 1999 in seventy-seven, declined in fifteen and remained almost unchanged in twelve (Table 2.2). The increase was moderate (between two and ten)

ISCED defines pre-primary education as all programmes that offer a structured and purposeful set of learning activities.

1. Chapter 6 discusses the challenges involved in monitoring this goal more comprehensively.

2. In a change from previous versions of the EFA Global Monitoring Report, data pertain to the year in which school ended, rather than that in which the school year began.

3. Assessment of progress based solely on the GER misses important country differences in the theoretical duration of pre-primary education. For example, pre-primary
education lasts four years in Romania, three in Lebanon, two in Saint Lucia and one in Ecuador – all of which have a pre-primary GER of about 75%. Other measures, such as pre-primary school life expectancy (see UIS, 2006a: Table 12) can provide a complementary basis for evaluating national progress (see Chapter 6).

4. Regional trends in pre-primary education are based on weighted averages of the GER. Corresponding values are not available for the net enrolment ratio due to the high number of countries with missing data (see annex, Statistical Table 3B). More detailed analyses of pre-primary enrolment ratios are discussed in Chapter 6.

Part III. Monitoring EFA

Table 2.1: Pre-primary enrolment in 1999 and 2004, by region

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<td>1999 and 2004 (%)</td>
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School year ending in

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**Figure 2.1:** Changes in pre-primary gross enrolment ratios between 1999 and 2004, by region

*Source: Annex, Statistical Table 3B.*
THE SIX GOALS: HOW ARE WE DOING? / 21
Burkina Faso
Niger
Burundi
C. A. R.
Mali
Uganda
Ethiopia
Togo
Rwanda
Côte d’Ivoire
Comoros
Benin
Congo
Senegal
Guinea
Eritrea
Madagascar
Gabon
Nigeria
Gambia
Cameroon
U. R. Tanzania
Namibia
Yemen
Mauritania
Djibouti
Algeria
Saudi Arabia
Iraq
Oman
Libyan A. J.
Syrian A. R.
Egypt
Tunisia
Sudan
Jordan
Palestinian A. T.
Tajikistan
Kyrgyzstan
Uzbekistan
Azerbaijan
Lao PDR
Cambodia
Timor-Leste
Fiji
Indonesia
Tonga
Afghanistan
Bangladesh
Belize
Guatemala
Turkey
Sub-Saharan Africa
Arab States
Central Asia
East Asia/Pacific
South/West Asia
Latin America/Caribbean
Central/East. Europe
1.2
1.4
1.4
1.7
1.9
2.1
2.2
2.4
2.5
3.2
3.3
4.4
5.6
5.6
6.1
7.4
10.0
13.9
14.7
18.2
19.6
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0.8
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<td>0.8</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>3.7</td>
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<th>Changes between 1999 and 2004 (percentage points)</th>
<th>Pre-primary GERs (%)</th>
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</tbody>
</table>

* The apparent decrease in Guatemala is due to a change in the age group for which the GER is calculated, from 5-6 in 1999 to 3-6 in 2004.

Note: See source table for detailed country notes.

Source: Annex, Statistical Table 3B.
(Percentage points)
(Percentage points)
Remained almost unchanged

Table 2.2: Changes in pre-primary gross enrolment ratios between 1999 and 2004 in countries with GERs above 30% in 2004
* Change in the age group.
Notes: See source table for detailed country notes.
Countries are listed in order of changes in pre-primary GERs.
Sources: Annex, Statistical Table 3B.
Below -2 -2 to +2 2.1 to 10 Over 10
The GER has:
Increased
(Percentage points)
(Percentage points)
Sub-Saharan Africa
Arab States
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
South and West Asia
Latin America and the Caribbean
North America and Western Europe
Central and Eastern Europe
Number of countries
(104)
Seychelles
Mauritius
Morocco
Kuwait
Niue
China
Samoa
Chile*
Costa Rica*
Dominica
Guyana
Saint Lucia
Netherlands Antilles
Dominican Republic
Netherlands

15
Ghana
United Arab Emirates
Brunei
Daruss. Palau
Colombia
Uruguay
Greece
Denmark
Cyprus
Canada
Malta
Hungary

12
Zimbabwe
Lesotho
Equat. Guinea
Kenya
Qatar
Lebanon
Bahrain
Armenia
Mongolia
Japan
Thailand
Vanuatu
Macao (China)
New Zealand
Cook Islands
Solomon Islands
Malaysia
Viet Nam
Philippines
Maldives
Bolivia
Aruba
Paraguay
Argentina
Peru
Nicaragua
Barbados
El Salvador
Brazil
France
Switzerland
United States
Germany
Belgium
Austria
Italy
Sweden
Portugal
Israel
Poland
TFYR
Macedonia
Albania
Croatia
Bulgaria
Slovakia
Rep. Moldova
46
South Africa
S. Tome/
Principe*
Georgia
Kazakhstan
Rep. of Korea
Papua New Guinea
India
Iran, Isl. Rep.
Nepal*
Venezuela
Cuba  
Mexico  
Ecuador  
Jamaica  
Panama  
Bahamas  
Trinidad and Tobago  
Br. Virgin Is  
Finland  
Norway  
Luxembourg  
Spain  
Iceland  
Romania  
Czech Rep.  
Lithuania  
Belarus  
Estonia  
Latvia  
Russian Fed.  
Ukraine*  
31
percentage points) in forty-six of the seventy-seven and rapid (more than ten percentage points) in the remaining thirty-one, which included Cuba, Ecuador, Jamaica and Mexico. Especially noteworthy were the gains registered in transition countries, including Belarus, Georgia, Kazakhstan, the Russian Federation and Ukraine with increases of between twelve and thirty percentage points, and the Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Romania, where declines observed during the 1990s were mostly reversed (see Chapter 6 for further discussion).

Among the eight countries whose GERs decreased, Guyana, Mauritius, the Netherlands and Seychelles began the period with very high values. A decrease of over two percentage points occurred in China, where it was officially reported that the number of kindergarten and pre-primary classes declined by 36% between 1999 and 2003 (UNESCO, 2003b).

Keeping in mind that there is no quantitative target for the ECCE goal, it is instructive to compare national changes in pre-primary GERs with the targets set in national plans for 2010 or 2015. In general, these comparisons indicate unrealistically ambitious targets (see Table 2.3).5

5. The targets discussed here are contained in IIEP (2006: annex, Table 3), which summarizes recommendations and targets set forth in national development and education sector plans, national EFA action plans, Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers and Millennium Development Goal reports for forty-five countries.

Part I. Monitoring EFA

Table 2.3: Current and target pre-primary enrolment ratios for selected countries with enrolment ratios below 30%

Latest available UIS estimates* National targets
Target year
Pre-primary enrolment ratios (GER or NER)
NER (%) GER
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Country group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4-5</td>
<td>Benin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-5</td>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-6</td>
<td>Burkina Faso</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-5</td>
<td>Côte d'Ivoire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-5</td>
<td>D. R. Congo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-6</td>
<td>Indonesia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-6</td>
<td>Mali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-6</td>
<td>Niger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-6</td>
<td>Senegal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-5</td>
<td>Sudan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-5</td>
<td>Tunisia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-5</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.6b</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2c</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.9b</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.7b</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Unless otherwise indicated, data are for the school year ending in 2004.
a. Data are for 2002.
b. Data are for 2003.
c. Country estimates are for 2003.
Note: See source table for detailed country notes.
Sources: Annex, Statistical Table 3B; UNESCO-IIEP (2006).
30% of 3- to 5-year-olds
All 3- to 5-year-olds attend ECCE programmes of some kind
4% GER
30% of 0- to 8-year-olds
50% GER
75%
10%
15%
5% GER
10%
30% GER
35%
100%
35%
41%
Attain levels of EU and OECD countries
Figure 2.3: Changes in gender disparities in pre-primary gross enrolment ratios between 1999 and 2004, by region
Source: Annex, Statistical Table 3B.
0.96
0.95
0.99
0.94
0.98
0.76
0.92
0.98
1.00
0.93
1.04
1.01
0.98
0.97

World
Developing countries
Developed countries
Countries in transition
Sub-Saharan Africa
Arab States
Central Asia
East Asia
The Pacific
South and West Asia
Caribbean
Latin America
North America and Western Europe
Central and Eastern Europe
0.97
0.97
0.99
0.93
0.98
0.87
0.95
0.96
0.99
0.98
1.03
1.01
0.98
0.95

GPI of GER
1999 2004
Gender parity
index of GER
1999 2004 (increase since 1999) 2004 (decrease since 1999) No change
World
Developing countries
Developed countries
Countries in transition
Sub-Saharan Africa
Arab States
Central Asia
East Asia
The Pacific
South and West Asia
Caribbean
Latin America
North America and Western Europe
Central and Eastern Europe
0.75 0.80 0.85 0.90 0.95 1.00 1.05
Gender
parity
line
THE SIX GOALS: HOW ARE WE DOING? / 23

Many countries with relatively high pre-primary GERs have an objective of universal pre-school enrolment by 2015. This is the case for Chile and Mexico, whose current GERs are above 50%, but also for countries such as India, Kazakhstan and Paraguay, which have GERs below 40%. Given past growth rates, these national targets are unlikely to be achieved.

Gender disparities in pre-primary education

Figure 2.3 shows changes in gender disparities in pre-primary GERs between 1999 and 2004 globally and by region. Overall, the ratio between the female and male GERs, which provides the gender parity index (GPI), increased slightly, from 0.96 to 0.97. Indeed, it is higher at preprimary than at primary level, probably because overall pre-primary enrolment ratios are relatively low and tend to represent mainly the more affluent, among whom gender differences are usually less pronounced than among the poor (see Chapter 6). Most regions are moving towards gender parity and considerable progress has occurred in those with high disparities. Notable improvements occurred in the Arab States, where female enrolments in 1999 were just three-quarters of male enrolments, and in South and West Asia. Among countries in the Caribbean subregion, a slight disparity in favour of girls is detectable.

In about two-thirds of the 165 countries for which pre-primary enrolment data by gender are available, the GPIs vary between 0.97 and 1.03 (see annex, Statistical Table 3B). Among the countries outside this range, the situation favours girls in thirty (GPIs above 1.03) and boys in thirty-two (GPIs below 0.97). Afghanistan, Morocco, Pakistan and Yemen have the lowest GPIs (Table 2.4). In Morocco, the GPI has improved since 1999 (from 0.52 to 0.63), but apparently because of a decrease in male enrolment rather than an increase in female enrolment. Some small progress towards gender parity has occurred in Pakistan in recent
years. Of the thirty countries where the gender disparities favour girls, about half are small Pacific or Caribbean island states, and in many these disparities continue at primary and secondary level. Since the poor are much less likely to be enrolled than the relatively affluent, it cannot be assumed that these patterns and trends will necessarily continue as enrolment increases.

Sao Tome and Principe
Cape Verde
Central African Republic
Congo
Senegal
Namibia
Mongolia
Georgia
Armenia
Philippines
Lao PDR
Fiji
Indonesia
Cook Islands
Malaysia
Palau
Samoa
Tonga
Niuë
Iran, Isl. Rep.
El Salvador
Honduras
Aruba
Grenada
Saint Lucia
Montserrat
Saint Kitts and Nevis
Dominica
Malta
Andorra

Table 2.4: Changes in gender disparities in pre-primary GERs between 1999 and 2004 in countries with GPIs below 0.97 or above 1.03 in 2004

Countries with disparities in favour of boys Countries with disparities in favour of girls

1999 2004

GPI

Eritrea
Burkina Faso
Lesotho
Ethiopia
Comoros
Côte d'Ivoire
Morocco
Yemen
Syrian Arab Republic
Oman
Jordan
Egypt
Palestinian A. T.
Bahrain
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
Tajikistan
Uzbekistan
Papua N. Guinea
Afghanistan
Pakistan
Nepal
Cayman Is
Anguilla
Turks/Caicos Is
United States
Russian Federation
Slovenia
Turkey
Lithuania
Czech Republic
Latvia

0.88 0.90
1.03 0.94
1.08 0.94
0.97 0.95
1.07 0.96
0.96 0.96
0.52 0.63
0.86 0.87
0.90 0.91
0.88 0.91
0.91 0.94
0.95 0.95
0.96 0.96
0.95 0.96
0.97 0.96
0.76 0.93
...
0.93
Sub-Saharan Africa
Arab States
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
South and West Asia
Latin America and the Caribbean
North America and Western Europe
Central and Eastern Europe

Note: See source table for detailed country notes.
Source: Annex, Statistical Table 3B.
Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2007

CHAPTER 2

Primary education: advancing in enrolment

Progress towards universal primary education (UPE) has been made since Dakar. For the world as a whole, the global net enrolment ratio (NER) in primary education rose from 83% in 1999 to 86% in 2004 (as shown below in Table 2.7). Behind this modest global increase lie spectacular advances in those regions with the lowest coverage for primary education. The average primary NER increased from 55% to 65% in sub-Saharan Africa and from 77% to 86% in South and West Asia. These changes reflect two trends: a rapid increase in new entrants to grade 1 and continuing low survival and completion rates. Whether because they enter school late, never enter, or drop out, many primary school aged children remain out of school. The quality of schooling and levels of learning achievement remain major issues everywhere, and gender parity in primary education is achieved in only four of the twenty-six countries with GERs below 90%.6

Access is improving rapidly in many countries

Between 1999 and 2004, the number of new entrants to grade 1 fell in some regions. This decrease mainly reflected a combination of declines in fertility rates and in the number of under- and over-age children enrolled. The number of new entrants increased by 11.5% in South and West Asia, however, and by 30.9% in sub-Saharan Africa (see annex, Statistical Table 4). In several countries, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa, the expansion was especially rapid. Over the five-year period, the number of new entrants increased by over 29% in each of the fourteen countries shown in Table 2.5, and by over 50% in seven of them. The rates of expansion in Ethiopia, Guinea, Madagascar, the Niger and the United Republic of Tanzania were particularly dramatic. In only seven of the sub-Saharan African countries for which data are
available was the rate of increase less than 10%, and of these only Togo and Zimbabwe had a population of over 2 million (see annex, Statistical Tables 1 and 4). The expansion in the Arab States appears to have been far more muted, averaging just 9.1% over the period, with only Yemen demonstrating a significant increase (57%). In all regions except the Arab States and Central and Eastern Europe, the gross intake rate (GIR) – the total number of new entrants to grade 1 divided by the number of children who are at the official age to enter school – is over 100%. Between 1999 and 2004, the GIR increased from 118% to 131% in South and West Asia and from 88% to 105% in sub-Saharan Africa (see annex, Statistical Table 4). Regional averages mask low GIRs in many countries. The rate is below 90% in twenty countries and below 65% in the Central African Republic, the Congo, Djibouti, Eritrea, Mali and the Niger. While data are not available to make the calculations for Angola, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia, Sierra Leone or Somalia, several of these conflict-affected countries are likely also to have low intake rates. Most governments expect to enrol all children in grade 1 at the official age and to reach a net intake rate (NIR) of 100%. When many new entrants are under or over that age, however, the NIR does not tell much about current government efforts to expand enrolment. Out of the eighty-nine developing countries for which information is available, the over- and under-age group makes up at least half of the intake in thirty-one. Twenty-two of these are in sub-Saharan Africa. For example, in Chad, Madagascar and Mozambique, between two-thirds and three-quarters of the intake are of ‘incorrect’ age, with the great majority being over age. As indicated, the global net enrolment ratio in primary education rose from 83% in 1999 to 86% in 2004. 6. The twenty-six are...
Burkina Faso, Burundi, the Central African Republic, Chad, the Comoros, the Congo, the Cook Islands, Côte d’Ivoire, Djibouti, Eritrea, the Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Mali, Nauru, the Niger, Niue, Oman, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, the Republic of Moldova, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, the Sudan, the United Arab Emirates and Yemen. The Cook Islands, Nauru, Oman and the Republic of Moldova have closed the gender gap.

7. Djibouti, Oman, the Palestinian Autonomous Territories, Saudi Arabia, the Sudan and the United Arab Emirates (Arab States); the Cook Islands and Niue (Pacific); and Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, the Central African Republic, Chad, the Comoros, the Congo, Côte d’Ivoire, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Mali, the Niger and Senegal (sub-Saharan Africa).

8. These data are from the UNESCO Institute for Statistics database.

Part I I . M o n i t o r i n g E FA Burundi
Cameroon
Chad
Ethiopia
Guinea
Kenya
Madagascar
Mali
Mozambique
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>1999 (000)</th>
<th>2004 (000)</th>
<th>Annual Increase</th>
<th>Percentage Increase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Niger</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rwanda</td>
<td>335</td>
<td>474</td>
<td>41.5</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senegal</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U. R. Tanzania</td>
<td>1,537</td>
<td>1,433</td>
<td>104.5</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>80.7</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>335</td>
<td>474</td>
<td>41.5</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niger</td>
<td>892</td>
<td>1,162</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rwanda</td>
<td>495</td>
<td>897</td>
<td>81.2</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senegal</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>254</td>
<td>46.8</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U. R. Tanzania</td>
<td>536</td>
<td>771</td>
<td>43.8</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>82.0</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>714</td>
<td>1,342</td>
<td>88.0</td>
<td>13.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niger</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>380</td>
<td>50.8</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rwanda</td>
<td>5,992</td>
<td>10,051</td>
<td>105.1</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.5: Number of new entrants into grade 1 and percentage increase between 1999 and 2004 in selected countries of sub-Saharan Africa

Note: See source table for detailed country notes.
Source: Annex, Statistical Table 4.
in Figure 2.4, which compares GIRs and NIRs for ninety-nine developing countries, late entry is also common in Latin America and the Caribbean. While late enrolment is better than no enrolment at all, it has serious disadvantages for children, notably a later graduation age and thus less likelihood of going on to the next level of education, and potential learning problems due to the unsuitability of the curriculum for older children. The distribution of children’s ages when first enrolling in school is systematically related to several background characteristics. Table 2.6 shows, for eight sub-Saharan African countries, the share of grade 1 entrants who are at least two years over the official age and how that share varies according to gender, place of residence, household wealth and mother’s education. On average, 34.5% of new entrants to first grade in these countries are at least two years over age. The likelihood of over-age enrolment is greater for particular groups, however: for instance, of the children from the poorest fifth of households in Nigeria who enrolled in grade 1, 44% were at least two years over age, compared to 17% of those from the wealthiest fifth. Similarly, while 58% of rural enrollees in Mozambique were at least two years over age, the share for urban children was 35%. In Kenya, 60% of the children with mothers lacking education were over age, compared to one-third of those whose mothers completed primary education. These patterns were common to all eight countries, and in five of the eight, boys were more likely than girls to be over age.

School participation on the rise

Enrolment in primary education worldwide has increased by 6%, from 645 million to 682 million, between 1999 and 2004 (Table 2.7). In the regions where most countries are near or at UPE, decreases in the school age population resulted in falling enrolment. The Arab States achieved some increases (6% overall), but the biggest rises occurred in South and West Asia (19%) and sub-Saharan Africa (27%). The primary GER tends to overestimate a
country’s success in striving to reach UPE since it includes children who are repeating and those who are over and under age, while the NER may underestimate coverage since it represents only children of the official school age. Other measures are being developed using age-specific enrolment rates and accounting for late entrants, but the quality of data is often insufficient. Thus, this Report continues to report GERs and NERs as the principal indicators of participation in primary education. Figure 2.5 shows them for 100 countries for 2004. Between 1999 and 2004, the GER increased in each developing country region except Latin America, where it fell from 121% to 118%. The ratio increased from 94% to 110% in South and 0 50 100 150 200 0 50 100 150 200

Macao, China
Viet Nam
Fiji
Rep. of Korea
Marshall Is
Myanmar
Indonesia
Lao PDR
Vanuatu
Philippines
Cambodia
Maldives
Sri Lanka
Iran, Isl. Rep.
Pakistan
Bangladesh
Dominica
Cayman Is
Turks/Caicos Is
St Vincent/Grenad.
Bahamas
Jamaica
Grenada
Trinidad/Tobago
St Kitts/Nevis
Saint Lucia
Anguilla
Venezuela
Suriname
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aruba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montserrat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Br. Virgin Is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barbados</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominican Rep.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neth. Antilles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belize</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panama</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bolivia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guatemala</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honduras</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>El Salvador</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecuador</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nicaragua</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guyana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Asia/Pacific</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South and West Asia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America/Caribbean</td>
</tr>
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<td>N. America/W. Europe</td>
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<td>Central/East. Europe</td>
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<tr>
<td>Eritrea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burkina Faso</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Côte d'Ivoire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guinea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Togo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cape Verde</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senegal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burundi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Namibia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mauritius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swaziland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seychelles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Zimbabwe
Equat. Guinea
Kenya
U. R. Tanzania
Mozambique
Lesotho
Ethiopia
Uganda
Madagascar
Rwanda
Djibouti
Saudi Arabia
Sudan
Oman
Palestinian A. T.
U. A. Emirates
Jordan
Tunisia
Kuwait
Morocco
Egypt
Bahrain
Qatar
Lebanon
Algeria
Mauritania
Iraq
Syrian A. R.
Mongolia
Sub-Saharan Africa
Arab States
Central Asia
NIR GIR

Intake rates (%) Intake rates (%)

Figure 2.4: Comparison of gross and net intake rates in primary education, 2004
Note: Only developing countries are included. See source table for detailed country notes.
Source: Annex, Statistical Table 4.
West Asia and from 79% to 91% in sub-Saharan Africa, a considerable achievement given persistent high population growth in both regions. The GERs are above 90% throughout Latin America and the Caribbean, East Asia and the Pacific (apart from three Pacific island nations), South and West Asia (except Pakistan), and the transition and developed countries. The situations across the Arab States and sub-Saharan Africa are more varied. Six of the twenty Arab States have GERs below 90%, as do fourteen of the thirty-nine sub-Saharan African countries with data available (data are missing for five conflict and post-conflict countries). The lowest GERs are found in Djibouti (39%), the Niger (45%), Burkina Faso (53%), Mali (64%) and the Central African Republic (64%).

While a higher GER does not always imply improvement (for instance, if repetition increases), it does reflect increased capacity of a system to enrol children. Between 1999 and 2004, the GERs increased by over ten percentage points in at least thirty-one countries, of which twenty were in sub-Saharan Africa. These included every

Table 2.7: Enrolment in primary education for school years ending in 1999 and 2004, by region

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>1999</th>
<th>2004</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>World</td>
<td>38%</td>
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</tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Countries in transition</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arab States</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Asia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>East Asia and the Pacific</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Asia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Enrolment in primary education worldwide has increased by 6%.

Part I. Monitoring EFA
<p>| Pacific                              | 644 985 682 225 100.1 106.2 82.8 85.7 |
| South and West Asia                 | 558 733 600 879 99.8 106.8 81.2 84.6 |
| Latin America and the Caribbean     | 70 418 67 419 102.2 101.4 96.7 95.6  |
| Caribbean                           | 15 834 13 926 100.0 107.3 85.0 90.7  |
| Latin America                       | 79 772 101 424 79.0 90.9 55.0 64.9  |
| North America and Western Europe    | 34 725 36 700 88.6 93.3 77.1 81.5  |
| Central and Eastern Europe          | 6 853 6 376 98.7 101.6 88.6 91.6  |
|                                     | 217 575 206 217 111.9 113.2 96.0 93.9 |
|                                    | 214 277 202 712 112.2 113.5 96.2 94.0 |
|                                    | 3 298 3 505 93.9 97.9 87.4 89.6  |
|                                    | 157 510 187 884 93.9 109.9 77.3 85.9 |
|                                    | 70 206 69 259 120.7 117.9 93.4 94.9 |
|                                    | 2 500 2 622 115.0 126.3 77.1 83.5  |
|                                    | 67 705 66 637 121.0 117.6 94.0 95.3 |
|                                    | 52 857 51 734 102.9 101.7 96.7 95.2 |
|                                    | 25 489 22 630 99.6 101.5 89.2 90.7  |
| Total enrolment                     | (000) (000)                                 |
| 1999 2004                           |                                               |
| Gross enrolment ratios              | (%) (%)                                      |
| 1999 2004                           |                                               |
| Net enrolment ratios                | (%) (%)                                      |
| 1999 2004                           |                                               |
| Table 2.6: Percentage of new entrants to grade 1 who are at least two years over age, by background characteristics, in eight African countries |
| Sources: Demographic and Health Surveys 2003 for Burkina Faso, Ghana, Kenya, Mozambique and Nigeria; 2001 for Mali; 2000 for Ethiopia and Namibia. |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
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<th>Ethiopia</th>
<th>Ghana</th>
<th>Kenya</th>
<th>Mali</th>
<th>Mozambique</th>
<th>Namibia</th>
<th>Nigeria</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17.7 69.7 48.3 42.7 16.7 49.7 31.4 31.0</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17.2 74.4 47.5 39.7 22.0 58.3 31.6 36.4</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.1 41.1 41.6 22.1 7.4 35.5 20.7 27.5</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>34.3 76.4 53.7 56.3 24.4 67.9 42.8 43.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>5.0 45.6 30.4 15.8 7.6 23.0 13.6 16.7</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.1 37.7 50.5 32.7 14.5 40.1 37.9 28.6</td>
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<td>14.1 69.7 45.8 37.3 17.1 51.9 29.3 33.6</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
country whose GER in 2004 was below 90%,
apart from Côte d’Ivoire and the Gambia.
For all developing countries, the average NER
rose from 81% in 1999 to about 85% in 2004.
Regionally, NERs increased significantly in South
and West Asia (from 77% to 86%) and sub-
Saharan Africa (from 55% to 65%), and less
spectacularly in the Arab States and in Latin
America and the Caribbean. The NERs are below
80% in Nepal and Pakistan in South and West
Asia, in six of the eighteen Arab States with data
available, in twenty out of thirty-three sub-
Saharan African countries and in one small
Pacific island country (Solomon Islands). Again,
however, there are many instances of significant
improvement.
Figure 2.6 shows changes in NERs between
1999 and 2004. Almost all countries with ratios
below 85% in 1999 improved their situation,
several significantly, including Ethiopia, Lesotho,
Morocco, Mozambique, Nepal, the Niger and the
United Republic of Tanzania. On the other hand,
several countries that were close to UPE in 1999
did not improve and some lost ground (Albania,
Cape Verde, Lithuania, Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives
and the Palestinian Autonomous Territories).
Of the forty-five developing countries with NERs
above 85% in 1999, the ratio was lower in twentyfour
of them in 2004. In this group it is proving
difficult to attract and retain the most
marginalized out-of-school children.
Out-of-school children: mostly poor,
rural and with uneducated mothers
Discussions of efforts to universalize primary
education largely centre on intake and
participation (enrolment) ratios, completion rates
and quality. The complementary approach of this
subsection is to give additional attention to those
children who are not in school so as to better
understand their educational experiences, if any,
and their background characteristics. The closer
countries are to achieving enrolment of all
children in first grade and retaining them
throughout primary school, the more important
it becomes to identify those left out of school and prepare policies specifically for them. Much of the analysis in this subsection should be regarded as exploratory. How many are there? Calculating the number of children of primary school age who are not in school is not straightforward. The results – which tend to be Mauritius Cape Verde U. R. Tanzania South Africa Madagascar Lesotho Equat. Guinea Benin Botswana Zimbabwe Zambia Togo Swaziland Kenya Gambia Namibia Rwanda Mozambique Senegal Ghana Guinea Nigeria Burundi Chad Ethiopia Côte d’Ivoire Eritrea Mali Burkina Faso Niger Lebanon Syrian A. R. Jordan Iraq Palestinian A. T. Morocco Kuwait Oman
Yemen
Mauritania
U. A. Emirates
Saudi Arabia
Djibouti
Armenia
Georgia
Kazakhstan
Kyrgyzstan
Mongolia
Azerbaijan
Indonesia
Philippines
Vanuatu
Malaysia
Viet Nam
Tonga
Samoa
Marshall Is
Macao, China
Myanmar
Lao PDR
Solomon Is
Bangladesh
India
Maldives
Iran, Isl. Rep.
Nepal
Pakistan
Br. Virgin Is
Montserrat
St Kitts/Nevis
St Vincent/Grenad.
Guatemala
Brazil
Suriname
El Salvador
Trinidad/Tobago
Venezuela
Jamaica
Honduras
Anguilla
Nicaragua
Dominica
Cayman Is
Dominican Rep.
Grenada
Bahamas
Colombia
Turks/Caicos Is
Malta
Switzerland
United States
Luxembourg
Andorra
Estonia
TFYR Macedonia
Romania
Russian Fed.
Belarus
Lithuania
Turkey
Hungary
Croatia
Ukraine
Rep. of Moldova
Sub-Saharan Africa
Arab States
Central Asia
East Asia/Pacific
South and West Asia
Latin America/Caribbean
N. America/W. Europe
Central/East. Europe
0 20 40 60 80 100 120 140 0 20 40 60 80 100 120 140
Enrolment ratios (%)
NER GER
Enrolment ratios (%)
NER GER
Figure 2.5: Comparison of gross and net enrolment ratios in primary education, 2004
Note: Countries with NERs above 95% are not included. See source table for detailed country notes.
Source: Annex, Statistical Table 5.
widely quoted – thus need to be considered with caution. Until recently the measure of out-of-school children used in the EFA Global Monitoring Report has been the number of children of primary school age who were not in primary school. The 2006 Report suggested that almost 100 million children were in this situation in 2002/03, down from almost 107 million in 1998/99. However, it also pointed out a more appropriate measure would take into account only those children of primary school age who were not enrolled in either primary or secondary school. This number was estimated at 85.5 million for 2002/03. To indicate how the situation has been changing, Table 2.8 presents estimates of both measures from 1999 to 2004. Both sets show a reduction in the number of out-of-school children of around 20 million between 1999 and 2004, with a particularly large decrease between 2002 and 2004. Government reporting to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) suggests that, in 2004, 77 million children were not enrolled in school. The UIS and UNICEF have been working to improve understanding of the experiences of out-of-school children and some of their background characteristics (UIS/UNICEF, 2005). They estimated the number of out-of-school children for the school year ending in 2002 using administrative enrolment data from governments for some countries and information from household surveys for others. For some highly populated countries, the surveys gave a more accurate picture. The resulting global estimate of children not in primary or secondary school was 115 million, whereas the estimate made solely on the basis of administrative data (shown in Table 2.8) was 94 million. The difference lies in the nature of the data used. Administrative data are based on school records of enrolment. In household surveys, the head of each household is asked whether each member has gone to school at least one day in the past year (i.e. they record attendance, not
enrolment). Both measures raise questions about the quality of data reporting pupils by age. As a result, both may underestimate the number of children who are not receiving effective schooling. For example, a recent extensive survey of primary schools and pupils across India showed that on the days that schools were visited, the average absentee rate was 30% (Pratham, 2005).

9. Children of primary school age who are enrolled in pre-primary education should also be excluded from the calculation.

Part II. Monitoring EFA

Figure 2.6: Changes in primary net enrolment ratios between 1999 and 2004
Note: See source table for detailed country notes.
Source: Annex, Statistical Table 5.

Table 2.8: Estimated numbers of children out of school, 1999–2004 (thousands)
Sources: Annex, Statistical Table 5; UIS database.

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</tr>
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<td>107</td>
<td>852</td>
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<td>105</td>
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<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>2004</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Niger
Burkina Faso
Mali
Eritrea
Côte d'Ivoire
Ethiopia
Chad
Guinea
Ghana
Senegal
Mozambique
Namibia
Gambia
Kenya
Swaziland
Togo
Zambia
Zimbabwe
Botswana
Benin
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
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<th>2004 (decrease since 1999)</th>
<th>No change</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arab States</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Asia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2.9: Estimated numbers of out-of-school children by gender and region, 1999 and 2004

Source: Annex, Statistical Table 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>1999 (000)</th>
<th>2004 (000)</th>
<th>Male (000)</th>
<th>Female (000)</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>World</td>
<td>305 485 245</td>
<td>458 496 221</td>
<td>173 212 182</td>
<td>285 284 039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing countries</td>
<td>267 678 416</td>
<td>390 468 505</td>
<td>135 261 561</td>
<td>255 207 944</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developed countries</td>
<td>37 806    699</td>
<td>68 028    662</td>
<td>18 051 650</td>
<td>49 977 112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Countries in transition</td>
<td>47 209    360</td>
<td>72 062    369</td>
<td>22 048 121</td>
<td>50 014 248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
<td>28 868    190</td>
<td>44 901    191</td>
<td>15 266 745</td>
<td>29 635 456</td>
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<tr>
<td>Arab States</td>
<td>4 557     290</td>
<td>6 209     290</td>
<td>1 434 943</td>
<td>4 774 257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Asia</td>
<td>8 382     521</td>
<td>12 112    521</td>
<td>2 267 858</td>
<td>9 844 663</td>
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<td>East Asia and the Pacific</td>
<td>6 165     383</td>
<td>9 171     383</td>
<td>1 325 465</td>
<td>7 846 318</td>
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<td>3 477     216</td>
<td>5 158     216</td>
<td>861 784</td>
<td>4 296 374</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pacific</td>
<td>2 317     145</td>
<td>3 429     145</td>
<td>636 822</td>
<td>2 793 163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South and West Asia</td>
<td>7 168     489</td>
<td>10 365    489</td>
<td>1 581 707</td>
<td>5 784 378</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America and the Caribbean</td>
<td>1 747     109</td>
<td>2 614     109</td>
<td>312 257</td>
<td>1 302 357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caribbean</td>
<td>2 685     169</td>
<td>3 978     169</td>
<td>601 862</td>
<td>2 377 117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America</td>
<td>3 274     208</td>
<td>4 703     208</td>
<td>699 771</td>
<td>3 004 232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North America and Western Europe</td>
<td>27 397    178</td>
<td>37 526    178</td>
<td>8 308 160</td>
<td>29 218 016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central and Eastern Europe</td>
<td>21 958    138</td>
<td>31 420    138</td>
<td>6 728 120</td>
<td>24 692 010</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1999 (000) Total Male Female 2004 % Female (000)
Further analysis in this section focuses on the estimated 76.8 million children who in 2004 were not enrolled in either primary or secondary school, and on the global estimates broken down by region for 1999 and 2004 (Table 2.9).

Over the five-year period, the worldwide total is shown as declining very rapidly, by almost 4% a year, from roughly 98.2 million to 76.8 million. Some three-quarters of the decrease (16.7 million) occurred between 2002 and 2004 (Table 2.8). The number of out-of-school children are not enrolled in school:

- Lao PDR
- Myanmar
- Macao, China
- Samoa
- Tonga
- Viet Nam
- Malaysia
- Vanuatu
- Australia
- Fiji
- Cambodia
- New Zealand
- Rep. of Korea
- Japan
- Bangladesh
- Nepal
- Iran, Isl. Rep.
- Maldives
- Colombia
- Bahamas
- Dominican Rep.
- Dominica
- Nicaragua
- Jamaica
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>1999</th>
<th>2004 (increase since 1999)</th>
<th>2004 (decrease since 1999)</th>
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<td>60</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>80</td>
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<tr>
<td>South/West</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia Latin America and the Caribbean</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>2004 (increase since 1999)</td>
<td>2004 (decrease since 1999)</td>
<td>No change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North America and Western Europe</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central and Eastern Europe</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
school children fell in almost all developing country regions. The most dramatic decrease was in South and West Asia, where, the UIS database shows, the number of children out of school was halved from around 31 million in 1999 to 16 million in 2004. Much of this was due to a very large reduction in India (discussed below). A substantial, though smaller, reduction was achieved in sub-Saharan Africa between 1999 and 2004, from 43 million to 38 million, in the context of relatively high growth in the school age population. East Asia was the only region that saw an increase in the number of out-of-school children, from 6.4 million in 1999 to 9.3 million in 2004. Driving this trend was China, the world’s most populous country, where the NER in primary education dropped from 97% in 1991 (see annex, Statistical Table 12) to 94% in the school year ending in 2002 (UNESCO, 2005). In 1999, sub-Saharan Africa and South and West Asia were home to more than three-quarters of the world’s out-of-school children (with 45% and 31%, respectively). By 2004, the combined share had declined slightly, to around 69%, but with sub-Saharan Africa’s share increasing to 50% while South and West Asia’s share had fallen to 19%. Worldwide, 57% of all children out of school in 2004 were girls, down from 59% in 1999. In which countries do they live? To arrive at the global and regional totals described above, the approximate number of children out of school was estimated for countries that do not provide sufficient information for detailed calculations or whose enrolment data are inconsistent with United Nations population data. Many of these countries are in sub-Saharan Africa, including Angola, Cameroon, the Central African Republic, the Congo, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Liberia, Sierra Leone, Somalia and Uganda. Others include Afghanistan, China and the Sudan. It is estimated that just over
one-third of all out-of-school children worldwide live in countries where the data are not available or are insufficient or inconsistent. They are not included in the discussion in this subsection, which is based on country data in the statistical tables, and therefore cannot be regarded as exhaustive.

Among the 112 developing countries for which information is published, twenty-eight each had more than half a million children of primary school age out of school in 2004 (Figure 2.7), and in twelve cases, the country total was over a million. Four countries alone accounted for about 23 million children out of school. Of the eight countries with 1 million to 2 million children out of school, seven are in sub-Saharan Africa. Among the sixteen countries with between half a million and a million children out of school, every EFA region except Central Asia and North America and Western Europe is represented.

Among the countries for which reliable data are available, the largest numbers of out-of-school children in 2004 were in Nigeria, Pakistan, India and Ethiopia. They were followed by Saudi Arabia, the Niger, Burkina Faso, Kenya, Côte d’Ivoire, Mali, Ghana and Mozambique.10 Nevertheless, considerable progress has been made in some of these countries since 1999 (Table 2.10).

The largest reduction was reported to have occurred in India between 2002 and 2004, from 15.1 million to 4.6 million, although the 2004 figure is likely an underestimate, according to the results of a national survey in late 2005 (detailed below in Box 2.1). The number of out-of-school children in 2004 were in Nigeria, Pakistan, India and Ethiopia 10. The countries with the largest proportions of primary school age children out of school
(over 40%) are Burundi, Burkina Faso, Chad, Côte d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Mali, the Niger and Saudi Arabia. Six of these are also among the countries with the highest absolute number of out-of-school children.

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Figure 2.7: Developing countries with over 500,000 out-of-school children, 2004

Note: These countries together account for 43.3 million out-of-school children, out of the global estimated total of 76.8 million. See source table for detailed country notes.

Source: Annex, Statistical Table 5.

Nigeria
Pakistan
India
Ethiopia
Saudi Arabia
Niger
Burkina Faso
Kenya
Côte d'Ivoire
Mali
Ghana
Mozambique
Turkey
Yemen
Iran, Isl. Rer.
Brazil
Colombia
Nepal
Chad
Philippines
Myanmar
Viet Nam
Senegal
U. R. Tanzania
Iraq
Morocco
Guinea
Burundi

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
Out-of-school children (millions)
The six goals: how are we doing?

Children was also reported to have fallen significantly in Mozambique, and by one-third in Kenya. For Nigeria, which had the largest reported number of out-of-school children, there are no estimates prior to 2004. Although the NERs of the other seven countries in the table improved, the number of out-of-school children increased slightly in four and decreased slightly in three. This highlights the fact that when fertility rates remain high, as in most countries of sub-Saharan Africa, very large increases in the NERs are necessary if the absolute number of out-of-school children is to fall significantly.

Who are they?
To formulate effective policies to reduce the total number of children who remain out of school, it is necessary to understand better who they are. Two sets of characteristics are relevant: the numbers of children who (a) were initially enrolled but dropped out, (b) are likely to be late entrants, and (c) are unlikely ever to enter school unless new efforts are made; the dominant background characteristics of out-of-school children. These issues were partially addressed in the UIS/UNICEF study (2005), whose results are reported here. New analyses based on that study are also presented.

Educational experiences. The children of primary school age who were not enrolled in school in 2004 are not homogenous with regard to schooling. Some were enrolled in primary school prior to that year, but dropped out. The challenge for governments regarding this group is to increase opportunities and incentives for them to re-enter the education system, which often necessitates new forms of provision. A second group is children who are likely to enrol but as late entrants, like many of their older brothers and sisters. The earlier discussion of intake rates showed that, particularly in Africa, a large proportion of children who enrol in primary school are older than the official age when they do so. The children in this group are 'not yet in school'
rather than ‘out of school’. Of the children who do not start school at the official age, however, many never enter. While some of the initiatives that are required to entice children who have dropped out to come back to school may also be applicable to this group of children, additional measures are likely to be necessary. In Zambia in 2002, for example, 68 of every 100 primary school age children were in school. Of the 32 not in school, 8 had been enrolled and dropped out, 12 were deemed likely late entrants and the remaining 12 were characterized as unlikely ever to enrol (UIS/UNICEF, 2005).

A breakdown of out-of-school children in 2004 into the categories of dropouts, late entrants and never enrolled has been estimated by region. The analysis is dependent on age-specific enrolment data supplied to the UIS by governments and the results should be seen only as approximations. Overall, of the roughly 76.8 million who were out of school, 7.2 million had dropped out, 23.0 million were likely to enrol later and 46.6 million (roughly 61%) were unlikely ever to enrol, in the absence of additional incentives. For every two boys unlikely ever to enrol there were nearly three girls.

The distributions of children across these categories vary substantially by region (Figure 2.8). In South and West Asia, around 75% are unlikely ever to enrol and almost 14% are likely to enrol late. The proportion of those who will probably enrol late is higher in sub-Saharan Africa: almost 28%. Overall, the proportion of children not in school who are unlikely ever to enrol is greatest in the least educationally developed regions. Conversely, in Latin America and the Caribbean and in East Asia and the Pacific the share of late entrants is much higher than that of those who are not likely to enrol.

Educational experiences vary by country within regions as well as by region. Figure 2.9 shows distributions for twenty countries, mostly in sub-Saharan Africa. The contribution of late entrants varies significantly. In Kenya and Mauritania, this group appears to be the main

In Zambia 32 of 100 primary
school-age children were not in school

Table 2.10: Numbers of out-of-school children in selected countries in 1999, 2002 and 2004 (thousands)

Note: See source table for detailed country notes.
Sources: Annex, Statistical Table 5; UIS database.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>1999</th>
<th>2002</th>
<th>2004</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mali</td>
<td>1,113</td>
<td>1,089</td>
<td>1,172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Côte d'Ivoire</td>
<td>1,253</td>
<td>1,144</td>
<td>1,223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>1,833</td>
<td>1,868</td>
<td>1,225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burkina Faso</td>
<td>1,205</td>
<td>1,264</td>
<td>1,271</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niger</td>
<td>1,393</td>
<td>1,381</td>
<td>1,326</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>1,329</td>
<td>1,307</td>
<td>1,357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>1,345</td>
<td>1,371</td>
<td>1,630</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td>1,393</td>
<td>1,381</td>
<td>1,326</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>1,329</td>
<td>1,307</td>
<td>1,357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>1,345</td>
<td>1,371</td>
<td>1,630</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>1,602</td>
<td>1,572</td>
<td>1,089</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>4,961</td>
<td>4,633</td>
<td>3,615</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>…</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>4583</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>…</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>463</td>
<td>…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>…</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999 2002 2004</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Kenya
Rwanda
Mauritania
U. A. Emirates
Mozambique
Ethiopia
Chad
Ghana
Namibia
Burundi
Guinea
Côte d'Ivoire
Eritrea
Pakistan
Nigeria
Senegal
Niger
Burkina Faso
Mali
Djibouti
% of total number out of school
0 20 40 60 80 100
Enrolled but dropped out
% of total number out of school
0 20 40 60 80 100
Expected to enter late
Kenya
Rwanda
Mauritania
U. A. Emirates
Mozambique
Ethiopia
Chad
Ghana
Namibia
Burundi
Guinea
Côte d'Ivoire
Eritrea
Pakistan
Nigeria
Senegal
Niger
Burkina Faso
Mali
Background characteristics. A disaggregation of out-of-school children on the basis of whether they have ever attended school and, if not, whether it is likely that they will enter late is useful for formulating differentiated policy responses. A better understanding of the background characteristics of these children is also useful. UIS/UNICEF (2005) used household survey data for eighty countries (for 2001/02 or most recent) for this purpose. In these countries, 26% of all primary school age children were out of school on average, the percentage was 24% for boys and 28% for girls. The variation by gender, however, proved to be the smallest among the characteristics investigated (Figure 2.10): gender, residence, household wealth and mother’s education. While 18% of primary-school age urban children were out of school, the share was 30% for rural children. Similarly, the likelihood of being out of school was strongly influenced by the wealth of the child’s household. The rate was 12% for the children in the wealthiest one-fifth of households, 25% in the middle fifth and 38% in the poorest fifth. Finally, just 16% of children whose mothers had had some education were

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Sub-Saharan Africa
Arab States
Central Asia
East Asia/Pacific
South West Asia
Latin America/Caribbean
N. America/W. Europe
Central Eastern Europe
0 20 40 60 80 100
% of total number out of school
Enrolled but dropped out
0 20 40 60 80 100
% of total number out of school
Expected to enter late
Sub-Saharan Africa
Arab States
Central Asia
East Asia/Pacific
South West Asia
Latin America/Caribbean
N. America/W. Europe
Central Eastern Europe
0 20 40 60 80 100
% of total number out of school
Expected never to enrol
Figure 2.8: Distribution of out-of-school children by exposure to school and by region, 2004
Source: Bruneforth (2006b).
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themselves out of school, compared to 36% of those whose mothers had had no education. Beyond these averages, the situation for each characteristic varied by region and country: Gender. While 117 girls were not in school for every 100 boys, their exclusion was particularly marked in the Arab States (134), and South and West Asia (129), and in individual countries such as Yemen (184), Iraq (176), India (136) and Benin (136). Conversely, in Latin America and the Caribbean, for every 100 boys out of school there were 96 girls.
Place of residence. The share of children out of school was at least twice as large in rural areas as in urban areas in twenty-four of the eighty countries analysed. Burkina Faso, Eritrea, Ethiopia and Nicaragua showed the largest differences. Because of the large size of rural populations, inequalities in access result in the vast majority of out-of-school children being from rural households. Over 80% of out-of-school children in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia live in rural areas. The share in some individual countries is even higher: Ethiopia (96%), Burkina Faso (95%), Malawi (94%), Bangladesh (84%) and India (84%).
Household wealth. Everywhere, the impact of household wealth on access to education is large for boys and girls alike: children from the poorest 20% of households are three times as likely to be out of school as children from the wealthiest 20%. The impact is particularly large in the Arab States and smallest in Central and Eastern Europe. There are countries in most regions where the gap between rich and poor is particularly large – Nicaragua, Peru and Venezuela in Latin America; Indonesia in East Asia; Cameroon, Madagascar and Zambia in sub-Saharan Africa; Algeria and Sudan in the Arab States; and Kazakhstan in Central Asia.
Mother’s education. On average a child whose mother has no education is twice as likely to be out of school as a child whose mother has some education. For South Asia and Latin
America, the multiple is close to 2.5, and in
twelve of the eighty countries it is 2.8 or higher.
A multivariate analysis was carried out with the
data for sixty-eight countries to assess the
independent effect of each separate variable.
Having a rural rather than an urban background
was significant in thirty-one cases, being female
rather than male in thirty-nine cases, having a
mother with some schooling in sixty-three cases
and being poor rather than rich in sixty-five
cases. More detailed studies were made of India,
Indonesia, Mali and Nigeria. In addition to the
characteristics already mentioned, other groups
found to have a higher probability of being out of
school were, for India: orphans, child labourers,
children of scheduled tribe households and those
residing in particular states; for Indonesia,
members of households with a large number
of children, and those in particular regions; for
Mali, child labourers and those living in certain
regions; and, for Nigeria, children from maleheaded
households and those residing in the
north.
A more recent analysis of who attends
school and who does not in eight countries in
sub-Saharan Africa looked at the backgrounds
of children who have reached the ‘official’ age
for completing primary education but have never
attended, and are very unlikely ever to do so.
Table 2.11 shows the results.
Except in Namibia, girls are more likely never
to attend school than boys; and in all countries
rural and poorer children are more likely never
to attend than urban and wealthier children.
While the gender differences are relatively small,
those based on residence and, particularly, on
household wealth are very wide. Even in countries
such as Ghana, Kenya and Mozambique, where
attendance rates average over 85%, the chances
of a poor child not having attended school are
at least eight times those of a child from the
wealthiest group of households.
It is possible to move beyond the rural-urban,
male-female and poorest-richest dichotomies
and examine the impact of several variables at
Girls are more
likely never to attend school than boys
Male
Female
Urban
Rural
Poorest 20%
Middle 20%
Richest 20%
Mother with no education
Mother with some education
0 10 20 30 40
Share of out-of-school children in the primary-school-age population
28
18
30
25
12
36
38
24
16
Total 26
Figure 2.10: Proportion of out-of-school among primary-school-age children in eighty countries, by category
Disparities related to wealth and mother’s education are stronger than those related to place of residence and gender.

Table 2.11: Percentages of children who have never attended school, by background characteristics, in eight sub-Saharan African countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Urban</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poorest 20%</td>
<td>65.7</td>
<td>58.1</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>20.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Richest 20%</td>
<td>62.1</td>
<td>53.8</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65.9</td>
<td>35.8</td>
<td>51.4</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: Bruneforth (2006a); Demographic and Health Surveys 2003 for Burkina Faso, Ghana, Kenya, Mozambique and Nigeria; 2001 for Mali; 2000 for Ethiopia and Namibia.

The Government of India commissioned a nationwide independent survey of 87,874 households, undertaken in 2005 (Social and Rural Research Institute, 2005). The objectives were to estimate (a) the numbers of out-of-school children at age 5 and in the 6-10 and 11-13 age groups in each state, classified by gender and social category (for instance, ‘scheduled tribe’, ‘scheduled caste’, ‘other backward castes’, ‘Muslims’); (b) the distribution of enrolment by school management and grade; (c) the numbers of children with disabilities who were attending and not attending school, by disability; and (d) the number of children who had dropped out of school, by grade.

State governments had estimated that 25 million children aged 6 to 13 were out of school in 2002. The 2005 survey indicated that the number had almost been halved to
13.5 million, or 6.9% of the age group. Of these, 7.8 million were 6 to 10 years old (the official age range for primary school in a majority of states), equal to 6.1% of the age group. This total differs significantly from that of 4.6 million out-of-school children shown for 2004 in Table 2.10. Possible reasons include differences between school attendance reported in the household survey and enrolment recorded in the school statistics reported to the UIS, and differences in school age population estimates. The 13.5 million figure for ages 6 to 13 is close to an estimate of 14.0 million out-of-school children resulting from a separate national survey organized by Pratham, a large NGO (Pratham Resource Center, 2005). Of those out of school, 32% were reported to have been enrolled but dropped out, while 68% had never enrolled.

This analysis focuses on results for the 6 to 13 age group, in line with practice by the national and state governments in India. The 6.9% rate for out-of-school children reflects rates of 6.2% for boys and 7.9% for girls. The rate in rural areas of 7.8% is significantly higher than the 4.3% in urban areas. In urban areas the rates for boys and girls are similar while in rural areas they are 6.8% for boys and 9.1% for girls. The variations by social group were much larger than those in Box 2.1: In India, an independent survey profiles out-of-school children once. This was done for eighteen countries that have either high numbers or high proportions of children out of school (Bruneforth, 2006c). The results are troubling. For instance, in Guinea, an urban boy from the wealthiest quintile and with an educated mother is 126 times more likely to attend school than a rural girl from the poorest quintile with a mother who lacks education. The greatest discrepancies were found in Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, Guinea and the Niger and the lowest in Burundi, Ghana and Kenya. Overall, the disparities decrease as the net attendance rate increases, but they can still be substantial. In almost all the countries, disparities related to wealth and mother’s education are stronger than those related to place of residence and gender.

In addition to the ongoing UIS/UNICEF work, the Government of India recently commissioned a survey of out-of-school children. The findings are providing new guidance for programmes to encourage more children to enrol and remain...
in school (Box 2.1).
Primary school progression
and completion: still a concern
Increasing access to school is an important step, but ensuring that pupils progress smoothly through the grades and ultimately complete primary school is equally so. The high incidence of grade repetition and the low retention rates in many countries around the world are an indication that education systems are not functioning well.
Grade repetition reflects the quality of primary education. While grade repetition is an indication of pupils’ progress or even achievement, it also reflects wide variation in countries’ educational approaches and sometimes cultures (Bernard et al., 2005). Some countries automatically promote pupils, while others use more stringent achievement criteria. By gender or place of residence: the out-of-school rates were 10.0% for Muslims, 9.5% for scheduled tribes, 8.2% for scheduled castes, 6.9% for other backward castes and 3.7% for the remaining social groups. Another focus of the survey was the schooling experiences of disabled children. Around 4.3% of all out-of-school children are disabled. Of all disabled children, 38.1% are not attending school. Variations in the rates of out-of-school children across the country are wide. They are highest in north-central and north-eastern India. Among the major states, the rates are highest in Bihar (17.0%), Jharkhand (10.9%), Assam (8.9%), West Bengal (8.7%), Madhya Pradesh (8.6%), Uttar Pradesh (8.2%) and Rajasthan (6.9%). By contrast, in the south, some states appear to have virtually achieved universal schooling for 6- to 13-year-olds: Kerala, Karnataka and Tamil Nadu record out-of-school rates between 0.5% and 2.1%. Almost half of all children out of school live in Bihar (3.2 million) and Uttar Pradesh (3.0 million), but seven other states have at least half a million each: West Bengal (1.2 million), Madhya Pradesh (1.1 million), Rajasthan (0.8 million), Jharkhand (0.6 million), and Assam, Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh with around 0.5 million each. The situation varies not only across states but also within them. In 48 out of 598 districts nationwide, over 50,000 children are out of school. Ten states have at least one of these districts, but the majority are in Bihar (20), Uttar Pradesh (15) and West Bengal (4).
More detailed estimates of the likelihood of being out of school depending on individual background characteristics and state of residence were calculated. For instance, over 30% of rural Muslim children are out of school in Bihar, around 17% in Jharkhand, 13% in Uttar Pradesh and 11% in West Bengal. Scheduled caste children have out-of-school rates of 22% in rural Bihar and 26% in rural Jharkhand. Of the major states, West Bengal has the highest rate for scheduled tribe children: 16%. Perhaps surprisingly, the numbers of scheduled caste and Muslim boys who are out of school are higher than those for girls. This is not the case for other backward castes or scheduled tribes.

World, the highest repetition rates are usually found in grade 1. For example, in Nepal 43% of pupils repeat this grade, compared with 11% for grade 5. Grade 1 repetition rates close to 30% or more are also found in Brazil, Guatemala, the Lao People's Democratic Republic and several countries in sub-Saharan Africa. The incidence of grade repetition partly reflects the quality of primary education, yet the high repetition rates for grade 1 in many countries also raise the issues of school transition and readiness. Indeed, for most of these countries, particularly those in sub-Saharan Africa, a link can be made between the high repetition rates, particularly in the first years of primary education, and low participation rates in pre-primary education (see Chapters 5 and 7 on the relationship between ECCE and primary school readiness).

School retention and completion
All children should remain long enough in school to master the curriculum and thus acquire at least basic literacy and numeracy skills. Several factors determine the levels of retention and, more generally, completion. Children leave school prematurely for a variety of reasons, including the costs of schooling, the need to supplement family income or take care of siblings, unfriendly school environments (particularly for girls) and poor education quality.

Grade repetition
Although grade repetition rates depend partly on promotion policies,11 the high incidence of repetition in some countries also reflects
insufficient mastery of the curriculum by pupils and the low quality of education they receive. Reducing repetition should be made a policy priority.

In more than half of the 148 countries for which data are available, the share of primary school pupils who repeated a grade in 2004 was less than 5%, having decreased – often considerably – since 1999 (see annex, Statistical Table 6). In several countries, the decline resulted from initiatives to improve quality, as reflected in national targets to reduce grade repetition (Table 2.12). However, repetition remains widespread in many parts of the world, including sub-Saharan Africa, where part of the education community considers it an appropriate way to help students in difficulty (Bernard et al., 2005). In more than half the sub-Saharan African countries (particularly the French-speaking ones), the percentage of repeaters is close to or above 20%. In Equatorial Guinea it is 40%, more than three times the level in 1999. In other regions, grade repetition is much less frequent, although there are exceptions such as Brazil (21%) and Nepal (23%).

Repetition rates vary by grade. In the majority of countries, particularly those in the developing
Most indicators currently available to measure primary school completion are proxies that do not reveal how many children actually complete school. Many are gross rates that include all children of a cohort but do not distinguish between those who do not complete primary education because they never even enrolled and those who did enrol but did not reach or complete the last grade.

Among these proxy measures is the gross intake rate (GIR) to the last grade of primary education. Being enrolled in the last grade is by definition the minimum prerequisite for completion. In 2004 the number of children entering the last grade of primary school as a percentage of the population at the official age for that grade was 86% worldwide, almost 99% in developed countries and 84% in developing ones. Overall, access to the last grade of primary education is close to or well above 90% in all regions except for South and West Asia (82%), the Arab States (80%) and sub-Saharan Africa (57%) (Figure 2.11). In Burkina Faso, Chad, Djibouti and the Niger, the GIR to the last grade is below 30% (see annex, Statistical Table 7).

Completion rates (proxied by survival rates) can also be used to assess the extent to which education systems retain children, enabling them to complete their education. This approach focuses on children who did have access to school and assesses how many of them completed the primary cycle. In half of the 132 countries with data available for the school year ending in 2003, about 87% of a cohort of pupils who had access to primary education reached the last grade (see annex, Statistical Table 7). Survival rates to the last grade are close to 100% in developed and transition countries, where legislation on compulsory education is more strictly enforced, while the median for developing countries is below 80%. Survival rates are close to or above 90% in most Arab States for which data are available, except
Mauritania (69%), Morocco (76%) and Yemen

12. The GIR to the last grade of primary is the total number of new entrants to the grade, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population of theoretical entrance age for that grade.

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Benin
Burkina Faso
Côte d'Ivoire
Democratic Rep. of the Congo
Ethiopia
Guinea
Mozambique
South Africa
Togo
Egypt
Morocco
Oman
Saudi Arabia
Tunisia
Yemen
Cambodia
Brazil
Costa Rica
Haiti
Mexico
Nicaragua
Peru
Benin
Burkina Faso
Côte d'Ivoire
Democratic Rep. of the Congo
Ethiopia
Guinea
Mozambique
South Africa
Togo
Egypt
Morocco
Oman
Saudi Arabia
Tunisia
Yemen
Cambodia
Brazil
Costa Rica
Haiti
Mexico
Nicaragua
Peru

... 23.1
17.7 13.0
23.7 17.6

... 11.4 7.0
26.2 10.5
23.8 20.6
10.4 5.2
31.2 23.8
6.0 4.0
12.4 13.2
8.0 0.8
5.4 4.2
18.3 7.3
10.6 4.3
24.6 10.6
24.0 20.6
9.2 6.9

... 6.6 4.8
4.7 10.5
10.2 7.6

Reduce the repetition rate from 20.4% in 2001 to 10% in 2015
Reduce the share of repeaters from 17% in 1997 to 10% in 2015
Reduce the repetition rate by one percentage point per year by 2015
Reduce the primary repetition rate from 15% to 10% in 2015
Reduce the share of repeaters from 22.5% to 11% in 2009 and 5% in 2015
Reduce the repetition rate from 13.8% to 9% in 2008, 5% in 2013 and 3% in 2015
Reduce the repetition rate to 5% at the elementary stage by 2015
Correct the school flow within five years by reducing the repetition and dropout rates
Reduce the repetition rate from 25% in 1997 to 10% in 2007
Reduce the repetition rate by one percentage point, from 7.1% to 6.1%, by the end of the 2006/07 school year
Decrease the repetition rate in primary education from 10.6% in 2004 to 2% in 2015
Table 2.12: Changes in percentage of primary school repeaters between 1999 and 2004 in relation to national targets
Percentage of repeaters National targets
1999 2004
Note: The table shows only those countries where the percentage of repeaters was about 5% or above in 1999. See source table for detailed country notes.
Sources: Annex, Statistical Table 6; UNESCO-IIEP (2006).
Sub-Saharan Africa
Arab States
East Asia
Latin America and the Caribbean
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(67%). In Latin America and the Caribbean, despite the overall high level of access and participation in primary education, school completion remains an important UPE challenge, with survival rates less than 83% in the majority of countries. In some countries of this region, including the Dominican Republic, Guyana and Nicaragua, fewer than 60% of the children who enter primary school go on to reach the last grade.

Sub-Saharan Africa combines low levels of access to school with low completion rates: fewer than two-thirds of pupils reach the last grade in the majority of countries. In some countries, among them Chad, Equatorial Guinea, Malawi, Mozambique, Nigeria and Rwanda, more than 60% of pupils who have access to school fail to reach the last grade. While not at such levels, school retention is also low in several of the South and West Asian countries with data available; dropout rates before the last grade are over 30% in Bangladesh and Nepal, for example. National averages often hide significant disparities among groups within countries. As Box 2.2 shows, both boys and girls who live in rural areas, are from poor families or have mothers with no education are more likely to drop out of school than other children.

How many children actually complete school? Not all children who reach the last primary grade necessarily complete it with success according to national standards. Figure 2.12 displays both survival rates to last grade and cohort completion. The cohort completion rate focuses on children who had access to primary education, measuring how many of them successfully completed it. It is computed as the product of the percentage of graduates from primary school (the number of graduates divided by the number of new entrants to the last grade).
and the survival rate to last grade.

GIR to last grade (%)  
Sub-Saharan Africa  
Arab States  
Central Asia  
East Asia/Pacific  
South and West Asia  
Latin America/Caribbean  
N. America/W. Europe  
Centr./East. Europe  
World  
Developing countries  
Developed countries  
Countries in transition  
57  
80  
99  
97  
82  
99  
90  
86  
84  
99  
91  
98  
0 20 40 60 80 100

Figure 2.11: Gross intake rates to the last grade of primary education by region, 2004
Source: Annex, Statistical Table 7.

rates13 for selected countries. In most, cohort completion rates are lower than survival rates to last grade. The gap is particularly significant (above twenty percentage points) in Burundi, Guatemala, Mali, Mauritania, Nepal, the Niger and Saudi Arabia. In the last country, almost all children reach the last grade but only 48% actually complete primary education.

Figure 2.12: Survival rates to last grade and primary education cohort completion rates for selected countries, 2003

Rwanda  
Burundi  
Lesotho  
Madagascar  
Ghana
Swaziland
Benin
Niger
Togo
U. R. Tanzania
Eritrea
Mali
Cape Verde
Cameroon
Mauritius
Mauritania
Morocco
Saudi Arabia
Algeria
Lebanon
Oman
Kuwait
Mongolia
Azerbaijan
Tajikistan
Kazakhstan
Lao PDR
Myanmar
Nepal
Bangladesh
Nicaragua
Ecuador
Guatemala
Colombia
Panama
Bolivia
Dominica
Costa Rica
Barbados
Belarus
Sub-Saharan Africa
Arab States
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
South and West Asia
Latin America/Caribbean
Centr./East. Europe
0 20 40 60 80 100
Survival and completion rates (%)
Cohort completion rates Survival rates to last grade
Note: See source table for detailed country notes.
Source: Annex, Statistical Table 7.
National averages often hide significant disparities among groups within countries.
Retention and completion rates often reflect the state of learning achievement. In some countries, completion can also reflect tough selection policies due to limited availability of places at lower secondary level. To achieve UPE in such cases, it is necessary both to improve the quality of primary education and to expand access to secondary education (UNESCO, 2005).

Gender disparities in primary education
Recent progress in getting children into school has benefited girls in particular, with the global gender parity index (GPI) for the primary education GER increasing from 0.92 in 1999 to 0.94 in 2004 (Table 2.13). Rapid progress was registered in developing countries, especially in those with both low enrolment ratios and high gender disparities (Figure 2.14). This was the case in Benin, Djibouti, Equatorial Guinea, Ethiopia, the Gambia, Guinea, India, the Islamic Republic of Iran, Morocco, Nepal and Yemen. Overall, about two-thirds of the 181 countries for which 2004 data were available had achieved gender parity in primary education by that year; some, including the Cook Islands, Dominica, Mauritania, Malawi, the Netherlands Antilles, Qatar and Uganda, achieved it between 1999 and 2004. On the other hand, in some countries GPIs in getting children into school have benefited girls in particular.

14. In the Islamic Republic of Iran, the sharp increase in girls’ enrolment compared to 2003 is mainly due to a data reporting change: the 2004 data include adult literacy learners, who are mostly female and who were not included in 2003.
In the majority of countries in sub-Saharan Africa, more than one-third of primary school pupils drop out before they reach the last grade, and thus become part of the out-of-school population. Who are these children? The UIS has examined their situation. Using data from Demographic and Health Surveys of Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Mali, Mozambique, Namibia and Nigeria, and analysing the population of those aged 10 to 19 who attended school at some point and dropped out without completing their primary education, the study shows that: More than half of all children who left primary school in Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, Kenya, Mali and Mozambique did so without completing it. Exceptions to this pattern were Ghana and Nigeria, where more than 80% of the children who left school did so by completing it (Figure 2.13). Subnational disparities in school completion were most pronounced between children from urban and rural areas and between those from poorer and richer backgrounds. Overall, poor or rural children were ten times more likely to drop out than urban or richer children. In Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, Kenya, Mali and Mozambique, more than 80% of rural children who left primary school did not complete it, while the percentages were less than half for urban children. In Ethiopia, rural children were...
sixty times more likely to drop out than urban children. In Burkina Faso, Mali and Mozambique, more than 90% of the children from the poorest 40% of households (the two poorest quintiles) who left primary school did not complete it. Dropout was also frequent for the richer population (top 40%), but far less so. The differences between poor and rich children were most pronounced in Mali.

Box 2.2: Subnational disparities in school retention in Africa: who are the children who drop out of school?

Figure 2.13: Primary school dropouts by background characteristics

Sources: Bruneforth (2006a); Demographic and Health Surveys 2003 for Burkina Faso, Ghana, Kenya, Mozambique and Nigeria; 2001 for Mali; 2000 for Ethiopia and Namibia. Burkina Faso

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Urban</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>0 20 40 60 80 100</td>
<td>0 20 40 60 80 100</td>
<td>0 20 40 60 80 100</td>
<td>0 20 40 60 80 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
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<td>Mali</td>
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<td>Mozambique</td>
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<td>Namibia</td>
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<td>Nigeria</td>
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<table>
<thead>
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<th>Education</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Urban</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poorest 40%</td>
<td>0 20 40 60 80 100</td>
<td>0 20 40 60 80 100</td>
<td>0 20 40 60 80 100</td>
<td>0 20 40 60 80 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Richest 40%</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Dropout rates (%) Dropout rates (%) Dropout rates (%) Dropout rates (%)
15. In the Lao People’s Democratic Republic, for example, girls from ethnic minorities are less likely to attend school (Lao PDR Ministry of Education, 2004). Ethnicity, race and language as barriers to education are particularly apparent in Latin America and the Caribbean, where a focus on educational disparity favouring girls can mask illiteracy and low school participation among girls from indigenous groups. Bolivia, for instance, reports more girls in school than boys, yet more than half of indigenous girls drop out of school before age 14 (UNICEF, 2005a: p.47). In Central and Eastern Europe, hidden within the statistics on girls’ education are disparities among ethnic minorities, with minority girls being less likely to enrol in school or to attend. ‘They face triple discrimination, as gender compounds the effects of bigotry and poverty’ (UNICEF, 2005a: p.39).

16. An Oxfam study in the Philippines noted that, despite the achievement of parity, gender bias against girls and women was ‘still deeply rooted in the school system’, reflected in textbooks, school policies and practices, and curricula. Especially serious are school climates that ‘create conditions which engender violence and sexual harassment’. Expulsion of pregnant teenage girls remains prevalent (Bernard, 2005).

THE SIX GOALS: HOW ARE WE DOING? / 39 decreased during the period; they include Aruba, Chile, the Dominican Republic, Kenya, Saint Lucia, Tonga and the United Republic of Tanzania.

Despite the overall positive trends, significant gender disparities remain, mostly at the expense of girls. Such gaps are now concentrated in the Arab States, South and West Asia, and sub-Saharan Africa, where overall about 90 girls are enrolled in primary school for every 100 boys (Table 2.13). In Afghanistan, Chad, the Central African Republic, the Niger, Pakistan and Yemen, the GPIs are particularly low (under 0.75). For these three regions, gender parity in education is part of an overall challenge involving the dismantling of gender discrimination and of the economic and political disadvantages confronting girls and women (UNICEF, 2005a). Gender disparities in primary education often stem from difficulties girls face in obtaining access to school. Among these obstacles are poverty and the related issue of direct and indirect costs of education, distance to school, language and ethnicity, social exclusion and the school environment. In addition, girls face
cultural barriers concerning their roles in the home and in society. The challenge is to implement policies tailored to overcoming cultural barriers concerning their roles in the home and in society. Girls face cultural barriers concerning their roles in the home and in society and Nigeria, where poorer children were fifty to seventy-five times more likely to leave school without completion than rich children. Differences between children of mothers with and without some primary education were strong, but generally less important than urban/rural or rich/poor differences. The exception was Kenya, where school-leavers without educated mothers were fourteen times more likely to have dropped out than those with educated mothers. Gender disparities among children who dropped out were very much smaller than the differences related to the other background characteristics, and were at a noticeable level only in Namibia.

Table 2.13: Changes in gender disparities in primary education by region between 1999 and 2004

Source: Annex, Statistical Table 5.

World
Developing countries
Developed countries
Countries in transition
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>GPI (F/M)</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>GPI (F/M)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arab States</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Central Asia</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>East Asia/Pacific</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pacific</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>South and West Asia</td>
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<tr>
<td>Caribbean</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>N. America/W. Europe</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centr./East. Europe</td>
<td>104.2</td>
<td>95.8</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>109.3</td>
<td>103.0</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>104.5</td>
<td>94.9</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>110.2</td>
<td>103.2</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
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<td>0.99</td>
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<td>99.4</td>
<td>96.3</td>
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<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>122.6</td>
<td>118.8</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>119.7</td>
<td>116.1</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>116.6</td>
<td>113.4</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>127.8</td>
<td>124.7</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>122.9</td>
<td>119.0</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>119.4</td>
<td>115.8</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>102.4</td>
<td>103.3</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>102.5</td>
<td>100.8</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>101.6</td>
<td>97.5</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>102.8</td>
<td>100.1</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

% Male
% Female
Gross enrolment ratios
1999 2004
% Male
% Female
GPI (F/M)
GPI (F/M)
multiple sources of exclusion and to giving girls the educational support and physical safety they need to gain access to primary education and complete it (Lewis and Lockheed, 2006). Some countries are taking up the challenge with success. In Guinea, for instance, the GER for girls increased by twenty-six percentage points between 1999 and 2004 after investment was made to improve school sanitation (UNICEF, 2005a).

Once they have access to school, girls tend to perform as well as or better than boys. For the countries with data available, the median percentage of repeaters in primary education was less than 4% for females in 2004 while the median for males was close to 5% (see annex, Statistical Table 6). Almost everywhere except sub-Saharan Africa, girls are also generally more likely to stay in school longer than boys (see annex, Statistical Table 7). In Latin American and the Caribbean, for example, while school completion is a general issue, in many countries it is especially so for boys. In Chile, poor boys are four times more likely to leave school early and enter the workforce than are poor girls (UNICEF, 2005a: p.46).

Once they have access to school, girls tend to perform as well as or better than boys.

Part II. Monitoring EFA

Chad
Niger
Benin
Burkina Faso
Mali
Côte d'Ivoire
Eritrea
Guinea
Burundi
Mozambique
Togo
Nigeria
Cameroon
Ethiopia
Comoros
Equat. Guinea
Congo
Kenya
Swaziland
Cape Verde
Senegal
Zambia
Madagascar
Ghana
U. R. Tanzania
Uganda
Lesotho
Malawi
Gambia
Yemen
Djibouti
Iraq
Sudan
Morocco
Algeria
Syrian A. R.
Egypt
Saudi Arabia
Lebanon
Tunisia
Mauritania
Qatar
Sub-Saharan Africa
Arab States
Tajikistan
Mongolia
Papua N. Guinea
Lao PDR
Cambodia
Palau
Macao, China
Viet Nam
Thailand
Tonga
Solomon Is
Cook Islands
Tuvalu
Niue
Afghanistan
Pakistan
Nepal
India
Iran, Isl. Rep.
Guatemala
Brazil
Cuba
Aruba
Dominican Rep.
Chile
Br. Virgin Is
Saint Lucia
El Salvador
Paraguay
Neth. Antilles
Dominica
Turkey
Portugal
Estonia
Central Asia
East Asia/Pacific
South/West Asia
Latin America/Caribbean
Europe
0 0.2 0.4 0.6 0.8 1.0 1.2 0 0.2 0.4 0.6 0.8 1.0 1.2
GPI of GERs GPI of GERs
Gender parity line
Gender parity line
1999 2004 (increase since 1999) 2004 (decrease since 1999) No change
Figure 2.14: Changes in gender disparities in primary education gross enrolment ratios between 1999 and 2004
Note: Countries with GPIs between 0.97 and 1.03 in both 1998 and 2002 are not included.
No data are available for Pakistan and Turkey in 1999.
See source table for detailed country notes.
Source: Annex, Statistical Table 5.
Secondary education: continuing momentum

It is important to look at education beyond the primary years, for several reasons. First, secondary and tertiary education are part of the EFA goals and the Millennium Development Goals of gender parity and equality. Second, achieving UPE not only creates demand for higher levels of education but also is itself dependent on progress in secondary and tertiary education for an adequate supply of competent teachers and for sufficient secondary school places to increase the incentive to complete primary school. Finally, in a world increasingly reliant on higher levels of knowledge and training for successful social and professional integration, many governments have made the universalization of basic education rather than simply primary education, a mediumterm objective.

Pressure from below

Demand for and participation in secondary education have been growing as many countries are making good progress towards achieving UPE. In 2004, some 502 million students were enrolled in secondary schools, an increase of 14% over 1999. Increases were particularly significant in the developing country regions, especially the Arab States, South and West Asia, and sub-Saharan Africa: in each, the number of secondary students rose by 20% or more during the period.

Transition to secondary education

High transition rates from the final grade of primary school to lower secondary education are common not only in developed countries and those in transition, but also in developing countries. The median rates in 2003 were close to 90% or above in all but one region (Figure 2.15): in sub-Saharan Africa the median was less than 65%. Countries with transition rates below 40% include Burkina Faso, Burundi, Côte d'Ivoire, Uganda and the United Republic of Tanzania. On the other hand, almost all those who reach the last grade of primary education go on to secondary education in Botswana, Ghana,
Seychelles and South Africa. While there are few variations in transition rates across regions, the range within them is often substantial. The greatest differences between the highest and the lowest country rates are found in Latin America and the Caribbean, sub-Saharan Africa and the Arab States region, with spreads of 87, 66 and 55 percentage points, respectively.

In spite of the relatively high average transition rates in many regions, the level of participation in secondary education tends to be much lower than at primary level. Worldwide, the average secondary GER was 65% in 2004, compared with 106% in primary education (see annex, Statistical Tables 5 and 8). The regional patterns of primary and secondary enrolment ratios are similar, though the disparities are greater for secondary education. The ISCED definition of basic education is primary education (first stage) plus lower secondary education (second stage).

Demand for and participation in secondary education has been growing.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Transition rates (%)</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mauritania</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2.15: Transition rates from primary to general secondary education, median values and regional variations, 2003
Source: Annex, Statistical Table 7.
education. North America and Western Europe have almost achieved universal secondary education, with GERs above 100% on average and NERs exceeding 90% (Figure 2.16). High secondary GERs (about 90%) are also found in Central and Eastern Europe, Central Asia, and Latin America and the Caribbean. Participation rates in secondary education are much lower in the remaining regions, and the secondary GERs are below 30% in sub-Saharan Africa. In that region as in others, the overall levels of participation conceal significant variation among countries. Secondary education is more developed in English-speaking African countries, particularly those in the southern hemisphere, than in Central and West Africa (see annex, Statistical Table 8).

Between 1999 and 2004, secondary GERs increased in 117 of the 150 countries with data available (Figure 2.17). The increases were often noteworthy, exceeding ten percentage points in about one-third of these countries. In relative terms, increases were higher in sub-Saharan Africa.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>GERs (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional average</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maldives</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iran, Isl. Rep.</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guatemala</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>El Salvador</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecuador</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Paraguay</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nicaragua</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Costa Rica</td>
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<td>Dominican Rep.</td>
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<td>Panama</td>
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<td>Venezuela</td>
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<td>Saint Lucia</td>
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<td>Colombia</td>
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<td>Mexico</td>
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<td>Bahamas</td>
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<td>Trinidad/Tobago</td>
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<td>Belize</td>
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<tr>
<td>Regional average</td>
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<td>Argentina</td>
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<td>Neth. Antilles</td>
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<td>Jamaica</td>
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<td>Guyana</td>
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<td>Cuba</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Br. Virgin Is</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
20
GERs (%)
South/West Asia Latin America and the Caribbean
Sub-Saharan Africa
1999 2004 (increase since 1999) 2004 (decrease since 1999) No change
Figure 2.17: Change in secondary gross enrolment ratios between 1999 and 2004
Note: See source table for detailed country notes.
Sources: Annex, Statistical Table 8; UIS database.
Africa, the Arab States, and East Asia and the Pacific, with gains of 25% in the former region and about 13% in the latter two. Secondary GERs doubled in some countries, including Ethiopia and Mozambique, albeit from low initial levels. Despite the global trend, however, some countries recorded substantial decreases, among them Malawi, the United Arab Emirates and Zimbabwe, whose GERs declined by 15% or more.

Two distinct stages

Secondary education is diverse. In addition to being subject-focused, in contrast to primary education, it consists of two levels. Lower secondary (ISCED level 2), which is usually considered the second stage of basic education, is generally designed to continue the basic programmes of the primary level, and its last year often coincides with the end of compulsory education. Upper secondary (ISCED level 3) provides a bridge between school and university or prepares students to enter the labour market (UNESCO, 1997).

In cross-national comparisons, secondary education is often considered as a whole. It is useful, however, to highlight what happens in its lower and upper stages, in terms of both level of participation and gender disparities.

In a context where achieving basic education (of often nine years) for all is becoming a goal in many countries, it is increasingly important to differentiate between lower and upper secondary education and to look more closely at the lower level in particular.

The overall secondary GERs discussed above mask sometimes substantial disparities between lower and upper secondary education. The level of participation in lower secondary is much higher than in upper secondary, with worldwide average GERs of 78% and 51%, respectively, in 2004 (see annex, Statistical Table 8). As Figure 2.16 shows, this difference in participation is found in all regions except North America and Western Europe, and Central and Eastern Europe; in those two regions the levels
of participation are very similar throughout
The level of participation in lower secondary is much higher than in upper secondary
0
40
60
80
100
120
160
140
20
GERs (%)
Israel
Switzerland
United States
Luxembourg
Greece
Portugal
Cyprus
Italy
Germany
Austria
Regional average
Sweden
United Kingdom
Canada
Belgium
Finland
France
Ireland
Iceland
Norway
Netherlands
Spain
Denmark
Rep. Moldova
Albania
TFYR Macedonia
Romania
Croatia
Regional average
Ukraine
Belarus
Slovakia
Czech Republic
Latvia
Hungary
Estonia
Lithuania
Slovenia
Bulgaria
Mauritania
Djibouti
Sudan
Iraq
Morocco
Yemen
Syrian Arab Rep.
Regional average
U. A. Emirates
Saudi Arabia
Tunisia
Oman
Egypt
Jordan
Lebanon
Kuwait
Palestinian A. T.
Qatar
Bahrain
Tajikistan
Georgia
Azerbaijan
Kyrgyzstan
Mongolia
Regional average
Kazakhstan
Papua New Guinea
Myanmar
Vanuatu
Lao PDR
Cook Islands
China
Regional average
Viet Nam
Malaysia
Samoa
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brunei Darussalam</td>
<td>160</td>
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<td>Macao, China</td>
<td>140</td>
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<td>Niue</td>
<td>20</td>
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<td>Tonga</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>Palau</td>
<td>40</td>
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<td>Japan</td>
<td>60</td>
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<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>80</td>
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<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>100</td>
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<td>1999 2004 (increase since 1999)</td>
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<td>North America and Western Europe</td>
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<td>Central and Eastern Europe</td>
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<td>Central Asia</td>
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<td>East Asia and the Pacific</td>
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<td>2004 (decrease since 1999)</td>
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<td>No change</td>
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</table>
secondary education. The participation rate differentials between the two levels are especially high in East Asia and the Pacific (forty-two percentage points) and Latin America and the Caribbean (thirty-one percentage points); by comparison, the global average is twenty-seven percentage points.

Of the 203 countries or territories covered in the statistical tables, 192 reported having laws making education compulsory. In about threequarters of them, compulsory education includes lower secondary (see annex, Statistical Table 4), which means participation at that level is supposed to be universal. In all developed countries, all countries in transition and 80% of countries in Latin America and the Caribbean, and East Asia and the Pacific, lower secondary education is indeed compulsory and participation high, with GERs above 90% in 2004. By contrast, while three out of four Arab States make lower secondary education compulsory, actual participation averages are below 80%. In Djibouti, Mauritania, Morocco and Yemen, where lower secondary is officially compulsory, the GERs vary between 20% and 60%. This gap between what is legally compulsory and what is the reality raises two issues: whether the laws are sufficiently enforced and whether there are enough places in lower secondary school to make such enforcement feasible.

South and West Asia, and sub-Saharan Africa are the regions with the lowest levels of participation in lower secondary education, with GERs in 2004 of 64% and 36%, respectively (Figure 2.15). They are also the regions with the fewest countries making lower secondary education compulsory – fewer than 40% of the countries in each case.

Overall, while universal basic education (combining primary and lower secondary education) is increasingly becoming an objective in many countries, universal participation is still far away. This is particularly so for sub-Saharan
Africa, where the average GER in basic education was 73% in 2004, compared with 90% or above in the other regions, though the ratio did increase by ten percentage points between 1999 and 2004.18

Technical and vocational education
Secondary education typically includes both academically oriented programmes and technical and vocational education (TVE). Of the more than 500 million students in secondary education worldwide in 2004, around 10% were enrolled in TVE (see annex, Statistical Table 8). Overall, enrolment in TVE programmes is higher in more developed countries, especially in Central and Eastern Europe, where TVE students represent about one-fifth of total secondary enrolment, compared with 8% in the developing world. However, the situation in developing regions is very diverse. TVE is well established in many Latin American and Caribbean countries, representing about 40% of total secondary enrolment in some, including Honduras, the Netherlands Antilles, Panama and Suriname. It is much less common in Central Asia, South and West Asia, and sub-Saharan Africa,19 representing between 1% and 6% of total secondary enrolments, on average.

Gender disparities in secondary education
The higher the level of education, the greater the gender disparities. Almost invariably, gender differences in participation levels are greater in secondary than in primary education. While about two-thirds of the countries for which 2004 data are available have achieved gender parity in primary education, only one-third have reached it in secondary education (see annex, Statistical Table 8). Most of these countries are in Central and Eastern Europe, East Asia and the Pacific, Latin America and the Caribbean, and North America and Western Europe. The list also includes a few countries from other regions: Jordan, Mauritius, Qatar, Swaziland and Tunisia. Patterns of gender disparities are more complex in secondary education than in primary. In primary education they are nearly always at the expense of girls. At secondary level, however,
there are as many countries with disparities at the expense of boys as there are countries where girls are at a disadvantage. Countries with low overall secondary enrolment ratios tend to be those where disparities are at the expense of girls, while disparities at the expense of boys are observed in developed countries as well as in several Latin American and Caribbean countries. Overall, gender disparities in favour of boys tend to be more pronounced than those in favour of girls. In five countries (Afghanistan, Chad, Guinea, Togo and Yemen), fewer than 50 girls are enrolled at secondary level for every 100 boys; by contrast, in five other countries (Dominican Republic, Honduras, Kiribati, Lesotho and Suriname), roughly 120 girls are enrolled for every 100 boys. There is a gap between what is legally compulsory and what is the reality.

18. These data are from the UIS database.
19. Among sub-Saharan African countries for which 2004 data are available, only in Cameroon and Rwanda does TVE represent a significant share (about one-third) of total secondary enrolment.

Part I. Monitoring EFA
The average GPI for secondary education as a whole often hides substantial differences between upper and lower secondary. Figure 2.18 (see p. 48) shows that gender gaps, when they exist, are often wider in upper than lower secondary. In countries where gender disparities affect female students, most of which are in the Arab States, South and West Asia, and sub-Saharan Africa, girls’ share of enrolment is lower at the upper secondary level. Similarly, gender disparities in favour of girls in developed countries and in many countries of Latin America and the Caribbean are usually more pronounced at the upper secondary level. Gender disparities in secondary education, particularly those affecting girls, stem from disparities in primary education. In countries where girls have limited access to primary school, especially those in South and West Asia, and sub-Saharan Africa, this disadvantage persists through secondary education, even when girls do as well as, or outperform, boys, as seen earlier. Indeed, the gap tends to widen between the lower levels of schooling and upper secondary. As previous editions of the EFA Global Monitoring Report have indicated, factors such as puberty, pregnancy and early marriage, as well as household and societal factors, have a strong influence on gender patterns for upper secondary school participation and retention. Gender disparities in favour of girls are linked to girls’ tendency to perform better than boys, to their lower repetition rates and higher graduation rates, and to their leaving the school system later (UNESCO, 2005). This phenomenon is becoming increasingly common around the world and requires policy attention if the goal of gender parity is to be fully achieved.

Post-secondary non-tertiary education
In many countries, particularly developed ones, some graduates of secondary schools enrol in programmes that prepare them for specific occupations. These programmes, which are not part of tertiary education, are classified at ISCED
level 4 and often last less than two years. In the
countries where these programmes exist,
enrolment is seldom more than 10% of total
secondary enrolment, though in some small
developing countries, such as the British Virgin
Islands, Dominica, Jamaica, Seychelles, and the
Turks and Caicos Islands, enrolment in ISCED
level 4 programmes is equivalent to one-fifth to
two-thirds of secondary enrolment. Ireland is
the only developed country where a similar
percentage is found (20%), at least among
countries for which data are available. Women
are well represented in these programmes.
Their share in ISCED 4 enrolment was above
50% in the majority of countries with data
available for 2004, and above 60% in one-third
of them (see annex, Statistical Table 8).

Tertiary education: enrolments
up but access still limited

Tertiary education is linked to the EFA goals in
at least two ways: as a component of the gender
equality goal and as an important provider of
teachers and administrators. Worldwide, some
132 million students were enrolled in tertiary
education in 2004, about 40 million more than
in 1999. Three-quarters of the growth took place
in developing countries, where the total number
of tertiary students rose from 46 million in 1999
to 76 million in 2004 (see annex, Statistical
Table 9). East Asia, led by China, accounts
for about 60% (17 million) of the increase.

Figure 2.19 indicates that participation in
higher education is on the rise in almost all
countries for which data are available. GERs
increased by more than two percentage points
between 1999 and 2004 in two-thirds of the
119 countries with data. Increases of more than
ten percentage points were observed in more
than thirty countries, mostly developed countries
and countries in transition. However, large
increases were also recorded in several
developing countries, including China, Macao
(China) and Mauritius, all of which more than
doubled their participation level during the
period.

Despite the continuing expansion of tertiary
education worldwide since 1999, only a small share of the relevant age group has access to this level (UIS, 2006a). The world tertiary GER was around 24% in 2004, but participation varies substantially by region. In North America and Western Europe, the average GER was around 70%; in Central and Eastern Europe and in the Pacific it was around 50%. In the Arab States, Central Asia, East Asia and the Pacific, and Latin America and the Caribbean, the participation level was between 20% and 28%. It is much lower in South and West Asia (10%) and sub-Saharan Africa (5%).

Worldwide, some 132 million students were enrolled in tertiary education in 2004, about 40 million more than in 1999. Three-quarters of the growth took place in developing countries
Gender disparities at tertiary level: different patterns in different regions

Gender disparities are more prevalent in tertiary education than at lower levels. Gender parity exists only in Andorra, Cyprus, Georgia, Mexico and Peru, out of the 148 countries for which 2004 data are available (see annex, Statistical Table 9). In developed and transition countries, participation in tertiary education is higher among females (the average GPI is 1.27), and the situation of males has tended to worsen since 1999. In contrast, while some improvement occurred in developing countries over the period, female participation remained below that of males in 2004: the overall GPI was 0.87, up from 0.78 in 1999. Developing-country regions display much variation, however. In general, the situation in Latin America and the Caribbean and in the Pacific is close to that of developed countries, with GPIs generally well above 1. In contrast, gender disparities favouring men are mainly observed in most countries of East Asia (average GPI: 0.88), South and West Asia (0.70) and sub-Saharan Africa (0.62). The already marginal presence of women in tertiary education in the developing world is worsening in some countries, including Burundi, the Congo, the Gambia and Macao (China). Others, however, including Ethiopia, the Lao People’s Democratic Republic, Malawi, Morocco, Uganda, the United Republic of Tanzania and Yemen, are making great progress in getting more women in tertiary education.

Beyond gender parity: what about gender equality?

In much of the world, the main challenge is still to increase girls’ access to education, and ensure that equal numbers of girls and boys are in school. This is gender parity. However, as the 2003/4 Report argued, gender parity in...
education than
at lower levels
20. Among countries of
the region with data
available, only in
Guatemala are high
gender disparities found
at the expense of women
(GPI of 0.72).

Part I. Monitoring EFA
Guinea
Togo
Benin
Eritrea
Equat. Guinea
Mali
Ethiopia
Niger
Burkina Faso
Mozambique
Senegal
Burundi
Comoros
Uganda
Zambia
Malawi
Nigeria
Gambia
Congo
Ghana
Rwanda
Zimbabwe
Kenya
Mauritius
Swaziland
S. Tome/Principe
Botswana
South Africa
Seychelles
Cape Verde
Namibia
Lesotho
Sub-Saharan Africa
0.0 0.2 0.4 0.6 0.8 1.0 1.2 1.4 1.6 1.8
GPI of GERs
Gender
Figure 2.18: Gender disparities in secondary gross enrolment ratios by level, 2004
Note: Countries with GPIs between 0.97 and 1.03 at all levels are not included. See source table for detailed country notes.
Source: Annex, Statistical Table 8.
education does not necessarily mean gender equality. There is no gender equality, for example, when women tend to be concentrated in certain tertiary disciplines, such as education, social sciences, humanities and health. Evidence shows that men’s educational underachievement, where it exists, has not yet resulted in their falling behind economically and politically, and that women may need still higher qualifications than they have thus far attained in order to compete successfully for jobs, equal pay and managerial positions (UNESCO, 2003a). There is also no gender equality when sexual violence and harassment exist in schools, when teaching materials are biased and when teachers are not aware of gender issues. Public policies aimed at promoting gender equality in education thus need to go beyond initiatives that focus exclusively on enrolment ratios (UNESCO, 2005).

Guatemala
St Vincent/Grenad.
St Kitts/Nevis
Turks/Caicos Is
Dominica
Ecuador
Saint Lucia
Cuba
Barbados
Paraguay
Peru
El Salvador
Jamaica
Aruba
Anguilla
Belize
Costa Rica
Br. Virgin Is
Trinidad/Tobago
Mexico
Argentina
Panama
Grenada
Neth. Antilles
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<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>GPI of GERs</th>
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<tr>
<td>Bahamas</td>
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<td>Montserrat</td>
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<td>Cayman Is</td>
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<td>Dominican Rep.</td>
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<td>Honduras</td>
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<td>Suriname</td>
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<td>Latin America/Caribbean</td>
<td>0.0 0.2 0.4 0.6 0.8 1.0 1.2 1.4 1.6 1.8</td>
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<td>Switzerland</td>
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<td>Ukraine</td>
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<td>Poland</td>
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<td>Estonia</td>
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<td>Rep. Moldova</td>
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<td>N. America/W. Europe</td>
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</table>
Centr./East. Europe  
0.0 0.2 0.4 0.6 0.8 1.0 1.2 1.4 1.6 1.8  
GPI of GERs  
Cambodia  
Lao PDR  
Papua N. Guinea  
Solomon Is  
Vanuatu  
Viet Nam  
Australia  
Indonesia  
Cook Islands  
Thailand  
Marshall Is  
Macao, China  
Brunei Darussalam  
Palau  
Fiji  
Tonga  
New Zealand  
Philippines  
Samoa  
Malaysia  
Kiribati  
Afghanistan  
Pakistan  
India  
Nepal  
Iran, Isl. Rep.  
Sri Lanka  
Bangladesh  
Maldives  
East Asia/Pacific  
South/West Asia  
0.0 0.2 0.4 0.6 0.8 1.0 1.2 1.4 1.6 1.8  
GPI of GERs  
Gender  
parity line  
Gender  
parity line  
Gender  
parity line  
Lower secondary Total secondary Upper secondary
Education quality must accompany expansion
Because the EFA goal on the quality of education (discussed at length in the 2005 Report) involves school inputs, processes and outcomes, past editions of the EFA Global Monitoring Report have employed multiple indicators on education expenditure, teachers (qualifications, deployment and availability) and pupil/teacher ratios to monitor international patterns and longitudinal trends. These indicators represent key enabling factors to ensure that students learn well in school and that such learning is relevant and valuable to their lives.
A new report by the World Bank Independent Evaluation Group (2006) underscores the fact that countries have placed high priority on increasing enrolment in primary schools, but have paid far less attention to the crucial issue of whether there is also no gender equality when sexual violence and harassment exist in schools
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...children are learning adequately. It recommends that countries and development partners place the same emphasis on learning outcomes as they do on access, with the idea that current investment in primary education would thus have a far greater impact on poverty reduction and national development.

This section looks at learning outcomes (through the development of national assessments along with new findings from comparative assessments) and documents aspects of teacher deployment, training and qualifications.

Learning outcomes

Expanding access to primary schooling does not necessarily imply a trade-off with improving school quality and learning outcomes. Policies can effectively enhance both access and quality – for example, by shifting more public expenditure to basic education, increasing efficiency in the allocation of resources across schools and improving pre-service and in-service teacher training.

The move towards national assessments of learning achievement

Since the 1990s, more and more governments have committed themselves to assessing student learning and gauging progress in learning outcomes over time. This monitoring takes many forms: for example, participating in comparative assessments of academic achievement or basic skills; national monitoring of the curriculum and subject-specific achievements; standards-based assessments (according to grade or age); school-based assessments of pupil progress (based on tests, performance and portfolios); and external (public) examinations at major system transition points. Learning assessments, whatever form they take, can be used not only to evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of an education system, but also to address issues of equity and to compare pupil achievements across schools, regions and systems.
Previous editions of the EFA Global Monitoring Report have discussed the results of comparative international and official assessments, notably those of the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA); the 21. In theory, learning outcomes include subject-based knowledge; broader skills and competencies; and attitudes, values and behaviours. In practice, however, student learning is mainly assessed in terms of the cognitive dimension.

Part I I. Monitoring EFA

Malawi
Angola
Eritrea
Mozambique
Gambia
U. R. Tanzania
Burkina Faso
Mali
Comoros
Burundi
Ethiopia
Madagascar
Rwanda
Lesotho
Uganda
Congo
Zimbabwe
Senegal
Swaziland
Cameroon
Cape Verde
Botswana
Nigeria
South Africa
Mauritius
Djibouti
Mauritania
Yemen
Morocco
Iraq
Qatar
Algeria
Kuwait
U. A. Emirates
Saudi Arabia
Tunisia
Egypt
Bahrain
Palestinian A. T.
Lebanon
Libyan A. J.
Azerbaijan
Tajikistan
Armenia
Mongolia
Kyrgyzstan
Georgia
Kazakhstan
Vanuatu
Lao PDR
Tonga
Viet Nam
Brunei Daruss.
China
Philippines
Malaysia
Thailand
Japan
New Zealand
Macao, China
Australia
Rep. of Korea
Sub-Saharan Africa
Arab States
Central Asia
East Asia/Pacific
Bangladesh
Iran, Isl. Rep.
Trinidad/Tobago
Honduras
El Salvador
Costa Rica
Brazil
Mexico
Neth. Antilles
Paraguay
Colombia
Aruba
Cuba
Uruguay
Bolivia
Chile
Panama
Argentina
Luxembourg
Malta
Cyprus
Switzerland
Austria
Iceland
France
Israel
Portugal
Ireland
Netherlands
United Kingdom
Canada
Belgium
Italy
Spain
Denmark
Greece
Norway
United States
Sweden
Finland
Albania
TFYR Macedonia
Turkey
Rep. Moldova
Slovakia
Croatia
Romania
Bulgaria
Czech Republic
Hungary
Belarus
Poland
Estonia
Ukraine
Lithuania
Slovenia
Latvia
South/West Asia
Latin America/Caribbean
N. America/W. Europe
Central and Eastern Europe
20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100
Gross enrolment ratios (%)
20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100
Gross enrolment ratios (%)
1999 2004 (increase since 1999) 2004 (decrease since 1999) No change
Figure 2.19: Changes in tertiary gross enrolment ratios between 1999 and 2004
Note: See source table for detailed country notes.
Source: Annex, Statistical Table 9.
OECD-sponsored Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA); and regional studies in Latin America (LLECE), sub-Saharan Africa (SACMEQ and PASEC) and the Pacific Islands (PILL). Region-based assessments have the advantages of providing more culturally valid tests of pupil knowledge and skills than do international assessments, and of being more adaptable to emergent policy needs (Scheerens, 2006).

With no new comparative assessments available, this Report looks at national assessments of learning outcomes, an especially significant development since the Dakar Forum (Encinas-Martin, 2006). In some countries, national assessments have developed in parallel with comparative regional or international assessments; in others, they are in lieu of them (see below).

National assessments are meant to provide national stakeholders with systematic information about the status of students’ learning outcomes and the extent to which students attain nationally defined standards or proficiences. National assessments describe levels of pupil achievement, not of individual students but of a whole education system, or some clearly defined part of it (e.g. fourth grade pupils or 9-year-olds) (UNESCO-IIEP, 2001). The scientific validity of national assessments varies greatly making it difficult to compare learning achievements among countries. Nevertheless, national learning assessments are a potentially useful tool to monitor educational quality, address national policy issues and pinpoint areas for government attention and programme intervention.

The annex to this Report contains an up-to-date overview of national assessment and evaluation activities undertaken by countries in sub-Saharan Africa, the Arab States, Asia and the Pacific, and Latin America and the Caribbean. Although incomplete, this review of national assessments underscores the diversity of developing country efforts, definitions and experiences in this area. Several trends are
noticeable: National learning assessments in many countries have developed quite recently (mainly since 1995, especially after 2000). Most countries assess student learning in the primary grades only, though some in Asia and Latin America monitor progress at both primary and secondary level. Assessments are curriculum-based and subject-oriented, typically covering official and foreign languages, mathematics and sometimes natural and social sciences, rather than assessing cross-curricular knowledge, skills or competencies as does, for instance, PISA. Assessments are usually carried out by a unit in the ministry of education or by a national research institute. The annex presents only the basic parameters of national learning assessments; information is limited regarding which stakeholders are involved, how transparent the compiled data are and whether assessments influence policy initiatives and reforms. It seems possible, however, to roughly gauge the degree of a country’s commitment to assessing student learning by cross-referencing its participation in regional or international assessments, on the one hand, and national assessmentss on the other. Table 2.14 shows a sampling of countries with strong commitments to pupil learning assessments (found in category A) as well as some of those with the least experience (category D).23 In sum, national assessments of learning outcomes have become much more prevalent in developing countries in recent years. Despite the enormous heterogeneity of such assessments as regards target population, frequency, policy relevance, scientific rigour and other factors, they clearly indicate an important new development in national activities to monitor education quality. 22. National learning assessments are known under a variety of names, including system assessments, learning
assessments and assessments of learning outcomes.

23. Table 2.14 is incomplete because in some cases there was no information on national assessments, and in others the available information was incomplete, ambiguous or both. Some countries have undertaken national assessments but no information about the studies has been published or otherwise made available. Encinas-Martin (2006) provides references for or links to all relevant preliminary or final project documents, and discusses the next steps in this research project.

A: Argentina, Bolivia, Botswana, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Djibouti, Dominican Rep., Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, India, Jordan, Lebanon, Malawi, Mexico, Morocco, Nicaragua, Nigeria, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Qatar, Republic of Korea, Singapore, South Africa, Uruguay, Venezuela, Zambia

B: Belize, Bahrain, China, Honduras, Iran (Isl. Rep.), Kenya, Malaysia, Mozambique, Philippines, Russian Federation, Seychelles, Syrian A. R., Thailand, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia, Turkey

C: Bangladesh, Gambia, Myanmar, Pakistan, Viet Nam

D: Angola, Bahamas, Barbados, Benin, Burundi, D. R. Congo, Dominica, Grenada, Guyana, Haiti, Jamaica, Kazakhstan, Liberia, Libyan A. J., St Kitts and Nevis,
St Lucia, St Vincent and the Grenadines, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Suriname, Tajikistan

Table 2.14: Countries classified according to their experience with pupil learning assessments

Conducted at least one national assessment
No evidence of having conducted a national assessment
Participated in regional or international assessment
Did not participate in regional or international assessment

Note: More complete data on national learning assessment activity would alter this classification for certain countries.

24. The study focused on seventeen countries and territories with large immigrant populations: Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, France, Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland and the United States, among OECD countries, along with three non-OECD PISA participants: the Russian Federation, Hong Kong (China) and Macao (China).

25. The study suggested that achievement disparities between immigrant and native adolescents were more likely to be found in highly streamed education systems.

26. These findings are based on PISA 2003 and obtain after adjusting for socio-economic status.

New findings from comparative assessments: which factors count the most?

While no new comparative assessments have become available, new analyses of previous assessments have been published that add to the understanding of which factors contribute to successful learning. Socio-economic background. Recent studies of pupil achievement continue to validate a core conclusion from earlier research: pupils from higher socio-economic backgrounds (those having a parent with post-secondary education or one with high occupational status, or having grown
up in a home with many material possessions, especially books) tend to perform better than those from disadvantaged socio-economic backgrounds. The positive relationship between measures of socio-economic status and student achievement obtains in all countries, at all age levels, and for all subjects and competencies. Some recent studies have paid greater attention to the influence of other family characteristics on pupil achievement, by examining immigrant status, language spoken at home, family structure and paid employment. Immigrant or native. The OECD (2006)24 reported that the achievements of immigrant and non-immigrant children on PISA tests of reading, mathematics and science in 2003 differed widely in many national school systems. In Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, the Netherlands and Switzerland, learning disparities between 15-year-old immigrant students and native students of the same age were significant, and there were few disparities between first and second generation immigrants. In Australia, Canada and New Zealand however, the achievement gap between immigrants and non-immigrants was small and not considered significant (after adjustment for socio-economic status).25 Public policy has clearly made a difference in these three countries. Language and family structure. In eighteen of twenty high-income countries, students who spoke the test language at home had significantly higher scores in mathematics literacy than students whose home languages differed from the test language (Hampden-Thompson and Johnston, 2006).26 There was also a significant achievement gap between students from twoparent homes and students living in other family structures in fourteen of the twenty countries. Paid employment. After-school activities involving paid employment have been found to reduce pupil achievement in mathematics and science, especially among boys. The negative impact of after-school paid employment pertained to both high-income and middle-income countries (Post and Ling Pong, 2006).
Equity issues: how much does student achievement vary?
In addition to comparing countries according to mean achievement levels, it is equally important to examine the distribution of learning outcomes within countries. If the spread of student achievement around some mean level is extensive in a given country, that is indicative of low education equity (Scheerens and Visscher, 2004). One way to address the equity dimension of pupil achievement is by examining socioeconomic gradients of learning achievement, also known as the ‘learning bar’ (OECD, 2004b; Willms and Somers, 2001). Recent comparative studies have shown that the level, slope and strength of socio-economic gradients of pupil achievement vary by country and by school (Mullis et al., 2003; OECD, 2004b; Willms, 2006). For example, among non-OECD countries in the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) among fourth graders, some (including Belize, the Islamic Republic of Iran, Israel, Romania and Singapore) had socio-economic gradient lines with steep slopes, indicating high inequality. Countries or territories with relatively flat slopes (i.e. low inequality) included Colombia, Hong Kong (China), Kuwait, Latvia and the Russian Federation (Willms, 2006).
Using data for fourteen sub-Saharan African countries from the second study by the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ II), Ross et al. (2005) compared national school systems according to performance (mean achievement levels) and equity (socio-economic gradients of learning achievements). As Figure 2.20 shows, Kenya, Mauritius and Seychelles were the best performers, with the highest average scores in mathematics. However, a different picture emerges when considering the equity aspect of achievement (the slope and length of the socioeconomic gradient lines). On this dimension, Kenya, Mozambique and the United Republic of Tanzania were the top performers, with relatively flat gradients and above-average mathematics achievement. By contrast, Mauritius, Seychelles
and South Africa showed steep socio-economic gradients, indicating more inequitable systems. It is important to examine the distribution of learning outcomes within countries.

Part II. Monitoring EFA
27. Ross et al. (2005) and Lee et al. (2005) discuss the complex reasons behind the large variations in student achievement.

28. PTRs discussed in this Report are based on headcounts of pupils and teachers. They are calculated by dividing the total number of pupils enrolled at a specified level of education by the number of teachers at that level. The PTR depends on an accurate count of teachers who have teaching responsibilities. In some countries, some teachers may work part-time, and figures for full-time teachers are not always available. In addition, forms of school organization such as multigrade and double shifts may not be taken into account when calculating the PTR, which is a national average. Further, data on teachers may include other education personnel, and separate data on the latter are difficult to collect in an internationally comparable way (UNESCO, 2005).
while Seychelles has a ratio of 14:1. Chad, Mozambique, Afghanistan and Rwanda also have high ratios, between 62:1 and 69:1. Such high ratios impede learning.

PTRs are higher at primary level than at lower-secondary (except in East Asia, where they are similar at both), and lower-secondary PTRs tend to be higher than those at upper-secondary level, particularly in South and West Asia, and sub-Saharan Africa (see annex, Statistical Table 10A).

Between 1999 and 2004, PTRs declined in most regions and countries with data available (107 out of 146 countries). The decline was most prevalent in East Asia, the Arab States, and North America and Western Europe (regions that already had PTRs below 30:1). A slight decline occurred in sub-Saharan Africa, but in the Pacific and in South and West Asia, PTRs increased, reaching a median of 40:1 in the latter. Ratios increased in more than one-fourth of the 146 countries, with the highest percentage increases in Afghanistan (80%), Bahamas (40%), United Republic of Tanzania (39%) and the Congo (35%). Countries with high ratios in 2004 also had high ratios in 1999 (see annex, Statistical Table 10A).

For particular countries, two trends are evident. First, the substantial increases in primary PTRs in Afghanistan,29 the United Republic of Tanzania, the Congo and Kenya were accompanied by increases in the total number 29. As the 2006 Report pointed out (UNESCO, 2005), the number of teachers in Afghanistan did not grow to keep up with a large influx of new pupils, particularly girls (who were previously excluded).

Socio-economic level of pupils’ home environment
Mathematics scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>-120</th>
<th>-80</th>
<th>-40</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>40</th>
<th>80</th>
<th>120</th>
<th>160</th>
<th>200</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Mozambique</td>
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<td>South Africa</td>
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<td>Namibia</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Malawi
Lesotho
Zanzibar
(U. R. Tanzania)
Botswana
Swaziland
Zambia
Mauritius
Seychelles
U. R. Tanzania
Uganda
460
610
660
410
560
510
Figure 2.20: Mathematics achievement scores of grade 6 pupils in relation to socio-economic status, SACMEQ II (2000–2002)
Note: The socio-economic gradient lines summarize the regression relationships between the mathematics achievement of grade 6 pupils and the socio-economic level of their home environments. The achievement scores in mathematics were transformed to an overall SACMEQ mean of 500 and standard deviation of 100.
The socio-economic level of the home environment was assessed via a composite index combining information on the parents’ education and characteristics such as house construction, home lighting and possessions. The index scores were transformed to an overall SACMEQ mean of zero and a standard deviation of 100. That is, the index scores were ‘centred’ so that a value of zero represented the socioeconomic level of the home environment of an ‘average SACMEQ pupil’.
Source: Ross et al. (2005).
Seychelles
(1)
Qatar, Saudi Arabia,
Kuwait, Lebanon
(4)
Azerbaijan, Georgia
(2)
Tokelau, Niue, Brunei
Darussalam
(3)
Bermuda, Cuba, Turks and
Caicos Islands, Cayman
Islands, British Virgin
Islands, Anguilla
(6)
Sweden, Norway, Iceland,
Italy, Greece, Luxembourg,
Portugal, Belgium, Israel,
Andorra, Switzerland,
Austria, Spain, Germany,
United States (15)
Hungary, Poland, Latvia,
Estonia, Lithuania
(5)
36
Mauritius
(1)
U. A. Emirates, Bahrain, Syrian A. R.,
Oman, Jordan, Iraq, Tunisia, Egypt
(8)
Kazakhstan, Tajikistan, Armenia,
Kyrgyzstan (4)
Cook Islands, New Zealand,
Marshall Islands, Malaysia, Japan,
Tuvalu, Vanuatu, Indonesia, Tonga,
Thailand, China, Nauru, Viet Nam,
Macao (China), Kiribati (15)
Maldives, Islamic Republic of Iran,
Sri Lanka (3)
Barbados, Argentina, St Kitts/Nevis,
St Vincent/Grenad., Trinidad/Tobago,
Grenada, Aruba, Dominica,
Suriname, Bahamas, Neth. Antilles,
Uruguay, Montserrat, Brazil, Peru,
Costa Rica, Saint Lucia, Ecuador,
Belize, Bolivia, Panama (21)  
Finland, Canada, Cyprus, United Kingdom, Ireland, France, Malta (7)  
Slovenia, Belarus, Russian Federation, Bulgaria, Romania, Slovakia, Croatia, Czech Republic, Ukraine, Republic of Moldova, TFYR Macedonia, Albania (12)  
71  
Botswana, Cape Verde, Namibia, Swaziland, Sao Tome and Principe, Ghana, South Africa, Comoros, Gabon, Nigeria, Gambia, Zimbabwe, Kenya (13)  
Algeria, Palestinian A. T., Morocco, Sudan, Djibouti (5)  
Mongolia (1)  
Samoa, Fiji, Republic of Korea, Myanmar, Lao PDR, Philippines, Papua New Guinea (7)  
Pakistan, Bhutan, Nepal (3)  
Guyana, Chile, Jamaica, Paraguay, Colombia, Mexico, Guatemala, Dominican Republic, Honduras, Nicaragua (10)  
39  
Mauritania (1)  
Timor-Leste
Table 2.15: Distribution of countries by pupil/teacher ratios at primary level by region, 2004

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region Below</th>
<th>15</th>
<th>15-24</th>
<th>25-39</th>
<th>40-55</th>
<th>55 and above</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa (37)</td>
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<td>Arab States (18)</td>
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<td>Central Asia (7)</td>
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<tr>
<td>East Asia/Pacific (27)</td>
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<td>South/West Asia (9)</td>
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<td>Latin America/Caribbean (37)</td>
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<td>N. America/W. Europe (22)</td>
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<td>Centr./East. Europe (17)</td>
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<td>Total: 174</td>
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Note: Countries are listed in ascending order of PTR. The total number of countries in each category is given in parentheses. See source table for detailed country notes.

Source: Annex, Statistical Table 10A.
including Mali and the Syrian Arab Republic, did manage to decrease PTRs despite large enrolment increases.

Female teachers
In most regions, primary school teaching is predominantly a female occupation. The exceptions are South and West Asia, and sub-Saharan Africa (see annex, Statistical Table 10A). In Afghanistan, Benin, Chad and Togo, women make up one-fifth or less of the primary teacher workforce, and gender disparities persist in primary school participation (particularly in Afghanistan, where about forty-four girls to 100 boys are enrolled in primary school).

At higher levels of education, women’s share of the teaching force is much lower, particularly in tertiary education, where teaching is predominantly a male occupation (Figure 2.21).

Teacher training and qualifications
Teacher training. Figures showing the proportion of trained teachers can give some indication of the likely quality of teaching staff. In about half the countries with 2004 data available (seventysix for primary and fifty-nine for secondary), one-fifth of teachers in both primary and secondary education lacked pedagogical training. At primary school teaching is predominantly a female occupation.

Part II. Monitoring EFA
level in Lebanon, Nepal and Togo, fewer than half are trained according to national standards. In Lebanon and Nepal this is the result of an increase in the education level required for teacher training (UIS, 2006b), compounded in Lebanon with a very low PTR (14:1). Most of the eleven countries in the world where more than 50% of secondary teachers are untrained are in Latin America and the Caribbean (see annex, Statistical Table 10B).

The percentage of trained primary teachers increased slightly between 1999 and 2004 in about half of the forty-one countries with data available (see annex, Statistical Table 10A). The improvement was remarkable (more than a 60% increase) in Bahamas, Namibia and Rwanda (Figure 2.22). In Namibia, this improvement was accompanied by an increased supply of teachers and hence a reduction in the PTR, although half of Namibia’s teaching force still has no training. In Rwanda and Bahamas, growth in the proportion of trained teachers (by 68% and 62%, respectively) was paralleled by a decrease in absolute numbers of teachers, the latter trend leading to a deterioration in the PTR (which rose by 14% and 40%, respectively).31

The percentage of trained primary teachers declined in fifteen of the forty-one countries with data for the two years. The decline was particularly high in Bangladesh, Nepal and the Niger. In Nepal and the Niger (which has a policy of hiring untrained teachers – para-professionals or para-teachers – to support an increase in the enrolment ratio of more than 50%), not only did the proportion of trained teachers decline but the PTR increased. In Bangladesh, on the other hand, the decrease in the percentage of trained teachers was accompanied by a slight decline in the PTR.

Teacher qualifications. Countries also differ in terms of their teacher qualifications (Box 2.3). The percentage of trained teachers as an

31. Rwanda increased the proportion of trained teachers by reorganizing teacher training institutions, opening new teacher training colleges and subsidizing two church-based teacher training institutions (UNESCO, 2005).

The percentage of trained primary teachers has increased slightly since 1999 in half of the countries with data.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage of female teachers</th>
<th>Tertiary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Sub-Saharan Africa</th>
<th>Arab States</th>
<th>Central Asia</th>
<th>East Asia/Pacific</th>
<th>South and West Asia</th>
<th>Latin America/Caribbean</th>
<th>N. America/W. Europe</th>
<th>Centr./East. Europe</th>
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<td>Namibia</td>
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<td>Benin</td>
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<td>Eritrea</td>
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<td>Seychelles</td>
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<td>Zambia</td>
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<td>Niger</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Mauritius
Algeria
Oman
Kuwait
Kyrgyzstan
Azerbaijan
Myanmar
Lao PDR
Viet Nam
Macao, China
Nepal
Bangladesh
Maldives
Guyana
Bahamas
Dominica
Trinidad/Tobago
Br. Virgin Is
Anguilla
Panama
Nicaragua
Turks/Caicos Is
Barbados
Costa Rica
Montserrat
Aruba
Cuba
Neth. Antilles
Croatia
Sub-Saharan Africa
Arab States
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
South and West Asia
Latin America and the Caribbean
Central and Eastern Europe
0 20 40 60 80 100
Trained teachers (%)
1999 2004 (increase since 1999) 2004 (decrease since 1999) No change
Figure 2.22: Changes in the percentage of trained primary
teachers between 1999 and 2004
Note: Within each region, countries are listed in ascending order of the proportion
of trained teachers in 1999. See source table for detailed country notes.
Source: Annex, Statistical Table 10A.
indicator of teacher quality is thus of limited utility in cross-country comparisons. Moreover, as the example of Lebanon shows, changes in the percentage of trained teachers may be due to changes in the minimum teaching standards rather than in actual numbers of trained teachers. How many teachers are needed to reach UPE in each region?

Education systems need to adapt to changing demographic patterns, which differ by regions. Although the rate of population growth has slowed worldwide since 1990, the 2004 revision of the United Nations population estimates indicates that some countries will still face increasing primary school-age populations up to 2015, especially in sub-Saharan Africa, the Arab States, and South and West Asia. In Central and Eastern Europe, Central Asia, and East Asia and the Pacific, by contrast, sharp declines in population growth will result in decreases in the number of school-age children. In Latin America and the Caribbean, and North America and Western Europe, the primary school-age population will be more or less stable.

How will national teaching workforces need to adapt to respond to these demographic challenges and guarantee UPE by 2015?

Figure 2.24 shows the percentage increase in numbers of teachers that selected countries will have to produce each year in order to achieve UPE while reducing their PTRs to 40:1. In sub-Saharan Africa the number of teachers will have to increase from 2.4 million in 2004 to 4.0 million in 2015, an average increase of 6% each year. Some countries, including Chad, the Part I I . M o n i t o r i n g E F A

In 2005, the UIS carried out a special survey on teachers in which it classified countries according to their minimum standards qualification for primary teaching. The results show a majority of countries
requiring either a post-secondary, non-tertiary qualification or a tertiary qualification, with the necessary minimum standard qualifications ranging from six months to three years after completion of the uppersecondary level (Figure 2.23).

In sub-Saharan Africa, and East Asia and the Pacific, a few countries require lower minimum qualifications. In the Congo, Burkina Faso, Mozambique and the United Republic of Tanzania, for instance, only lower-secondary education is required. Despite this low minimum qualification, some of these countries still have high proportions of teachers who do not meet the requirement. In the Congo, for example, only 57% of teachers have completed lowersecondary education.

Sources: UIS (2006b: p.52).

Box 2.3: What does it take to be a teacher? A comparative perspective

Lao PDR
Congo
Mozambique
Maldives
Burkina Faso
U. R. Tanzania
Nepal
Guinea-Bissau
Chad
Antigua/Barbuda
Saint Kitts/Nevis
Dominica
Benin
Cameroon
Grenada
Cape Verde
Gambia
St Vincent/Grenad.
Nicaragua
Mali
Panama
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Lower secondary (%)</th>
<th>Upper secondary (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sierra Leone</td>
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<td>Equat. Guinea</td>
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<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
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<td>Burundi</td>
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<td>Ethiopia</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rwanda</td>
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<tr>
<td>Viet Nam</td>
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<tr>
<td>Montserrat</td>
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<td>Bhutan</td>
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<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
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<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Vanuatu</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 20 40 60 80 100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Teachers with required qualifications (%)
Upper secondary

Guinea
Malawi
Kyrgyzstan
Guyana
Lebanon
Anguilla
Ghana
Myanmar
Bangladesh
Lesotho
Seychelles
Niger
Barbados
Saint Lucia
Eritrea
Togo
Tajikistan
Bolivia
Kenya
Botswana
Senegal
Swaziland
Syrian A. R.
Saudi Arabia
Indonesia
Tunisia
Cook Islands
Georgia
Fiji
Algeria
Belarus
Côte d'Ivoire
Gabon
Iraq
Mauritius
Papua N. Guinea
Serbia/Montenegro
Ukraine
Zambia
Post-secondary, non-tertiary
0 20 40 60 80 100
Teachers with required qualifications (%)
Figure 2.23: Percentage of primary teaching staff having the minimum academic qualification, 2004
Congo, Burkina Faso and the Niger, will need to recruit at least 10% more teachers each year than are currently available to meet the goal by 2015. Meeting this tremendous challenge may not be feasible in all cases, raising important questions about possible alternative models of education. For other countries, the percentage increases needed may seem relatively modest, but the absolute numbers involved are very high: Bangladesh, Ethiopia, Nigeria, Pakistan and Saudi Arabia combined need more than 65,000 additional teachers per year (UIS, 2006b). Although demographic patterns are important, the issue of teacher shortages goes beyond demographics and leads to the question of whether increased public spending is feasible. Opportunities in the labour market are opening up worldwide. They offer new outlets for existing and
Kuwait  
Neth. Antilles  
Oman  
Philippines  
Suriname  
Tonga  
Tertiary  
| 0 | 20 | 40 | 60 | 80 | 100 |
Teachers with required qualifications (%)  
S. Tome/Principe  
Cape Verde  
Nigeria  
Kenya  
Ghana  
Madagascar  
Cameroon  
Zambia  
Togo  
U. R. Tanzania  
Uganda  
Rwanda  
Gambia  
Comoros  
Senegal  
Malawi  
Guinea  
Benin  
Mozambique  
Burundi  
Ethiopia  
Eritrea  
Mali  
Burkina Faso  
Niger  
Congo  
Chad  
Syrian A. R.  
Morocco  
Jordan  
Egypt  
Oman  
Iraq  
Kuwait  
Qatar  
Palestinian A. T.  
U. A. Emirates
Saudi Arabia
Mauritania
Brunei Daruss.
Lao PDR
Cambodia
Nepal
Bangladesh
Pakistan
Afghanistan
Bahamas
Paraguay
Guatemala
France
United States
Israel
Luxembourg
Spain
Ireland
0 2 4 6 8 10 12 14
Average annual increase (%)
Sub-Saharan Africa
Arab States
East Asia and the Pacific
South and West Asia
Latin America and the Caribbean
North America and Western Europe
Figure 2.24: Annual percentage increase in numbers of primary teachers required to reach UPE in selected countries, 2004–2015
Source: UIS (2006b: Table A.2.6).
potential teachers, particularly qualified ones. Salary increases may be needed to recruit and retain teachers, but financing such increases could be difficult, as teacher salaries already represent 75% or more of public expenditure on primary education in a majority of the countries that need to increase teacher numbers to achieve EFA (see annex, Statistical Table 11). An alternative would be to reduce spending on other pedagogical components, such as textbooks or materials, which would jeopardize education quality.

Some countries have teacher shortages in certain groups. Particularly serious are shortages of female teachers in countries with low enrolment of girls, and of teachers from particular ethnic and social backgrounds. In several developing countries, more and better qualified teachers are usually found in urban areas, with serious shortages of qualified teachers in rural areas (Mulkeen, 2005). In some countries, high rates of teacher absenteeism can cause schools to close and students to be sent home or to join other classes (Box 2.4). Still others face problems of teacher migration (Global Campaign For Education, 2006). In several countries, the HIV/AIDS pandemic is affecting teacher supply through increased teacher mortality, health-related absenteeism, or both (Philander, 2006).

Learning and life–skills programmes
To monitor EFA goal 332 and the latter part of goal 433 remains a challenge. Both call for ‘equitable access’ to learning programmes that meet the needs of youth and adults. Yet, there is no common understanding of the types of structured learning activities that come under the umbrella of ‘learning and life-skills programmes’.

With the 2015 target year quickly approaching, it is increasingly important to examine more systematically the learning and life-skills programmes available to young people.
and adults, using more interpretive monitoring tools that reflect an understanding of the diversity and fragmentation of goals 3 and 4. Such an analysis also provides an opportunity to look at links between formal and non-formal education and learning.

Grasping the concept

One way to interpret goals 3 and 4 is to construct a framework for understanding them, for example through an analysis of learning needs, skills, key competencies and outcomes of learning.

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

33. ‘Achieving … equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults.’

34. Under goal 3 the expanded commentary of the Dakar Framework for Action states (Paragraph 36): ‘All young people should be given the opportunity for ongoing education. For those who drop out of school or complete school without acquiring the literacy, numeracy and life skills they need, there must be a range of options for continuing their learning. Such opportunities should be both meaningful and relevant to their environment and needs, help them become active agents in shaping their future and develop useful work-related skills’ (UNESCO, 2000a). The 2003/4 EFA Global Monitoring Report opted to identify and describe learning programmes for youth and adults in a more qualitative way, combining goals 3 and 4 (UNESCO, 2003a).

Under goal 4 the commentary states (Paragraph 38): ‘Adult and continuing education must be greatly expanded and diversified, and integrated into the mainstream of national education and poverty reduction strategies. The vital role literacy plays in lifelong learning, sustainable livelihoods, good health, active citizenship and the improved quality of life for individuals, communities and societies must be more widely recognized’ (UNESCO, 2000a).

Part II. Monitoring EFA

In Bangladesh, Ecuador, India, Indonesia, Peru and Uganda, researchers conducted unannounced visits to about 100 randomly selected public and private primary schools per country from October 2002 to April 2003. They counted the full-time teachers who were absent but were supposed to be on duty according to the school attendance book, and excluded those who were working another shift.

On average, 19% of teachers were absent, and in most cases the absences were unauthorized. More absences were recorded among head teachers, better-educated teachers
and older teachers than for their less educated and younger colleagues; and more males than females were absent. Teachers who were born in the area where they taught were less absent than those born elsewhere. Teacher absenteeism was not correlated with teacher salaries, alternative salary opportunities in the area or in-service or other recent training, or teacher inspections. Schools with better infrastructure had lower absenteeism rates, as did schools closer to ministry of education offices. Finally, contract teachers were more likely to be absent than civil-servant teachers, and teachers in private schools were as likely to be absent as those in public schools (except in India, where private-school teachers had lower absenteeism rates than public school teachers in the same village). Interestingly, the study also found that, overall, teachers were less absent, on average, than health workers.
Source: Chaudhury et al. (2005).
Box 2.4: Patterns of teacher absenteeism in six developing countries
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activities. A second way is to deconstruct the components of the goals, using a bottom-up, more inductive approach. This involves examining the categories of learning activities that are identified by countries and regions themselves as meeting adult and youth learning needs. Previous editions of the EFA Global Monitoring Report, while adopting this approach, have pointed to the difficulty of arriving at an overview of who is doing what in support of the learning needs of young people and adults (UNESCO, 2002, 2003). Taking this approach should involve examining both qualitative and (where available) quantitative data at national level. More systematic monitoring at country level should document youth and adult learning from the perspective of provision, participation and access, and should pose fundamental questions, such as what the learning outcomes are and what actions countries are taking to include the excluded.

Learners may be adults or out-of-school youth re-entering basic education, or they may be young people needing basic education, life-skills or livelihood skills. What characterizes the structured learning activities involved is a large diversity of provision and providers, including the public, private and civil society sectors as sole providers or in partnership. Figure 2.25 presents a conceptualization of these categories.

A first step in monitoring learning and lifeskills programmes is to investigate elements of provision, participation and access to non-formal learning activities at national or subnational level. Non-formal learning in Ethiopia is an interesting example because it is integrated into the national Education Sector Development Programme (Box 2.5).

Instruments for monitoring learning and life-skills programmes

There are great variations among regions and countries when it comes to developing monitoring systems for non-formal learning. The European Union has made progress in identifying key competencies that can be integrated into Member
States’ employment policies. Competencies are closely linked to developing a European Qualifications Framework (Council of the European Union, 2006). Botswana, Cape Verde, Namibia and South Africa have education policies that build bridges between formal and non-formal.

35. The Adult Literacy and Life Skills (ALL) survey and the OECD Definition and Selection of Key Competencies (DeSeCo) are examples of instruments developed to measure competencies. The ALL survey builds on foundation skills, including prose literacy, document literacy, numeracy and problem-solving. Additional skills assessed involve familiarity with the use of information and communication technology (Statistics Canada/OECD, 2005). The DeSeCo framework goes beyond assessment of skills. It defines ‘competencies’ as: ‘abilities to meet complex demands, by drawing on and mobilizing psychosocial resources (including skills and attitudes) in a particular context’. Competencies are classified into three broad categories: using tools (e.g. language, technology) interactively; interacting in heterogeneous groups; and acting autonomously (OECD, 2005b).

36. Life skills can be described as ‘a group of psychosocial competencies and interpersonal skills that help people make informed decisions, solve problems, think critically and creatively, communicate effectively, build healthy relationships, empathise with others and cope with and manage their lives in a healthy and productive manner’ (WHO, 2003). The Inter-Agency Working Group on Life Skills in EFA arrived at a minimum consensus that life skills are not a domain or subject, but cross-cutting applications of knowledge, values, attitudes and skills that are important in the process of individual development and in lifelong learning (UNESCO, 2004b).

Monitoring and assessment
Providers
Learning activities
Learners
Types of learners:
Young people, school leavers, learners with special needs, women, adults, rural/migrant populations
Types of monitoring/assessment:
Management information system, inspection, self-monitoring/peer review, external evaluation, national/regional qualification systems, national evaluation
Types of providers:
Community/mobile learning centres, schools, workplaces, media, libraries, private industry, social partners, civil society, international
non-governmental organizations
Types of learning activities:
Adult basic education, life-skills programmes,
livelihood skills/skills development, other nationally
defined non-formal learning activities

Figure 2.25: Core features of learning and life skills programmes
Source: Connal and Sauvageot (2005).
Ethiopia’s Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP III) calls for
increased access to adult and non-formal education in order to combat the
problem of adult illiteracy. Ethiopia focuses on three types of activities:
alternative programmes for out-of-school children aged 7 to 14; literacy
programmes for people over 15; and basic skills training for youth and
adults in Community Skill Training Centers (CSTCs). The youth and adult
functional literacy programme aims to reach 5.2 million learners by 2011,
while some 143,500 adults are to be trained in various skills in the
country’s 287 CSTCs. The government will formulate policy, develop
curricula and set standards for quality, professional assistance and access
to school buildings. Civil society is being encouraged to provide non-formal
education services (Ethiopia, Ministry of Education, 2005). While ESDP III
includes no key performance indicators for non-formal education, the
Ministry of Education has begun collecting data on participants in the
programmes.
Box 2.5: Ethiopia’s first efforts to monitor
provision and participation
learning. The policies have facilitated the establishment of national qualification frameworks and accreditation systems that recognize learning acquired previously (Katahoire, 2006).

Overall, however, reliable and timely national and internationally comparable data on nonformal education are generally difficult to obtain. To improve this situation, a non-formal education management information system, or NFE-MIS, has been developed, and several countries are using it on a pilot basis. The NFE-MIS is designed to generate reliable statistics for use by policy-makers and planners at national and subnational level. The strategy is to take an incremental approach, starting at subnational level, and provide countries with a tool to define their own conceptual frameworks for non-formal education (Connal and Sauvageot, 2005).

Two pilot projects, in the Indian states of Andra Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh, have developed, tested and implemented a set of internationally comparable monitoring and evaluation methodologies for producing national data on non-formal education. The Andhra Pradesh mapping exercise found twenty-five to thirty public and private agencies providing learning activities in NFE areas such as literacy, basic education for out-of-school children and youth (equivalency education), life skills, rural development, income generation training, non-formal higher education, religious education and leisure. A set of draft indicators was developed to measure access and participation, input, process, output, outcome and efficiency. One of the main conclusions was that India's approach to EFA was lacking in vision and policy for non-formal education. The lesson may be that it is more realistic to start small by developing NFE monitoring first at district level, where there is a great potential for using the indicators. Many agencies provide non-formal education and each has its own set of data. These flow vertically to higher levels, but virtually no
horizontal data sharing takes place (Mathew and Rao, 2004). Properly collected disaggregated data at lower levels can reveal areas of inequity in access to learning and education more easily than higher-level aggregate indicators. These examples reflect some of the complexity of monitoring learning and life-skills programmes. The 2008 EFA Global Monitoring Report will include a more systematic assessment of progress in meeting the learning needs of young people and adults.

Literacy: the challenge remains

Literacy was the focus of the 2006 EFA Global Monitoring Report, which advocated a threepronged strategy: UPE of good quality, greatly expanded literacy programmes for youth and adults, and more attention to literate environments. This section updates information on adult and youth literacy patterns and raises some issues about the monitoring of literate environments. As the 2006 Report emphasized, current cross-national literacy data, which are based on conventional measures, must be treated with caution since they tend to overestimate literacy levels in most countries. Until there are more direct, rather than indirect, assessments of individuals’ literacy skills, this will remain a problem.

Global patterns of adult literacy

About 781 million adults worldwide, 64% of them women, have yet to acquire minimal literacy skills. The increase from the figure of 771 million given in the 2006 Report reflects the inclusion of previously unavailable data for Afghanistan and changes in population estimates.38 The vast majority of adults denied the right to literacy live in South and West Asia, sub-Saharan Africa and East Asia. Unless national policy-makers and the international community join to make a concerted effort to significantly expand adult literacy programmes in the coming decade, by 2015 the number of adults without basic literacy skills will decline by only about 100 million worldwide, by current estimates (Table 2.16).

Between 1990 and 2000-2004, the global adult literacy rate rose from 75% to 82%. For
developing countries the literacy rate increased from 67% to 77%, mainly because of a marked reduction in the number of illiterates (by 94 million) in China, and a corresponding increase of almost thirteen percentage points in the national literacy rate. The average literacy rates improved in all regions, but remain particularly low in South and West Asia (59%), sub-Saharan Africa (61%), the Arab States (66%) and the Caribbean (70%). Despite increases in adult literacy rates of ten percentage points or more in the first two of these regions, the absolute numbers of illiterates continued to rise because of high population growth (Table 2.17).

Progress towards the literacy goal requires change in the countries with very high absolute numbers of illiterates and those with relatively 781 million adults have yet to acquire minimal literacy skills.

37. The NFE-MIS methodology was designed by UNESCO with assistance from the UNESCO Institute for Education (UIE, now the UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning (UIL)) and the UIS. Diagnostic studies have been done in Cambodia, India, Jordan and the United Republic of Tanzania.

38. The estimated number of adult illiterates in Table 2.16 is based on the 2004 revision of UN population estimates, while the data published in the 2006 Report were based on the 2002 revision.

Part I. Monitoring EFA
low literacy rates. Figure 2.26 examines progress in the ten countries with more than 10 million illiterates, which together account for about 70% of the world’s illiterate population. Literacy rates have increased in all ten countries, but population growth means that the illiterate population has declined in only the Islamic Republic of Iran, Egypt, Brazil, Indonesia and China, while it has increased in Morocco, Ethiopia, Pakistan and Bangladesh and is little changed in India.

39. Absent from this list is Nigeria, for which observed data are now more than twenty years out of date. Some evidence suggests that the number of adult illiterates in Nigeria could be more than 20 million.

42. Another minor exception is North America and Western Europe, where both the illiteracy rate and the number of illiterate youth have increased slightly.

Table 2.16: Estimated numbers of adult illiterates (age 15+) in 1990 and 2000–2004, and projections to 2015, by region

1. Data are for the most recent year available during the period specified.

Source: Annex, Statistical Table 2.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>% Female</th>
<th>1990 (000)</th>
<th>Percentage change 1990 to 2000-2004</th>
<th>2000-2004 to 2015</th>
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<td>63 780</td>
<td>657 64 684 160 65</td>
<td>-10.7 -12.4</td>
<td>857 407 63 770 255 64 674 244 65 -10.2 -12.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Developing countries</td>
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<td>64 9 062</td>
<td>63 9 318 75 -39.0 2.8</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>Developed countries</td>
<td>1 757 78 1 340 76 599 61</td>
<td>-23.7 -55.3</td>
<td>132 597 61 143 885 61 168 007 59 8.5 16.8</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Countries in transition</td>
<td>63 659</td>
<td>63 57 812 66 55 111 67</td>
<td>-9.2 4.7</td>
<td>569 79 382 72 232 57 -32.8 -39.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
<td>232 691</td>
<td>69 125</td>
<td>359 71 80 765 71</td>
<td>-46.1 -35.6</td>
<td>123 758 71 78 907 71 ... -36.2</td>
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<td>Arab States</td>
<td>1 600 57 1 858 54 ...</td>
<td>16.1</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>60 399 016</td>
<td>63 344 529 66</td>
<td>5.0 -13.7</td>
<td>41 838 57 38 572 55 26 225 54 -7.8 -32.0</td>
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<td>East Asia and the Pacific</td>
<td>35 637</td>
<td>55 25 198 54 ...</td>
<td>-29.3</td>
<td>2 935 51 1 027 46 ... -65.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>East Asia</td>
<td>11 324</td>
<td>64 6 312 62 2 422 63</td>
<td>-44.3 -61.6</td>
<td>11 494 75 9 320 79 6 871 78 -18.9 -26.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.17: Estimated adult literacy rates (age 15+) in 1990 and 2000–2004, and projections to 2015, by region

1. Data are for the most recent year available during the period specified.

Source: Annex, Statistical Table 2.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
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<td>Pacific</td>
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<tr>
<td>South and West Asia</td>
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<tr>
<td>Latin America and the Caribbean</td>
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<tr>
<td>Caribbean</td>
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<tr>
<td>Latin America</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>North America and Western Europe</td>
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<tr>
<td>Central and Eastern Europe</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPI</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Literacy rates (%)**

**GPI (F/M) Total Male Female**

**2000-2004**

**Literacy rates (%)**

**GPI (F/M) Total Male Female**

**2015**

**Literacy rates (%)**

**GPI (F/M)**
The most recent estimates indicate that in twenty-two countries the adult literacy rate is below 60% (see annex, Statistical Table 2). Fourteen are in sub-Saharan Africa (Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, the Central African Republic, Chad, Côte d’Ivoire, Ethiopia, Ghana, Guinea, Mali, the Niger, Senegal, Sierra Leone and Togo), four in South and West Asia (Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Nepal and Pakistan), three are Arab States (Mauritania, Morocco and Yemen) and one is in East Asia and the Pacific (Papua New Guinea). In most of these countries literacy rates have improved since 1990. If current trends continue, however, most will find it difficult to reach the EFA literacy goal by 2015 (Figure 2.27).

Gender disparities in adult literacy: women are the most affected.

Women account for 64% of the adults worldwide who cannot read and write with understanding a simple statement from their everyday life. This share is virtually unchanged from the 63% recorded in 1990. Globally, only 89 adult women are considered literate for every 100 literate adult men (i.e. the adult literacy GPI is 0.89). The regions with the lowest adult literacy GPIs are South and West Asia (0.66), the Arab States (0.72) and sub-Saharan Africa (0.77). The GPI in East Asia (0.93) is above the global average, while in the remaining regions gender parity has been achieved, on average. All regions have experienced increases in the GPI since 1990. The increases are especially notable in the three regions where both illiteracy rates and gender disparities are highest: sub-Saharan Africa, South and West Asia, and the Arab States (Table 2.17). Despite overall progress, significant disparities between adult men and women remain in some countries (see annex, Statistical Table 2). Gender disparities favouring men are especially prevalent in West and Central Africa; in Afghanistan, Bangladesh, India, Nepal and Pakistan, among countries of South and West Asia; and in Morocco and Yemen among the Arab States. In all these
cases the female literacy rate is less than two-thirds the male rate. Several cases exist, however, of gender disparities favouring women; examples are Jamaica (1.16) and Lesotho (1.23). This reverse trend is growing elsewhere in the world, particularly among younger cohorts.

Youth literacy

Literacy rates among the population aged 15 to 24 tend to be higher than for the overall population aged 15 and over (Tables 2.16 and 2.18), reflecting recent developments in school expansion. Youth literacy rates have increased in all regions since 1990, resulting in a decline in the number of illiterate youth, except in sub-Saharan Africa where the population is still growing rapidly. Gender disparities in youth literacy are generally less pronounced than those in adult literacy. However, the regional patterns are the same, with South and West Asia (GPI of 0.79), the 40. Recent adult literacy rates are missing for six countries that should be added to this list: Eritrea, the Gambia, Liberia, Mozambique, Nauru and Nigeria.

41. The previous Report discussed the fact that, while early formulations of the literacy goal by the international community emphasized the need to reduce both overall adult illiteracy and the disparity between male and female illiteracy rates, the EFA goal formulated at Dakar in 2000 read: ‘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.’ To better monitor national progress
in improving literacy, the EFA Global Monitoring Report Team decided to measure progress in terms of a reduction in the rate of adult illiteracy in accordance with an earlier formulation of the literacy goal (i.e. halving the level of illiteracy), rather than improving levels of adult literacy by 50% (UNESCO, 2005: 66.)

Part II. Monitoring EFA 1990-2000-2004

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Number of illiterates 1990</th>
<th>Literacy rates 1990</th>
<th>Change 1990 to 2000-2004</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>10140</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>38.7 52.3 13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>10150</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>-8.6  63.2 77.0 13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>17369</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>-13.3 82.0 88.6 6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>23791</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>-36.5 79.5 90.4 10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco, Isl. Rep.</td>
<td>19815</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>18.9 28.6 45.2 16.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>40817</td>
<td>48.8</td>
<td>19.6 35.4 49.9 14.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iran, Isl. Rep.</td>
<td>40405</td>
<td>52.5</td>
<td>30.0 34.2 42.6 8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>181331</td>
<td>87.0</td>
<td>-52.0 78.3 90.9 12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>273066</td>
<td>268.4</td>
<td>-1.7 49.3 61.0 11.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Number of illiterates Literacy rates 1990-2000-2004

Change 1990 to 2000-2004 (000) (000) (%)
Brazil
Indonesia
Ethiopia
Pakistan
Bangladesh
China
India
(\%)
1990
(\%)
2000-2004
(percentage points)
Change 1990
to 2000-2004
Million illiterates
634.6
543.3
Figure 2.26: Changes in adult literacy (age 15+) between 1990 and 2000–2004 in countries with more than 10 million illiterates
1. Data are for the most recent year available during the period specified. See the introduction to the statistical tables in the annex for a broader explanation of national literacy definitions, assessment methods, sources and years of data.
2. Brazil, Egypt, Ethiopia, Indonesia, Morocco, Islamic Republic of Iran.
Note: See source table for detailed country notes.
Source: Annex, Statistical Table 2.
Arab States (0.87) and sub-Saharan Africa being the regions with the greatest gender disparity in youth literacy (see annex, Statistical Table 2). Literate environments: neglected but necessary

Literacy is not only about individuals, but also about literate communities and societies. Indeed, as the 2006 Report argued, the motivation and proclivity to become literate are closely related to the quality of the literate environments at home, school and work, and in the wider community. The presence of printed, written and visual materials encourages adults to adopt and integrate an array of literacy skills and activities in their everyday lives. Access to books, magazines and newspapers significantly contributes to the reading and language achievement of students.

Chad
Niger
Guinea
Benin
Senegal
Ethiopia
C. A. R.
Côte d’Ivoire
Togo
Ghana
Burundi
Malawi
Rwanda
Uganda
D. R. Congo
Cameroon
Zambia
U. R. Tanzania
Madagascar
Kenya
Cape Verde
Swaziland
Botswana
Lesotho
South Africa
Mauritius
Namibia
Equat. Guinea
Sub-Saharan Africa
Mauritania
Morocco
Yemen
Sudan
Algeria
Egypt
Iraq
Tunisia
Saudi Arabia
Syrian A. R.
Oman
Bahrain
Qatar
Jordan
Bangladesh
Nepal
Pakistan
Papua N. Guinea
India
Lao PDR
Cambodia
Iran, Isl. Rep.
Malaysia
Myanmar
Guatemala
Nicaragua
Jamaica
Honduras
El Salvador
Bolivia
Dominican Rep.
Brazil
Malta
Turkey
Arab States
Asia
Latin America and the Caribbean
Europe
0 20 40 60 80 100
0 20 40 60 80 100
Adult literacy rates (%) Adult literacy rates (%)
Figure 2.27: Estimated adult literacy rates (age 15+) for 1990 and 2000-20041 and projections and targets for 2015
1. Data are for the most recent year available during the period specified. See the introduction to the statistical tables in the annex for a broader explanation of national literacy definitions, assessment methods, sources and years of data. Note: Only countries with literacy rates below 90% in 2000–2004 are included; they are presented in ascending order. See source table for detailed country notes. Source: Annex, Statistical Table 2.
### Table 2.18: Estimated literacy rates and numbers of illiterates among young adults (aged 15–24) in 1990 and 2000–2004, by region

1. Data are for the most recent year available during the period specified.

**Sources:** Annex, Statistical Table 2.

**World**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Literacy rates 1990 (%)</th>
<th>Literacy rates 2000-2004 (%)</th>
<th>Number of illiterates 1990</th>
<th>Number of illiterates 2000-2004</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Developing countries</td>
<td>84.3 87.3 157 212 138 973</td>
<td>80.9 84.8 156 410 138 083</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>-11.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developed countries</td>
<td>99.7 99.4 471 768</td>
<td>99.2 99.7 332 122 06</td>
<td>-0.2</td>
<td>63.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Countries in transition</td>
<td>67.5 72.9 30 468 36</td>
<td>66.6 82.5 14 426 9 426</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
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<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
<td>97.7 99.7 280 47 20</td>
<td>95.4 98.0 17 420 6 767</td>
<td>-83.3</td>
<td>-61.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arab States</td>
<td>95.0 99.0 17 420 6 767</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
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<th>Literacy rates ages 15-24 (%)</th>
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<td>62 / CHAPTER 2</td>
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</table>
In ages 15-24 (000)

In literacy rates

Percentage change

1990 to 2000-2004

In number of illiterates

Notwithstanding policy and scholarly interest in literate environments, the concept raises two formidable challenges. The first is conceptual and revolves around the question of what precisely constitutes a literate environment. The second involves issues of monitoring and assessment: how can literate environments be measured and compared across countries and over time?

An informative starting point is Easton (2006a; 2006b), who argues that literate environments are locations (spaces) that provide four interrelated types of opportunities for the application and use of literacy skills:

- Access to reading material of direct interest to the neoliterate: books, brochures, newspapers, magazines, messages, letters and other practical documents, whose existence presupposes publishing facilities and the use of relevant languages to reach diverse readers;
- Access to continuing education in one or both of two forms: (a) sequences of formal schooling to which the learner may accede by establishing equivalence between skills already acquired and a given level of the system — and by virtue of open or age-neutral enrolment policies; or (b) varieties of organized non-formal education (e.g. life-skills or livelihood training, short-term professional training and trade apprenticeship) that confer other skills or elements of knowledge of interest to the learner;
- Opportunities to assume new organizational roles and tasks in, for example, local governments, agricultural cooperatives or extension systems that require and exercise literate skills;
- Opportunities to establish and help manage business or non-profit endeavours that require and exercise literate skills.

The combination of all four types of opportunity — in varying forms and degrees — constitutes a truly
literate environment. Government can play an important policy role with regard to all four opportunity types. For example, policy towards libraries can enhance access to reading material and to continuing education. Cost-effective strategies to expand the reach of libraries (‘universities of the people’) have been undertaken, with the assistance of Book Aid International, in sub-Saharan Africa. The strategies include linking school libraries.

Box 2.6: What is a literate environment?

Moreover, in conjunction with the United Nations Literacy Decade (2003–12), the international community has underscored the social dimension of literacy, recognizing that ‘creating literate environments and societies is essential for achieving the goals of eradicating poverty, reducing child mortality, curbing population growth, achieving gender equality and ensuring sustainable development, peace and democracy’ (United Nations, 2001b). This initiative should nurture dynamic literate environments, especially in schools and marginalized communities, so that literacy will be sustained beyond the Literacy Decade. Box 2.6 discusses the conceptual and measurement challenges.

Overall progress towards education for all

The earlier sections of this chapter looked at the individual EFA goals. This final section considers where the world stands with regard to EFA as a whole, including through the EFA Development Index.
THE SIX GOALS: HOW ARE WE DOING? / 63

Where are we now
and how far have we come?
Now that information is available for the
school year ending in 2004, it is very clear
that considerable – but uneven – progress
has been made since Dakar:
Pre-primary enrolments are up, but not very
significantly. In some regions, pre-primary
education has become the norm (e.g. North
America and Western Europe, Latin America
and the Caribbean); in others it is still very
rare (e.g. sub-Saharan Africa). Other aspects
of ECCE are discussed extensively elsewhere
in this Report.
Access to primary school is improving, a fact
reflected in data on new entrants and on
primary enrolments, especially in the three
regions that were, and remain, farthest from
the goal: sub-Saharan Africa, South and West
Asia, and the Arab States. Primary school
progression and completion remain major
concerns, however, especially in these same
regions but also to some extent in Latin
America and the Caribbean. The lack of data
for a number of countries, mainly in sub-
Saharan Africa, that are or have recently
been affected by conflict also means the
global picture is not as positive as that
painted by examining only countries for
which data exist.
The number of children not in school has
dropped but remains much too high.
Moreover, there is some evidence that
countries which are getting within closing
distance of UPE are finding it very difficult
to succeed in the final stages of attracting
the most marginalized children and retaining
them through the full primary cycle.
Considerable progress is being made towards
gender parity, in particular in countries where
gender differences in education are still high,
but disparities remain predominant,
particularly in secondary education. About
two-thirds of countries with data available for
2004 have achieved gender parity in primary education; in the remainder, the disparities mainly favour boys. However, in only one-third of the countries with data available for secondary education has gender parity been reached at that level, and disparities in secondary are much more pronounced than in primary education; they can favour either girls or boys.

No major new information is available on learning outcomes, but new analyses of past assessments, together with a new evaluation report from the World Bank, confirm that quality remains a major issue, particularly for children from poorer backgrounds. Key teacher indicators suggest the same: while pupil/teacher ratios have generally improved slightly, they remain much too high, as do the proportion of teachers who are not qualified and trained, and the rate of teacher absenteeism. The issue of quality is not confined to the three regions with the greatest enrolment challenges. It is also a concern in East Asia and the Pacific, and in Latin America and the Caribbean.

The scope of the global literacy challenge remains much as depicted in the 2006 Report, which had literacy as its special theme: about one in five adults is still not literate (one in four adult women) and those who are not literate live mainly in South and West Asia, sub-Saharan Africa and East Asia.

Monitoring instruments remain to be developed for the learning needs of youth and adults, and for the literate environment. The number of children not in school has declined but remains much too high to community libraries, rotating boxes of books by motorbike among schools, setting up reading tents, helping children produce books for young and old, setting aside special reading corners for adult women and making libraries mobile with donkey carts and
camels (Makotsi, 2005). The existence of libraries and book publishing are key conditions for sustainable literate environments.

In addition to conceptual clarification, there is a need to develop clear indicators of literate environments and their multiple dimensions. For example, while government policies regarding formal education are quite explicit, official policies regarding the literate environment (e.g. on the production and publication of written texts, the housing and dissemination of information, the development of media outlets and the languages used in courts, schools and administration) are less explicit and considerably more complex to assess. Measures of the literate environment should also address the equity dimension: to what extent, and why, are some denied access to opportunities that constitute a rich literate environment?

Sources: Easton (2006a, 2006b); Makotsi (2005).
The EFA Development Index

The EFA Development Index (EDI) is a composite measure of a country’s situation with regard to the attainment of the EFA agenda. It was introduced in the 2003/4 EFA Global Monitoring Report and is updated annually. Ideally, it should include measures of all six EFA goals; currently, however, it focuses on the four most easily quantified: universal primary education (goal 2), proxied by the total primary net enrolment ratio; adult literacy (goal 4), proxied by the literacy rate for those aged 15 and above; gender parity and equality (goal 5), proxied by the gender-specific EFA index (GEI) which is an average of the GPIs for primary and secondary gross enrolment ratios and the adult literacy rate; quality of education (goal 6), proxied by the survival rate to grade 5.

The EDI gives equal weight to the four proxy measures of the four goals. Since each measure is expressed as a percentage, the EDI for a country ranges from 0% to 100% or, when expressed as a ratio, from 0 to 1, where 1 would represent the full achievement of EFA as summarized by the EDI. Appendix 1 to this Report gives a detailed explanation of the EDI’s rationale and methodology, together with detailed values and rankings for 2004. While 125 countries are included, data limitations mean that many countries are excluded. Several of these are in conflict or post-conflict situations and are likely to suffer from low levels of educational development. They include Afghanistan, Angola, the Central African Republic, the Congo, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Liberia, Sierra Leone, Somalia and the Sudan. The overall picture obtained from the EDI is thus informative but does not fully capture the global EFA situation.

Table 2.19 summarizes the results of EDI calculations for 2004 by region. Of the 125 countries:

Forty-seven have an EDI score of 0.95 and above and are categorized as having achieved,
or being close to achieving, the EFA goals. Most are in North America and Europe, but some are in Latin America and the Caribbean (six countries, including Barbados, Cuba and Chile) and Central Asia (four countries, including Kazakhstan and Kyrgyzstan). Fifty have an EDI value between 0.80 and 0.94. Spread across all regions, they display many combinations of the proxy measures. Sixteen of these countries have a total primary NER of at least 95%. Most of the fifteen Latin American countries in this category are there because of relatively low survival rates (the quality proxy). In the case of the Arab States, low adult literacy rates pull down the overall EDI. Most of the eight sub-Saharan African countries are in southern Africa or are small islands. From 2003 to 2004, the index increased in thirty-two countries and fell in seventeen in this category. Twenty-eight have an EDI score between 0.43 and 0.79. Two-thirds of these are in sub-Saharan Africa; some Arab States and countries in South and East Asia are also represented. Again, some countries have very high scores in one area (for instance, Bangladesh, Cambodia, India and Malawi have primary NERs above 95%), but in general there is a need for significant improvement on all EDI components. Burkina Faso, Chad, Guinea, Mali and the Niger, which are all in French-speaking West Africa, have scores below 0.60. Changes in the EDI are positive. 43. The total primary NER includes children of primary school age who are enrolled in either primary or in secondary education. 44. The literacy data used are based on ‘conventional’ assessment methods, and thus should be interpreted with
caution: they are not based on any test, and may overestimate the actual literacy level.

Part II. Monitoring EFA

Table 2.19: Distribution of countries by EDI values, by region, 2004

Source: Annex, Appendix 1, Table 1.

Sub-Saharan Africa
Arab States
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
South and West Asia
Latin America/Caribbean
N. America/W. Europe
Central and Eastern Europe

Total
19 8 1 28 45
4 11 1 16 20
2 3 1 6 9
2 6 2 1 11 33
3 4 1 9
18 3 3 24 41
2 1 6 19 26
2 8 7 17 20
28 50 19 28 125 203

Far from EFA:
EDI below 0.80
Intermediate position
EDI between 0.80 and 0.94
Close to EFA
EDI between 0.95 and 0.97
EFA achieved
EDI between 0.98 and 1.00

Subtotal sample
Total number of countries
projections reported in the 2006 Report. Those projections indicated that many countries were likely to achieve the EFA goals by 2015, but that a substantial group would not if trends did not accelerate. The countries most in danger of missing the goals are in sub-Saharan Africa, South and West Asia, and the Arab States. The considerable success achieved so far, particularly in these regions, demonstrates that further progress can be made. To do so requires that efforts be intensified. What is now particularly urgent is attention to:

all the goals – those for ECCE and adult literacy continue to receive less attention than those to do with schooling, in part reflecting the Millennium Development Goals’ emphasis on primary education and on gender;

quality at all levels – now that most children in the world are enrolled in primary school, it is essential for them to acquire basic skills;

including children and adults who are marginalized or excluded, and hence not enrolled in school or adult literacy programmes. Consideration of disadvantaged children is central to Chapter 3.

45. Of eighty-seven countries that had not achieved UPE by 2002 and for which projections were made, twenty were projected to achieve it by 2015, forty-four were seen as making good progress but insufficient to reach the goal by 2015, and twenty-three were considered at risk of not achieving the goal. Of seventy-three countries with adult literacy rates below 97% for which projections were made, only twenty-three looked likely to meet the goal. Sixty-three countries out of 149 had
achieved or would likely achieve gender parity at both primary and secondary education by 2015 and eighty-six were unlikely to achieve it.
Lesotho
Kenya
India
Cambodia
Morocco
Lao PDR
Mauritania
Bangladesh
Equat. Guinea
Rwanda
Ghana
Nepal
Djibouti
Senegal
Burundi
Eritrea
Yemen
Ethiopia
Mozambique
Mali
Burkina Faso
Niger
Chad
Lesotho
Kenya
India
Cambodia
Morocco
Lao PDR
Mauritania
Bangladesh
Equat. Guinea
Rwanda
Ghana
Nepal
Djibouti
Senegal
Burundi
Eritrea
Yemen
Yemen
| Country         | 17.0 | 10.4 | 7.5 | 15.6 | 9.0 | -2.7 | 8.9 | 6.5 | 1.7 | -0.4 | -2.4 | -0.5 | 14.1 | 8.9 | 2.8 | -4.0 | 3.0 | 2.5 | 5.8 | -1.0 | -1.1 | -1.2 | 3.1 | 0.797 | 0.797 | 0.789 | 0.774 | 0.746 | 0.741 | 0.730 | 0.722 | 0.708 | 0.686 | 0.682 | 0.668 | 0.665 | 0.646 | 0.646 | 0.644 | 0.642 |
Changes in the EDI between 2003 and 2004 could be assessed for 115 countries. For any given country, changes in the proxy measures are small from one year to another. Across the whole sample of countries, however, changes are in a positive direction and are greatest among those countries ranked lowest. From 2003 to 2004, on average, the index increased by 1.6% overall and by 4.5% among countries in the lowest EDI category. There are, however, important variations within the country categories. Of the forty-four countries in the top group, the index fell in fourteen; of the forty-seven countries in the middle group, it fell in seventeen; and of the twenty-four countries in the bottom group, it fell in nine. Apart from Zambia, all of the countries showing the greatest progress (an improvement in the EDI of 9% or more) were in the lowest group: Bangladesh, Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, Kenya, Mauritania, Mozambique and the Niger. The largest reductions were in Bahamas and the Dominican Republic. Of those countries in the lowest category, Rwanda had the largest reduction, of about 4% (Figure 2.28). Significant increases in the proxy measures have been recorded in individual countries, although in some cases, such as adult literacy, the increases result from new surveys providing better information than the previous estimates, while in other cases they reflect real annual positive change. The most important examples of actual progress are:

- Adult literacy: Niger, Burkina Faso and Egypt
- Total primary NER: Mozambique, Ethiopia, Kenya and Bangladesh
- GEI: Ethiopia and Mauritania
Survival to grade 5: Mauritania, South Africa, India, Zambia, Kenya, Ethiopia and Bangladesh.
Where we are going?
There is now huge momentum towards achieving EFA, especially the UPE goal. However even this goal is unlikely to be met by 2015 unless efforts are further accelerated. Most encouraging of all is that the greatest progress is occurring in the regions that are farthest from the goals, in part because so many countries in these regions entered the twenty-first century with a relatively shallow educational base.
No new projections have been carried out for this Report; the extra year of data it contains has not resulted in significant changes to the Figure 2.28: The EDI in 2004 and change since 2003
Note: Only countries with an EDI score below 0.800 are included.
Source: Annex, Appendix 1, Table 3.
PART II. Monitoring Education for All

Chapter 3 Tackling exclusion:
Side by side but worlds apart:
a boy on his way to school
in Phnom Penh, Cambodia,
passes by a child who scavenges
to earn a livelihood.
© AFP/Tang Chhin Sothy

66
Education for All, as conceived at the 2000 World Education Forum in Dakar, requires an inclusive approach that emphasizes the need to reach groups that might not otherwise have access to education and learning. This chapter offers some examples of policies and programmes that have been effective not only in advancing education generally, but more particularly in identifying and overcoming barriers that deprive marginalized groups of the same learning opportunities as others. A sound education plan is essential for promoting inclusion. Such plans require the equitable allocation of resources, sufficient numbers of trained and motivated teachers, and a comprehensive approach encompassing all the EFA goals.

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Chapter 3

Reaching the unreached: what do government plans say?

National education plans of forty-five countries, including the twenty with the highest numbers of out-of-school children, were reviewed to see which categories of children and adults governments consider marginalized (UNESCO/IEP, 2006).1

The groups of children and adults whom governments categorize as marginalized vary according to region. Girls and women are identified as the priority target group in sixteen sub-Saharan and four East Asian and Pacific countries. In South and West Asian countries, in the Arab States and in Turkey, governments have identified girls and women, children with special needs, working children, and migrant and nomadic families living in dispersed settlements and rural areas as target groups. In Latin America and the Caribbean, children of ethnic and linguistic minorities, and populations living in dispersed settlements or rural areas are identified as marginalized, along with some additional categories of girls, including pregnant teenagers. In a majority of countries, girls and children living in dispersed settlements in rural areas are mentioned most often as being marginalized, the former group by twenty-four countries and the latter by twenty-one. Other potential groups, such as orphans, HIV-positive children and child sex workers, are rarely singled out. Box 3.1 describes characteristics of children regarded as being particularly marginalized in Ethiopia, India, Nigeria and Pakistan.

The country plans contain many proposals to attract more children to school. One of the most common approaches (cited in twenty-two countries) is to reduce both the direct costs and the opportunity costs of education through measures such as the abolition of tuition fees and the provision of learning materials and uniforms, and the introduction of demandenhancing measures such as free school meals.
and scholarships. Eighteen countries list measures to address cultural obstacles to education, notably for girls, such as increasing the number of female teachers and ensuring that schools are girl-friendly. Eight countries, mostly in Latin America and the Caribbean, intend to introduce local languages into the curriculum. Another eight plan to raise demand for education through information campaigns targeted at parents and the wider community. National plans also discuss some of the key government strategies to overcome the many barriers faced by people living in remote areas. Fifteen plans identify increasing the number of schools accessible in remote locations as a key priority. Strategies also include building more boarding schools and local village schools, designing mobile classrooms and introducing bus services. In addition, six countries intend to introduce flexible school schedules and calendars, notably in areas where children work on farms. Programmes for educationally excluded youth are increasingly common (cited in twenty-five countries). These provide accelerated education for older children, usually those aged 9 to 14. For example, Senegal and Guatemala plan to introduce literacy courses coupled with vocational training or income-generating activities to allow early school leavers to catch up with formal education at the lower-secondary level. Country plans contain many proposals to attract more children to school. Ethiopia, India, Nigeria and Pakistan account for a significant proportion of the world’s out-of-school children. These countries’ education plans target particular groups of children as the most marginalized. Ethiopia: Over-age school children; pastoralist children; school dropouts; girls; working children; children in villages with no or distant schools; poor children. India: Working children; children who cannot
afford school fees; hard-to-reach groups such as children living in small settlements or remote areas where no schooling is available; children of migrant families; children in coastal fishing communities; children with special needs; girls; scheduled caste/scheduled tribe children; urban deprived children; children from minority groups; children living below the poverty line
Nigeria: Children of indigenous and nomadic populations; children enrolled in Koranic schools; disabled children; girls
Pakistan: Disadvantaged children in rural and urban areas, with an emphasis on out-of-school girls and illiterate girls and women; working children
Sources:

Box 3.1: Marginalized children in Ethiopia, India, Nigeria and Pakistan
1. The review was conducted for this Report by the UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning. It focused only on published government documents and did not necessarily include all planning documents, so it may not capture all government attention to the marginalized in all forty-five countries.

PART II. MONITORING EFA
Abolishing school fees or providing school fee waivers
Providing grants or scholarships for members of marginalized groups
Providing financial incentives for orphans and vulnerable children
Providing cash grants and supporting community-based efforts for child labourers
Providing bridging education for youths and adults
Offering programmes to meet the needs of children and young people in post-conflict situations
Offering education opportunities that respond to the needs of the disabled
Measure by the Government of Burundi abolishing primary school fees in 2005
The Gambia’s Scholarship Trust Fund for Girls Bursary programme in Swaziland
Baljyothi programme in Andra Pradesh, India, enabling children and youth to enter schools
Bolsa Escola (merged in 2004 with other income transfer programmes) cash grant programme in Brazil, providing income support to poor families to encourage school attendance
Equivalency education programmes in Indonesia giving young people and adults a second chance to obtain education
Educatodos community school programme in Honduras, giving youths and adults who dropped out a chance to complete basic education
Healing Classrooms Initiative in northern Ethiopia, providing support for the psychosocial and education needs of children in refugee camps
Inclusive Education Fund in Uruguay, integrating the disabled into mainstream education
Table 3.1: Some policies to tackle exclusion*
Reduce the direct costs of schooling
Create financial incentives, offsetting household costs, to stimulate demand for schooling
Create incentives to overcome the need for child labour
Provide non-formal education opportunities for youths and adults who have missed out on formal schooling.
Provide relevant education opportunities for children and youths affected by conflict.
Provide appropriate education opportunities for the disabled.

Policy goal: Type of intervention
Examples:

* The table indicates some of the main types of measures being used to lower barriers to education. They are not mutually exclusive and may be applied to other contexts or groups. For example, stipend programmes may be a viable strategy in conflict-affected contexts for demobilized children and youth.

TACKLING EXCLUSION: LESSONS FROM COUNTRY EXPERIENCE / 69

Legislative and constitutional barriers to education still exist in many countries.
Forty-three countries have no constitutional guarantee of free and compulsory basic education, while thirty-seven limit education to citizens and legal residents, discriminating against the children of migrants, guest workers and temporary residents.2 A birth certificate is still legally required for enrolment in many countries, denying access to those without the relevant documents (UNESCO, 2005b).3 Girls also suffer from specific discriminatory legislation: pregnant girls are routinely expelled from school in many African countries.

Tackling exclusion:4 promising policies and programmes

While many countries have made considerable progress in introducing policies that focus on the educational needs of marginalized children and youth, serious barriers to enrolment, retention and attainment persist. This section examines some key policies that have been used to overcome these barriers for disadvantaged groups, most notably the very poor and, in particular, girls, orphans and vulnerable children affected by AIDS, those engaged in child labour, youth who missed out on formal education, children and youth caught in armed conflict, and children with disabilities (Table 3.1). Some are universal (such as abolishing school fees) while others are targeted. Many of the examples
are elaborated on elsewhere in the chapter.

Lowering the cost of education to individual households

The number of children out of school in the poorest 20% of households is more than triple that in the richest 20% (UIS/UNICEF, 2005). Direct costs to households remain a significant barrier to primary school access and attainment in more than ninety countries. Direct costs include five types of fees (for tuition, textbooks, compulsory uniforms, parent-teacher associations or community contributions, and school-based activities such as exams). A survey of ninety-four 2. The figures are taken from the report of the Special Rapporteur on Education, UN Commission on Human Rights (2002). It is important to note that the lack of constitutional guarantees does not imply that education is not provided. Nonetheless, the existence of constitutional guarantees is a significant marker of the extent to which countries consider education to be a fundamental human right that should be protected.

3. Children may lack birth certificates for many reasons, which vary by country. A certificate is often not perceived as a fundamental right, or it may require a payment not all families can afford (see UNESCO (2005b) for a detailed discussion).

4. Exclusion results from interrelated factors such as poverty and economic deprivation, gender inequality, geographic and physical location, political and legal conditions, cultural factors, disease and health constraints. Some factors relate to the
availability of good schooling, its cost and the provision of learning resources. Others relate to household characteristics such as household income and parental motivation. Some causes of exclusion are general and interrelated; for example, girls who are out of school are also found in rural areas and many are infected or affected by HIV/AIDS. Other factors affect particular groups such as ethnic or linguistic minorities. See Sayed et al. (Forthcoming) for a discussion of the concept of exclusion in South Africa and India.
countries reveals that only in sixteen countries are none of these charged (World Bank, Forthcoming). Other household costs include transport and food. The relative importance of household expenses varies considerably (UNESCO, 2005b). Table 3.2 compares costs of various items in Malawi, Nigeria, Uganda and Zambia. In Nigeria and Uganda, transport is the largest cost item, while in Zambia it is food. In Viet Nam, household expenditure constitutes 44% of total public and private spending on primary education, a large proportion being for textbooks and uniforms. In India, household expenditure constitutes 43% of spending, with tuition and textbooks representing the largest share (Bentaouet-Kattan and Burnett, 2004).

Households’ ability to pay may be seasonal. In Zambia, the need for educational expenditure peaks between January and March. Not only are rural incomes at their lowest at that time, but also it is necessary to buy food and anti-malaria medicine.

Between 2000 and 2005 many countries abolished school fees, including Lesotho (2000), Timor-Leste (2001), the United Republic of Tanzania (2001), Cambodia (2001), Zambia (2002), Kenya (2003), Madagascar (2003), Benin (2004), Mozambique (2004), Viet Nam (2004) and Burundi (2005). In Kenya, 1.2 million additional students entered the school system after the measure took effect. In Burundi, almost 500,000 additional primary school pupils arrived to enrol on the first day of school, double the number anticipated. Removing school fees increases enrolment but also makes it necessary to plan for the surge in order to maintain adequate quality. To reduce the cost of education to parents and in response to the 1992 Constitutional provision of making education free and compulsory, the Ministry of Education and Sports in Ghana introduced, in 2004, a pilot capitation grants programme to forty selected deprived districts. The capitation grant was
provided to schools to abolish all school levies such as charges for school-based extracurricular activities. This programme was judged to be successful and as a result extended to all 138 districts in the country. By 2005, enrolments in basic education increased from 3.7 million to 4.3 million, an increase of about 16% (Ghana Educational Services, 2005).
Providing financial incentives can increase access for the marginalized

Many studies highlight the link between educational outcomes and poverty. For example, a longitudinal study of primary school attainment in rural areas of the Punjab and North West Frontier provinces in Pakistan concludes that economic constraints on households are a key factor in explaining high dropout rates. The sudden loss of remittances from a household member or the birth of an extra sibling both significantly increase the likelihood of dropout (Lloyd et al., 2006). Similarly, a 2002 survey of 1,000 rural and urban households in five regions of Ethiopia shows that household wealth is the major determinant of whether 8-year-olds are in school. Child enrolment is also affected by household size, birth order, livestock ownership and the ability of the household to absorb economic shocks (Woldehanna et al., 2005).

Between 2000 and 2005 many countries abolished school fees

5. The Young Lives study of childhood poverty in Ethiopia (Woldehanna et al., 2005) analysed data from a survey of 8-year-olds in twenty 'sentinel' sites in the Addis Ababa, Oromia, SNNP (Southern Nations, Nationalities, and People), Amhara and Tigray regions. The sentinel sites were targeted poor areas
identified through criteria for the government’s food insecurity designation.

**PART II. Monitoring EFA**


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<td>Tuition</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parentteacher association fees</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School development fund</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examination fees</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boarding fees</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uniforms/ clothing</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Books/ Supplies Transport</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Percentage of total annual household expenditure during primary education
Providing financial incentives for enrolment by offsetting household costs is, therefore, an excellent strategy to increase access for the marginalized. Examples of such targeted incentives include direct monetary transfers as well as cash stipends and scholarships or bursaries, as in Brazil, Colombia, Kenya, Mexico, Nicaragua and Pakistan. They can be conditional on specified levels of school participation, attendance or achievement. Financial incentives can also take the form of vouchers to be exchanged for specific education or health services.

The effects on primary school enrolment and retention are greater in countries with relatively low enrolment, such as Bangladesh and Nicaragua, than in those with a higher enrolment ratio, such as Mexico. Financial incentives can also have a positive effect on secondary school enrolment, particularly for girls. Evidence of the impact of large-scale cash incentive programmes is limited mainly to Latin America (Chapman, 2006). Well-targeted and -managed cash incentive programmes can be important equity-promoting measures.

Financial incentives help orphans and vulnerable children enrol. An orphan is 13% less likely to attend school than a non-orphan. In sub-Saharan Africa just under 10% of children under the age of 17 have lost at least one parent to HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS, 2006). In Kenya, children’s school participation fell by 5% upon the death of a father and by 10% upon the death of a mother (Evans and Miguel, 2005). Governments and NGOs in countries with high rates of HIV-prevalence have introduced measures that support the educational needs of orphans. Swaziland has a comprehensive bursary programme (Box 3.3). In Zambia, where more than 15% of children under 15 have lost at least one parent to HIV/AIDS (DeStefano, 2006), a programme transferring cash to the most vulnerable households (often grandparents caring for children affected by AIDS)
reduced school absenteeism by 16% in nine months (Chapman, 2006). In addition to directly affecting school attendance, this type of programme has important indirect effects on education by improving young children’s health, nutrition and living conditions.

6. Less rigorous evidence is available for other low-income countries, though some research on scholarship programmes has been done in the Gambia, Bangladesh, Indonesia and Malawi, among others (Chapman, 2006). Well-targeted and -managed cash incentive programmes can be important equity-promoting measures.

Food
Private tutoring
School reports
Sport fund
Maintenance fees
Furniture, tools, etc. Other
Malawi
Nigeria
Uganda
Zambia
Nigeria
Uganda
Zambia
Percentage of students whose households spent money on each item for primary education
Percentage of total annual household expenditure during primary education
In the Gambia, the Scholarship Trust Fund for Girls is designed to increase girls’ access to, retention in and performance during upper basic and secondary education. In low-income regions, the fund awards full scholarships for tuition, books and examination fees to one-third of the girls in schools with low enrolment. In less deprived regions, 10% of the girls who excel in science, technology and mathematics receive full scholarships. In 2004, more than 13,800 lower-secondary girls and more than 2,600 upper-secondary girls received scholarships. As a result of the programme, girls’ enrolment in three regions rose from 32% in 1999 to 65% in 2004/05 at lower-secondary level and from 11% to 24% at upper-secondary level. Source: World Bank (2005b).
Box 3.2: Stipends and scholarships increase education access for girls
Eliminating or reducing the need for child labour can improve school attendance. Child labour is directly related to widespread chronic poverty. While its incidence has declined in recent years, there are still around 218 million child labourers, three-quarters of whom are under age 15 (ILO, 2006). It is estimated that almost 60% (126 million) are victims of what are deemed the worst forms of child exploitation. There are two principal ILO conventions that directly address the issue of child labour: the Minimum Age Convention of 1973, ratified by 147 countries, and its accompanying recommendation; and the Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention of 1999, which has been ratified by 162 countries. The Minimum Age Convention is significant because it compels countries to pursue national policies to abolish child labour. Moreover, it sets the minimum age at which children can work, defining it as the age at which compulsory schooling ends in any country, and stating that no child under age 15 should be working. The 1999 Convention compels all signatory countries to eliminate trafficking of children, debt bondage, child slavery and prostitution, and other illicit forms of child labour.

Many countries have introduced cash subsidy programmes to increase school enrolment and attendance by removing or reducing the need for children to work. Brazil, for example, has several programmes designed to reduce poverty and inequality by linking a minimum level of income support for poor families to compliance with key human development objectives, such as school attendance and health visits. The Bolsa Escola programme was designed to stimulate regular school attendance, reduce child labour and increase educational attainment through financial incentives to poor families. By 2002 almost all Brazilian municipalities had joined the programme, which provided assistance to the
households of 5 million children (Cardoso and Portela Souza, 2003). In 2004, Bolsa Escola was merged with several other income transfer programmes to form the Bolsa Família programme. Since the early 1990s child labour has declined and school attendance increased. In 2000, 92% of girls and 84% of boys aged 10 to 15 attended school and did not work, while 5% of girls and 9% of boys attended school and worked. The cash transfer programme has enabled children who previously were out of school and working to attend school (Cardoso and Portela Souza, 2003).

Swaziland has the world’s highest prevalence of HIV and AIDS, with an overall rate of HIV infection among adults (aged 15 to 49) of 42.6% in 2004, compared to 16.1% a decade earlier. The annual growth rate in the number of orphans has doubled since 2000. The impact on education is likely to be considerably greater than in many other countries because Swaziland still levies fees for primary and secondary schooling. With the incidence of poverty at around 75% in rural areas and 50% in urban areas (in 2000/2001), school affordability is a critical issue. Faced with these conditions, the government in 2002 began to provide bursaries for orphans and other vulnerable children attending primary and secondary schools. Total funding increased very rapidly, from US$0.22 million in 2002 to US$7.5 million in 2004. By 2005, five out of six double orphans and three out of four paternal orphans received bursary support and enrolment and retention rates have either improved or remained stable, though it had been widely anticipated that the HIV/AIDS pandemic would result in significant declines. Concerns remain, however, about the effectiveness and efficiency of the programme. Some eligible children have not applied because they cannot furnish their own birth certificate and the death certificate(s) of their parent(s). Also, only children already enrolled can receive bursaries, a condition originally justified because there were not enough classrooms and teachers to accommodate more children. Mismanagement and abuses of bursary funds have been widespread, including claims for non-existent children, multiple claims for the same student, double sponsors, duplication of claim vouchers, claims for non-vulnerable children of teachers, civil servants and local politicians, over-inflation of school fees by head teachers and generally very poor accounting practices. Poor
selection criteria and procedures have compounded these problems. Moreover, some school administrators and teachers are not sympathetic to these children's needs. If total school charges exceed the value of the bursary, as is frequently the case, children who cannot pay the balance may be sent home. Source: Bennell (2005).

Box 3.3: Bursaries for orphans and vulnerable children: the Swaziland experience

7. Child labour is defined by the 1973 ILO Convention 138 which sets the minimum age for employment at no less than the age of completion of compulsory schooling and no less than 14 years.

8. There were 246 million child labourers in 2000.

9. The Bolsa Familia programme offers a single benefit to poor households that meet conditions such as school attendance. While each of the former programmes had its own emphasis (e.g. promoting schooling, health care or nutrition), all provided cash transfers to roughly the low-income group. Evaluations of the new programme are not yet available.

PART II. Monitoring EFA
Community efforts that provide flexible and responsive forms of schooling are also important strategies to tackle child labour, as the example of the Baljyothi programme in India demonstrates (Box 3.4).

A second chance at learning for adults and young people

Many adolescents are not in school and do not benefit from any non-formal learning opportunities. In Bangladesh, India, Nepal and Pakistan alone, this is the case for some 250 million youngsters aged 11 to 18 (Robinson, 2004). Adults and young people need a second chance to access education. A variety of nonformal ‘bridging’ programmes offer equivalency education to people who were once in primary school but did not complete the cycle. For example:

Indonesia’s 2003 Education Law provides for non-formal education to replace, complement and/or supplement formal education (Indonesia, 2003). Equivalency education offers programme packages equivalent to primary, lower-secondary and upper-secondary education. In 2005, over 500,000 persons participated. However, fewer than 25% of the participants took the national examinations that year (Indonesia Ministry of National Education, 2005; Yulaelawati, 2006).

Uganda has a three-year programme of Basic Education for Urban Poverty Areas, offering non-formal basic education to urban out-of-school children and adolescents aged 9 to 18. It is module-based and contains adapted versions of the main subjects taught in primary schools, as well as pre-vocational training (Katahoire, 2006).

Since the mid-1990s India’s Open Basic Education (OBE) programme has targeted neoliterates who have successfully completed literacy and post-literacy programmes. Participants may choose to learn in Hindi, English or a regional language, and there is no upper age limit. The programme offers
education on three levels, each equivalent to a level of basic education in the formal school system.11 Participants may take examinations whenever they feel prepared. The Ministry of Human Resource Development and employers recognize the OBE certificate, which may also be used to enter secondary and post-secondary education.

In 1995, the government of Honduras established Educatodos, an alternative programme that targets the 540,000 out-of-school youth and adults (age 19 or above) who have not completed nine years of basic education. It operates in a variety of locations, including factories, microenterprises, NGOs, government installations, vocational centres and schools, making it easy for learners of all ages to attend. All learning is student-centred. A flexible schedule requires an average of two and a half hours of group work per day. It draws on volunteer facilitators, from varied academic and economic backgrounds, as teachers. They receive a government stipend and transport and food allowances.

Educatodos has been highly successful in raising the educational profile of out-of-school youth and adults. Since its inception it has enrolled more than 500,000 students in its primary school programme (grades 1 to 6). The completion rate for this programme averaged 61% between 1996 and 2003 (Schuh-Moore, 2005).

The strength of non-formal education programmes for youth and adults is that they are adaptable to local contexts. They are effective.


11. OBE level A is equivalent to Classes 1-3, level B is equivalent to Classes 4-5, and level C to Classes 6-8 of the
formal school system. A variety of nonformal ‘bridging’ programmes offer equivalency education to people who were once in primary school but did not complete the cycle.

Andhra Pradesh has more working children than any other state in India. By 2000, 20% of children aged 5 to 14 in the state worked full time, and 60% of these had never attended school. Just over half were girls. The state government collaborated with an NGO, Pratyamnya, in an effort to provide education opportunities to all working children aged 10 to 14. The Baljyothi programme is the result.

Baljyothi has opened about 250 schools for working children in slum areas that lack public schools. It relies on strong community backing and uses a variety of strategies to attract children. The schools follow the government curriculum so that pupils can eventually transfer to public schools; 1,110 did so in 2000, five years into the programme. By then, over 31,000 children were enrolled in Baljyothi schools — 18,473 girls and 12,696 boys.

In the slum of Borabanda, where Baljyothi started, only 200 children were out of school in 2000, down from 6,000 when the programme began.

Source: Jandhyal (2003).

Box 3.4: Tackling child labour in Andra Pradesh: the Baljyothi programme
when they are community-based and combine the use of local languages, relevant curriculum and productive work. They face two challenges, however. First, it is important to ensure that they do not place an increased financial burden on the poorest areas and most disadvantaged populations (Rose, 2003). Second, non-formal education is still often perceived as second-rate education, with less-qualified teachers and staff, and inadequate political and financial support. Providing relevant education for children and youth affected by conflict

Although the number of armed conflicts is in decline worldwide, and wars cause fewer victims today than was the case twenty years ago (Human Security Centre, 2005), armed conflict continues to have terrible consequences on civilian populations: the collapse of law and security, human rights violations, the spread of disease, malnutrition, and an absence of basic education and health services. Most wars are fought in poor countries, with Africa and Asia bearing the heaviest burden (Project Ploughshares, 2005). At the beginning of this century, the battle-related toll in sub-Saharan Africa was greater than the combined deaths and injuries in all other regions (Human Security Centre, 2005).

While the downward trend in military conflicts has led to a continuous reduction in the world’s refugee population, currently estimated at 19 million (UNHCR, 2006), it has not had a similar effect on the scale of internal displacement. As of December 2005 some 24 million people were displaced within their own countries as a result of conflict (Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, 2006).

The nature of conflict is changing. New forms of war (Singer, 2004), practised by armies and warlords alike, target children and youth, seeking to turn them into soldiers (see map page 75). As more young people are drawn into long-term conflicts, education offers an increasingly
effective way to reduce tensions, and promote tolerance and other values conducive to peace. The provision of basic education services during and after conflict must take into account the very specific experiences of war and prepare children and youth for peace and national reconciliation. In Burundi, a peace education programme aims to convey values such as confidence, respect, tolerance and solidarity to teachers and students alike. These values are integrated into primary school curricula in subjects such as the Kirundi language, art, environmental education, music and sports, and at the secondary level into civics education (Rwantabagu, 2006).

Demobilized child soldiers are another challenge. In Sierra Leone, for example, the United Nations disarmed and demobilized some 48,000 former combatants, including nearly 7,000 children (Becker, 2004). This involved bringing former child soldiers to a demobilization area and immediately transferring them to interim care centres, where they received medical and psychological care and education while efforts were made to reunite them with their families. Children aged 10 to 14 took part in a six-month Rapid Response Education Programme that allowed them to resume their primary education. A Community Education Investment Programme introduced by UNICEF helped community schools provide access. Child protection agencies monitored the process (Caramés et al., 2006). 13

Significant numbers of girls are involved in many armed conflicts, but few are included in demobilization programmes. Perhaps girls are overlooked because they do not serve in direct combat, or they may be reluctant to participate in rehabilitation because of the stigma of sexual abuse that is a common result of conflict (Becker, 2004). Of the 6,845 child soldiers demobilized in Sierra Leone, only 506 were girls (Caramés et al., 2006).

Reaching the world’s disabled
The estimated 600 million disabled persons in the world are limited by both physical and social
barriers from participating fully in social and cultural life. Some 80% of the disabled live in developing countries. Estimates indicate that more than one-third of out-of-school children have a disability, and in Africa, fewer than 10% of disabled children are in school (Balescut and Eklindh, 2006). Only about forty-five countries in the world have legislation aimed at assuring the rights of people with disabilities (Schindlmayr, 2006).

Children with disabilities have the same right to education as all children, as recognized by the Convention on the Rights of the Child, the United Nations Standard Rules for the Equalization of Opportunities and the Salamanca Statement on Special Needs Education (Balescut and Eklindh, 2006). A group is working to draft a human rights

New forms of war practised by armies and warlords alike, target children and youth, seeking to turn them into soldiers

An armed conflict is defined as a political conflict in which armed combat involves the armed forces of at least one state (or one or more armed factions seeking to gain control of all or part of the state), and in which at least 1,000 people are killed by the fighting during the course of the conflict (Project Ploughshares, 2005).

The Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration programme described here was managed by UNICEF and carried out in
collaboration with Caritas, the International Rescue Committee, Handicap International and Save the Children UK. It was funded by Ireland, Japan, the Netherlands, Norway, Switzerland and UNICEF.

PART II. Monitoring EFA
Developing sound education plans

The preceding section highlighted promising examples of policies and programmes to remove the barriers that prevent the world’s poorest and most disadvantaged children from getting an education. Among the difficulties countries face in carrying out such programmes are the significant administrative cost required to manage them effectively, and the risk of corruption and abuse. Even more importantly, the success of such programmes depends on their being integrated within some kind of comprehensive education plan, which may entail a complete overhaul of the education system itself. To successfully meet the education needs of the marginalized requires multi-pronged strategies. For example, Bangladesh has increased access for girls through a combination of several strategies, including expansion of school availability, encouragement of pluralism in education provision both by public schools and those run by faith-based groups and NGOs, and the use of targeted interventions for girls – such as stipends – that provided incentives by alleviating demand-side constraints such as the real and perceived high costs of education. Bangladesh has been able to expand the education of girls because its strategies are holistic, multi-pronged and coupled with a commitment to systemic education reform (UNESCO, 2005b).

Overcoming exclusion is not accomplished through a single intervention. Rather, it requires an integrated and comprehensive approach to education planning. What, then, are some key features of a sound education plan? An adequate financial framework and funding, the availability of effective teachers and the capacity to expand secondary education, which are discussed below.

Financing EFA: more and better-targeted spending needed

The levels of public funding for education as a whole and primary education in particular are key
indicators of government commitment to the goal of education for all. While there are no clear global benchmarks, most developed countries with advanced education systems typically spend between 5% and 6% of GNP on education. In 2004, over half the 124 developing countries for which data are available were spending less than 4.8% of GNP. In fifteen of these – including several that are far from the EFA goals, such as the Niger and Pakistan – the share was below 3%, and the share was lower even than in 1999 in six of these countries (Figure 3.1). There are exceptions to this pattern. The share of education was over 7% of GNP in Cape Verde, Kenya, Kuwait, Lesotho, Malaysia, Namibia and Tunisia. The overall trend in education expenditure since 1999 has been mixed. Out of the 106 countries with comparable data for both 1999 and 2004, about two-thirds increased public spending on education as a share of GNP, some considerably (Figure 3.2). Increases of 30% or more were registered in eighteen countries. On the other hand, education spending as a percentage of GNP fell in forty-one countries, particularly in Latin America (where the share fell in twelve out of the twenty-one countries with data) and South and West Asia (three out of the five with data). The share of government expenditure devoted to education is one indicator of its importance in relation to other national priorities. The share ranges from 10% to more than 40% in the vast majority of the countries with data available for 2004 (see annex, Statistical Table 11). Education accounts for one-quarter or more of the government budget in the Comoros, Kenya, In 2004, over half the 124 developing countries for which data are available were spending less than 4.8% of GNP. 14. Barbados, Benin, Burundi, Cambodia,
Cyprus, Georgia, Kenya, the Lao People’s Democratic Republic, Lebanon, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Mexico, Poland, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Tajikistan, Vanuatu and Zambia.

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Uruguay is regarded as a pioneer in Latin America in the integration of physically impaired children into regular classrooms. It formulated its special education policy in 1985, leading to many innovative and progressive initiatives, such as the elimination of classes restricted to children with disabilities. These classes were replaced by mainstream classes offering individual support. Itinerant special education teachers have been introduced to support the learning needs of the disabled students in these classes. Through this initiative, 3,900 children with disabilities have been successfully integrated into regular schools, where they received personalized support.

Uruguay has created an Inclusive Education Fund, which promotes inclusive practices in regular schools to help them to integrate children with disabilities. The country’s holistic policy aims to ensure that all children receive a good quality basic education. Despite recent economic problems, Uruguay has continued to fund its inclusive special education policy.

Source: Skipper (2005).

Box 3.5: Mainstreaming children with disabilities: Uruguay’s example
Malaysia, Morocco, Oman, Thailand and Tuvalu. At the other end of the spectrum are countries such as the Dominican Republic, the Gambia, Indonesia, Jamaica and Panama, which allocate less than 10% of central government expenditure to education. About three-quarters of the thirty-six countries with relevant data available increased the share of education in total government expenditure between 1999 and 2004 (Figure 3.3). In Cameroon, Cuba, Georgia, Nicaragua, Tajikistan and Ukraine, the increases were about 30% or more. Substantial decreases (more than a 15% reduction in the share of education) were registered in Azerbaijan, Colombia, the Gambia, India and Peru. In a majority of the countries that have given a relatively higher priority to education in public spending since 1999, the consequences for the education system have proved to be positive, in the form of improvement in the primary education GER. Other countries, such as India, have managed to increase coverage with no major change in the share of public spending on education and in several countries the share has increased but the GER has decreased. Thus, the efficiency of public spending is as important as the share of education in the total. The previous section focused attention on the need for government to remove or reduce household costs of education, such as school fees. Many governments have done so. However, such initiatives can have serious implications for public finances (Box 3.6). Balanced spending across levels and regions is needed. While the percentages of GNP and total government expenditure allocated to education are important indicators of commitment, equally significant is the distribution of education spending across the different levels of the system, and across regions and subregions. Most of the countries for which data are available allocated less than 50% of their total
education expenditure to primary education in
Figure 3.1: Countries spending less than 3% of GNP
on education, 2004
Source: Annex, Statistical Table 11.
Total public expenditure on education as % of GNP
Dominican Rep.
Pakistan
Gambia
Bangladesh
Cambodia
Niger
Uruguay
Lao PDR
Lebanon
Kazakhstan
Togo
Albania
El Salvador
Tajikistan
Zambia
0 1 2 3 4 5
2004 (increase since 1999)
2004 (decrease since 1999)
1999
Figure 3.2: Total public expenditure on education as a share of GNP
0 2 4 6 8 10 12 14
0
2
4
6
8
10
12
14
Latin America/Caribbean
North America and Western Europe
Central and Eastern Europe
South and West Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
Central Asia
Arab States
Sub-Saharan Africa
Total public expenditure on education as % of GNP, 2004
Total public expenditure on education as % of GNP, 1999
Lesotho
Guyana
Saint Lucia
Eritrea
Congo
Gambia
Kazakhstan
Togo
Marshall Is
Kiribati
Malawi
Mexico
Burundi
Benin
Lao PDR
Cambodia
Vanuatu
Malaysia
St Vincent/Grenad.
Public expenditure on education as % of GNP has increased since 1999
Public expenditure on education as % of GNP has decreased since 1999
Source: Annex, Statistical Table 11.
This is particularly worrying for those still far from the EFA goals, such as Eritrea and Kuwait. Public spending on primary education as a percentage of GNP is below 2% in three quarters of the ninety countries with data available – an alarming figure in those countries not on track to achieve UPE. Countries in that category spending less than 2% include Bangladesh, the Islamic Republic of Iran and Nepal in South and West Asia and sixteen countries in sub-Saharan Africa (among the countries with data).

The competition for resources between primary and secondary education in particular is likely to intensify, as the spread of UPE will require expansion at secondary level (discussed later in this chapter). This shift is already perceptible in countries that have reached or are close to reaching UPE (Figure 3.6). In some countries where primary education is not yet universal, however, such as Bangladesh and Nepal, the share of primary education has nevertheless fallen since 1999. Even if primary education is the priority in most countries, expenditure at this level worldwide still seems far from what is required to accelerate progress towards EFA.

Teach for EFA: a crucial but undervalued resource

Chapter 2 showed that the serious shortage of trained teachers is a barrier to reaching the EFA goals, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa. Key strategies exist to enhance the motivation of teachers, particularly those working in rural areas.

PART II. Monitoring EFA

Figure 3.3: Change in public expenditure on education in selected countries and change in GER in primary education between 1999 and 2004

Sources: Annex, Statistical Tables 5 and 11.

Cuba
Colombia
Peru
Brazil
Azerbaijan
Ukraine
Cameroon
Togo
Gambia
Tajikistan
Nicaragua
South Africa
India
Morocco
0
-10
-15
-5
5
10
-20 -10 10 20 30
Change in public expenditure
on education as % of total
government expenditure
(percentage points)
Change in GER
in primary
education
(percentage
points)
Latin America and Caribbean
North America and Western Europe
Central and Eastern Europe
South and West Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
Central Asia
Arab States
Sub-Saharan Africa
Public expenditure on
education as % of total
government expenditure
has increased since 1999
GER in primary education
has increased since 1999
The United Republic of Tanzania
abolished school fees in 2001,
resulting in a large increase in
enrolment but also forcing up public
spending very rapidly to offset the
lost fee revenue. Public spending on
education grew from 2.1% of GDP in
2000 to 4.3% in 2004 (Figure 3.4).
Tanzanian spending on education as a percentage of GDP and of overall public spending shows the increasing importance of education in its national priorities particularly in light of the removal of school fees.

Box 3.6: Education financing and the removal of school fees: the Tanzanian experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Public expenditure on education as % of GDP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1995/96</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996/97</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>1997/98</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>2000/01</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001/02</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002/03</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003/04</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3.4: Priority given to education in public spending by United Republic of Tanzania, 1995/96–2004/05
Teacher motivation and incentives

There is growing concern that existing incentives (both monetary and non-monetary) are seriously inadequate both to recruit teachers and to keep teachers fully committed to their work in the regions with the greatest EFA challenges. That is the main finding of research in Ghana, India, Lesotho, Malawi, Sierra Leone, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia (Bennell and Akyeampong, 2006). In five of these countries, well over one-third of teacher respondents indicated that teachers at their school were ‘poorly’ or ‘very poorly’ motivated. Motivation levels among primary school teachers varied considerably within each country. What amounts to a teacher-motivation crisis has far-reaching consequences for EFA. A key finding is that working in rural schools is more difficult and demotivating than teaching in urban schools, mainly because of poor living and working conditions. The unattractiveness of living and working in rural areas means most teachers

Dominican Rep.
El Salvador
Peru
Nicaragua
Argentina
Chile
Antigua/Barbuda
Costa Rica
Paraguay
Belize
Guyana
Colombia
St Kitts/Nevis
Jamaica
Grenada
Saint Lucia
Mexico
Bolivia
Barbados
St Vincent/Grenad.
Greece
Spain
Malta
Italy
Switzerland
Ireland
Netherlands
Austria
France
Portugal
Finland
Cyprus
Norway
Israel
Iceland
Denmark
Romania
Rep. Moldova
Slovakia
Croatia
Bulgaria
Czech Rep.
Estonia
Belarus
Hungary
Poland
Latin America and the Caribbean
North America and Western Europe
Central and Eastern Europe
Eritrea
Zambia
Senegal
Congo
Burundi
Mauritius
Uganda
Malawi
Seychelles
South Africa
Cape Verde
Swaziland
Kenya
Lesotho
Mauritania
Oman
Morocco
Kuwait
Tunisia
Tajikistan
Azerbaijan
Kyrgyzstan
Mongolia
Lao PDR
Philippines
Rep. of Korea
Tonga
Australia
Malaysia
Fiji
New Zealand
Marshall Is
Bangladesh
Nepal
Iran, Isl. Rep.
Sub-Saharan Africa
Arab States
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
South and West Asia

0 2 4 6 8 10 12
Public current expenditure as % of GNP
Public current expenditure as % of GNP
Primary education
Other levels of education

Figure 3.5: Primary education as a share of total spending on education in selected countries

Note: Countries are ranked in increasing order of total spending on education as % of GNP.

What amounts to a teachermotivation crisis has far-reaching consequences for EFA
strongly resist rural postings. Consequently, rural schools have relatively fewer qualified and experienced teachers (Table 3.3), teacher turnover is higher and, with higher vacancy rates, teachers have to work harder than their urban colleagues. Box 3.7 describes strategies to increase incentives for rural teachers. Several Latin American countries have introduced incentive strategies to increase teacher supply and improve the performance of teachers in general, not just those in rural areas. Brazil’s finance equalization reform provides funding to state and local governments for hiring, training or salary increases (Gordon and Vegas, 2005). Chile and Mexico have performance-based incentive systems (McEwan and Santibañez, 2005; Mizala and Romaguera, 2005). Decentralization and school-based management policies introduced in El Salvador and Honduras have increased teachers’ participation in decision-making and improved their professional status (di Gropello and Marshall, 2005; Sawada and Ragatz, 2005). In 1996, Chile introduced a policy of monetary incentives for schools and teachers, the Sistema Nacional de Evaluación del Desempeño (National School Performance Assessment System). Preliminary evidence shows a positive effect on student performance. The teacher incentive policy was introduced after increases of about 156% in basic salaries for teachers, which resulted in more applicants of better quality for teacher education programmes. One important effect of this incentive programme is that teachers are more receptive to a performance-related pay system (Mizala and Romaguera, 2005).

Increasing the supply of teachers by reforming teacher training

A strategy to increase the supply of teachers is to reduce the length of time spent on preservice training. More and more countries are moving towards shorter and more school-based
training. In the United Kingdom, trainee teachers can now spend two-thirds of their training time in schools. In Cuba, all pre-service training is school-based (UNESCO, 2005). The integration of training with work is not straightforward, however. It requires significant resources to support those being trained, sufficient schools able to serve as training environments and enough school-based teachers who can act as mentors. The shortening of the teacher training cycle is a growing trend, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa, where countries going this route include Ghana, Guinea, Malawi, Mozambique, Uganda and the United Republic of Tanzania. In Guinea, a primary teacher education programme initiated in 1998 shortened the cycle of initial training from three years to two and delivered increased numbers of new teachers – 1,522 per year compared with 200 before the reform. The teachers trained in the new programme are as effective as those who graduated from the three-year one, and the programme is considered cost-effective in part because of a higher ratio of student teachers to teacher trainers (Dembélé, 2004).

PART I. Monitoring EFA
Poland
Rep. of Korea
South Africa
Saint Lucia
Hungary
Chile
Nepal
Mauritius
Monaco
New Zealand
Finland
Bangladesh
Aruba
Australia
Barbados
Norway
Morocco
Slovakia
Bolivia
Swaziland
Burundi  
Costa Rica  
Oman

-40 -30 -20 -10 0 10 20 30 40

87.91

The share in total education expenditure has decreased since 1999.
The share in total education expenditure has increased since 1999.

Primary education  Secondary education
1999-2004 change (%)

Figure 3.6: Expenditure on primary and secondary education as % of total current education expenditure. Changes between 1999 and 2004 in selected countries.
Secondary education and the EFA agenda: increasing strains
As more countries approach UPE, the pressure to expand secondary education is rising dramatically, bringing new equity issues to the fore.15
The mismatch between demand and supply of secondary education
Many studies have demonstrated the benefits of secondary education. It results in greater democracy (Bregman and Bryner, 2006), increases social cohesion (Lewin, 2006), helps achieve the Millennium Development Goals – especially the health-related ones (World Bank, 2005a), sustains household demand for primary education (Lewin, 2006) and contributes to countries’ competitiveness in an increasingly global economy (World Bank, 2005a).
Chapter 2 described enrolment in secondary education, making the distinction between the lower-secondary and upper-secondary levels. A comparison of secondary enrolment in developed and developing countries between 1960 and 2000 reveals that the rate of enrolment growth did not keep pace with growth in demand for secondary schooling.16 The gap between the developed and developing countries with respect to the number of 15-year-olds with at least some secondary education is increasing. South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa lag far behind; indeed, access to secondary education has increased only minimally in sub-Saharan Africa.
A shortage of secondary school places is likely to be a major problem as the number of children completing primary education grows. Projections show that in sub-Saharan Africa, the region with the lowest enrolment ratios, demand for secondary school places will rise significantly – from 0.4 million to 1.0 million in Uganda, for instance, between 2002 and 2008, and from 0.5 million to 1.2 million in the United Republic of Tanzania, where no new fully funded government secondary schools have been built since 1980 (Lewin, 2006). The low level of provision coupled
with increasing demand will place a serious strain on education systems. It is critical for governments to begin to establish policies and programmes to cope with the challenge. Meeting the increasing demand for secondary education will likely require substantial increases in domestic and international financing to developing countries. Cost estimates vary; one study suggests that spending on secondary education will need to rise to an average of 2.3% of GNP in sub-Saharan Africa to reach a 50% transition rate from primary education (Lewin, 2004).17 Reducing inequity in access and coverage Amid the growing demand, access to secondary education remains highly inequitable. Marginalized children (the poor, certain ethnic groups, the disabled and, often, girls) are mainly excluded (Bloom, 2004). In sub-Saharan Africa, the excluded are disproportionately poor, rural and female. About 50% of boys from the highest income quintile complete grade 7, but only 4% of girls from the lowest quintile. About 50% of 15. There is no single approach to the organization of secondary education. In general, countries distinguish between primary, and lower secondary and upper secondary, between basic and secondary, or between primary and secondary. The ages at which compulsory education begins and ends also differ among countries. In Africa, students are expected to stay in school until age 13, on average, compared to the age 16 in Europe. This section takes secondary education generally to be education beyond five or six years of primary schooling. Where it is necessary to distinguish between lower
secondary and upper secondary, the section follows the UNESCO Institute for Statistics definitions.


17. The author points out that the calculations involved do not take into account changes in unit cost that may arise from various reforms, such as changes to the curriculum, or from, for example, changes to the dropout and repetition rates.

It is possible to fill posts in rural and remote areas if teachers are adequately compensated and working conditions are improved. Here are some strategies that have been shown to be effective:

- Provision of good-quality housing with running water and electricity. This is probably the most cost-effective way of attracting and retaining teachers at hard-to-staff rural schools.
- Supplementary pay, such as the 20% rural hardship allowance in Kenya and the 5% allowance in Nigeria. Pay supplements have to be sufficiently large to have an effect, however, and this can pose budgetary problems.
- More attractive career structures for primary school teachers, with regular promotions based on clearly specified and transparent performance-related criteria.
- Teachers who work at hard-to-staff rural schools can, for example, be given accelerated promotion and/or preferential access to professional development opportunities.

Source: Bennell and Akyeampong (2006).

Table 3.3: Unqualified primary school teachers

Box 3.7: Incentives for rural teachers: what works by location* (percentage, rounded)

*As a percentage of the total number of teachers in the schools surveyed in this study.

Source: Bennell and Akyeampong (2006).

Ghana

Lesotho
Malawi
Sierra Leone
U. R. Tanzania
Zambia
18 4
35 5
77 86
43 11
62 29
29 9
Country Rural Urban
urban boys complete grade 7 but only 7% of rural girls (Lewin, 2004). Many countries have made significant efforts to expand secondary education coverage. The Republic of Korea is an example. Strong political will prioritized the expansion of all education levels, with increased government spending on education (including demand-side financing initiatives such as lotteries to support enrolling poor children in post-primary education) and encouragement of the private sector, within a clear regulatory framework (World Bank, 2005a). Another example is Bangladesh, which has made significant progress over the past decade, with school enrolments doubling and the share of females in secondary enrolments increasing from 33% to 50%. This progress is attributable to government incentive policies that provide food, along with stipends for females, for disadvantaged families. It is also the result of a public-private partnership through which 95% of private schools receive public financing (public funds pay 90% of teachers’ salaries in all recognized schools). In addition, the management structure of secondary schools is decentralized, to ensure that they respond to local needs (World Bank, 2005a). South Africa has developed a different type of public-private partnership to increase access to secondary education (Box 3.8). Conclusion This chapter has shown that there is no single path for achieving the EFA goals. The routes are as many and diverse as the communities they serve, especially when it comes to reaching those who are marginalized. Successful programmes to tackle exclusion are those that (a) couple targeted programmes together with systemic reforms of the education system, (b) are sustainable and enduring, (c) are carefully monitored and evaluated and (d) are supported by the necessary budgetary commitments. The examples described here illustrate the
creative potential of forming alliances with local communities and civil society, and the power of financial and other incentives to overcome specific obstacles, motivating teachers to work in remote areas or making it easier for the poor, orphans, girls, women, people with disabilities and other excluded groups to gain access to good-quality education that meets their needs. With many countries increasing primary enrolments, it is more important than ever that policies and programmes designed to provide good-quality education for all, particularly the marginalized, are monitored for equity, effectiveness and impact. Only in this way can resources be allocated to reflect national priorities, make the best use of available financing and ensure that progress towards EFA is sustainable.

PART II. Monitoring EFA
The South African Government funds private secondary schools if they provide good-quality education and combat racism. While the public funding is limited, it is very significant for lowercost providers that could not otherwise make ends meet. South African policy recognizes that private schools are cost-effective for the state: ‘If all learners were to transfer to public schools, the cost of public education in certain provinces might increase by as much as five percent’ (South Africa Department of Education, 1998: section 56). To receive a subsidy, schools must be well managed, provide a good education, serve poor communities and individuals and be run on a non-profit basis (South Africa Department of Education, 1998: section 64).

Box 3.8: In South Africa, subsidies to private schools can increase access for the poor
Huddled together
in a village school
in Hà Nam province,
Viet Nam.
Ideally, programmes to achieve the EFA goals would be funded entirely from domestically generated resources. However, if the goals are to be met by 2015, aid is essential. About US$11 billion per year is needed right now if early childhood and adult literacy programmes are to expand and if all children are to complete primary school. Recent promises of additional aid are encouraging, but the resources have yet to materialize. Meanwhile, aid to basic education remains at less than half the amount needed annually. Moreover, there are many constraints: not enough of the aid reaches the low-income countries, nor is it sufficiently predictable; renewed attention to economic growth means increased competition from other sectors; and a lack of capacity in the education sector results in relatively low disbursement rates. At the same time, both donors and developing country governments have begun to adopt new ways of working in order to increase aid effectiveness.
Expectations and promises
In 2005 several high-profile reports and meetings raised expectations of an accelerated commitment to increase the levels and effectiveness of development aid, including through debt relief. In particular, the G8 Summit in July 2005 confirmed earlier promises by European Union members and resulted in others that would mean a US$50 billion, or 60%, annual increase in Official Development Assistance (ODA)1 by 2010 – including a doubling of total aid for African countries – and further increases to 2015. Simultaneously, a commitment was made to write off all debts owed by a large group of the poorest countries to the International Monetary Fund, the World Bank’s International Development Association and the African Development Fund.

Later in the year, the United Nations General Assembly’s ‘Millennium+5’ summit and the annual meetings of the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank carried these initiatives forward. The decisions taken at the G8 and United Nations summits did not specify how the new aid flows would increase resources to education, though the final G8 communiqué did refer to the Fast Track Initiative, described later in this chapter, and to universal primary education. More recently, in March 2006, the United Kingdom Government promised the equivalent of US$15 billion over the next ten years for education and called upon other governments to contribute similarly to provide the external aid required to reach the EFA goals. At their meeting in Saint Petersburg in July 2006, the G8 countries committed themselves to help ‘identify the resources necessary’ for countries to ‘pursue their sustainable educational strategies’.

The UN summit also addressed the question of aid effectiveness. In doing so, it referred to the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness, adopted by over one hundred industrialized and developing countries in March 2005. The declaration contains
concrete obligations to structure and coordinate aid more closely in line with the strategies of recipient countries, reduce transaction and processing costs, untie aid and strengthen the accountability of donor and recipient governments to their citizens and parliaments. Donors agreed to these obligations in principle and participants adopted twelve targets for 2010. OECD’s Development Assistance Committee (OECD-DAC) will monitor progress.

Will the aid promises be met? The best news so far relates to debt relief for the poorest countries. In January 2006, the International Monetary Fund delivered US$3.4 billion of relief to nineteen countries and in March the World Bank Development Committee finalized arrangements that will result in an estimated saving of US$37 billion over forty years for seventeen countries. The amount will increase as more countries qualify. In addition to this particular debt relief framework, and significant relief for Iraq and Afghanistan, the Nigerian Government and its creditors signed an agreement in late 2005. Overall, the OECD-DAC’s view is that, while aid will increase over the next five years, full achievement of the aid promises ‘cannot be assumed as a done deal’ (OECD-DAC, 2006b: p. 18). Real ODA would need to grow 50% faster between 2004 and 2010 than the average annual growth rate from 2001 to 2004 (World Bank, 2006a). Further, the composition of any increase in aid is hard to predict. Between 2001 and 2004, debt relief, technical cooperation, and emergency and food aid represented 70% of the increase; and over half of the total increase was directed to Afghanistan and Iraq (World Bank, 2006a). Another consideration is that if increased aid is to benefit the poorest countries’ efforts to reach the EFA goals, it will be needed in a form that allows not only for an increase in expenditure on education, but also for an increase in the share of aid going to the poorest countries. What’s new in aid to education since Dakar?

Total aid to developing countries is increasing
Disbursements of ODA to all developing countries fell during the early and mid-1990s, stabilized to 2000, then increased (Figure 4.1). Between 2000 and 2004 disbursements grew from US$57 billion to almost US$72 billion (2003 constant prices). In 2004, bilateral donors delivered almost three-quarters of the total and multilateral organizations one-quarter. The share of total ODA going to the seventy-two countries categorized by the OECD-DAC as low-income remained stable over 2000–2004 at around 46%, though the share for the very poorest of these, the fifty least developed countries or LDCs, increased from 26% to 32% (Figure 4.2).3 Over half of all aid is allocated to countries in the lower- and upper-

The United Kingdom promised an extra US$15 billion in aid for education

1. Explanations of many terms used here are provided in the introduction to the aid tables in the annex. This chapter examines only public official flows from OECD donor countries and multilateral organizations. Important developments in South-South aid and cooperation, and private international flows for basic education will be reviewed in the next EFA Global Monitoring Report.

2. Debt relief is included within ODA and accounts for around 10% of it. The effect of debt relief is to allow countries to retain domestic resources that would be used to service
debt and so to increase domestic expenditure, including on basic education.  
3. The OECD-DAC statistics differentiate among three groups of developing countries (and territories): fifty LDCs, twenty-two ‘Other Low Income Countries’ and seventy-nine middleincome countries.  
PART II. Monitoring EFA
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middle-income categories, a fact that underlines the political considerations in aid distribution. Figure 4.3 shows the distribution of ODA across regions in 2000 and 2004. Sub-Saharan Africa maintained its position as the main recipient in 2004 with one-third of the total, but South and West Asia also benefited from large increases. However, the region receiving the largest increase in aid was the Arab States, mainly a result of increases for Iraq. Aid flows to all other regions were constant, and thus fell as proportions of the total. Turning to commitments, and to future flows of ODA, 32% of the increase between 2000 and 2004 was to the fifty LDCs and a further 45% to the twenty-two other low-income countries. The increase in multilateral commitments was almost entirely for these groups.

ODA is a composite of (a) financial resources that are distributed across such sectors as education, health, agriculture and roads; (b) direct budget support; (c) debt forgiveness and emergency and food aid; and (d) freestanding technical cooperation. Almost three-quarters of the total ODA in 2004 was allocated to sectors (including sector technical cooperation), though in recent years the share of sector aid has fallen as debt relief and emergency aid have increased at a faster rate (Figure 4.4).

Total aid to education — and to basic education — is also increasing. Aid commitments to education for all developing countries expanded significantly between 2000 and 2004, from US$4.6 billion to US$8.5 billion (2003 prices)4 – an increase of 85% (Figure 4.5). Even higher growth occurred in the flows to low-income countries. These increased from US$2.5 billion to US$5.5 billion and by 2004 accounted for almost two-thirds of all education aid. The increases raised the share of aid for education among all sectors for all developing countries from 10.6% in 2000 to 13.6% in 2004 (Figure 4.6). More relevant in terms of additional
support for the EFA goals is that education’s share of total sector aid to the LDCs rose from 12.7% to 17.3%. These increases both in the absolute levels of aid to education and in the shares suggest that advocates have had some success in raising awareness of the importance of education in the international community.

4. All aid to education data in this chapter are in 2003 prices.

Constant 2003 US$ billions

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<th>Multilateral</th>
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<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>60</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

69.0 57.5 57.4 72.0 50.3 38.8 40.4 46.0 18.0 19.1 16.0 16.1

Figure 4.1: Total ODA, 1990–2004 (net disbursements in constant 2003 US$ billions)

Source: DAC online database (OECD-DAC, 2006c), Table 2a.
Figure 4.2: Distribution of total ODA disbursements by income group, 1990–2004
Source: DAC online database (OECD-DAC, 2006c), Table 2a.
Constant 2003 US$ billions

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Income Group</th>
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<th>2004</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Central and Eastern Europe</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America/Caribbean</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Asia and the Pacific</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South and West Asia</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arab States Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bilateral</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.3: Distribution of total ODA disbursements, selected regions, 2000 and 2004 (constant 2003 US$ billions)
Source: DAC online database (OECD-DAC, 2006c), Table 2a.
countries, some project and sector programme aid has been replaced with direct budget support, over which the recipient government has greater control. In 2004, direct budget support to all developing countries amounted to US$4.7 billion, including US$4.2 billion to all low-income countries. The Fast Track Initiative Secretariat estimates that 20% of general budget support goes to the education sector and that around half of that is allocated to basic education (FTI Secretariat, 2006). This would imply that direct budget support to education was about US$0.9 billion in developing countries in 2004, of which US$0.8 billion was for all low-income countries, and that half of these amounts went to basic education.

Combining all categories of aid, the amount to education for all developing countries is estimated to have increased from US$5.6 billion in 2000 to US$9.5 billion in 2004; for low-income countries the increase was from US$3.4 billion to US$6.4 billion (Table 4.1). With regard to basic education, aid to all developing countries is estimated to have increased from US$2.6 billion to US$4.4 billion, while for low-income countries the increase was from US$1.8 billion to US$3.4 billion. These amounts compare with total ODA commitments in 2004 of US$91.0 billion (OECD-DAC, 2006c: Table 3a).

While the share of technical cooperation in education ODA commitments has been falling, it is still very significant – 42% for all education and 27% for basic education in 2004 (Figure 4.8). The share is much greater for higher-income developing countries, and mainly funds scholarships and traineeships, than for low-income countries. Basic education now represents 39% of direct aid to education.

education, primary education and basic life skills for youth and adults. Chapter 8 discusses aid to early childhood education in detail.
6. The OECD-DAC defines direct budget support as ‘a method of financing a partner country’s budget through a transfer of resources from an external financing agency to the partner government’s national treasury. The funds thus transferred are managed in accordance with the recipient’s budgetary processes’ (OECD-DAC, 2005a).

PART II. MONITORING EFA
1999 2000 2001 2002 2003 2004
Constant 2003 US$ billions
0
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
5.0
4.6 4.8
5.9
7.0
8.5
All developing countries
1.2 1.4 1.5 1.8 2.0
2.6
Least developed countries
2.6 2.5 2.6
3.4
4.1
5.5

All low-income countries

Figure 4.5: Distribution of aid commitments to education by income group, 1999–2004

Source: CRS online database (OECD-DAC, 2006c), Table 2.

Non-sector technical cooperation

0 10 20 30 40 50 60

Sector

Debt forgiveness

Food aid

Emergency aid

6.9
1.4
8.5
1.5

-50% 50% 150%

14%
148%
58%
81%

Constant 2003 US$ billions Change 2000-2004

2000 2004
53.7
-17%

Figure 4.4: Total ODA disbursements by type, 2000 and 2004

Source: DAC online database (OECD-DAC, 2006c), Table 2a.

In the LDCs, much of the increase in aid to education has gone to basic education (Figure 4.7), commitments for which have increased from US$0.5 billion to US$1.6 billion, with most of the growth coming since 2002.

A similar trend is visible across all developing countries: direct aid commitments for basic education increased at a higher rate than total aid for education, from US$1.4 billion in 2000 to US$3.3 billion in 2004. This positive trend in the past few years has resulted in basic education becoming the major recipient of direct aid to education, accounting for 39% in 2004 for all
developing countries, compared with 30% in 2000. The change is even greater for the LDCs, whose share of total education aid devoted to basic education increased from 37% in 2000 to 59% in 2004 (Figures 4.5 and 4.7). These shifts further underline the increased attention that donors and governments of poor countries are giving to EFA. In addition to direct allocations to each level of education, significant amounts are included in the category ‘level unspecified’. Between 2000 and 2004 these totalled between US$1 billion and US$1.5 billion annually. The category includes some support to basic education but, as last year’s Report explained, the share is unknown. Here it is assumed that about half of ‘level unspecified’ aid is dedicated to basic education. Total aid to basic education for all developing countries would thus have been augmented by around US$0.6 billion in 2004 and for all lowincome countries by some US$0.3 billion. What about general budget support? In recent years, particularly in several sub-Saharan African
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income ones. In sub-Saharan Africa, for example, technical cooperation represents just over 20% of total ODA, compared with over 60% in East Asia (OECD-DAC, 2006b).

In sum, since 2000 ODA has increased and a greater share has been allocated to the poorest countries. In addition, positive changes have occurred across the education sector. They include increases in (a) the share of education in the total amount of aid committed to sectors and (b) the share of aid to education which is directly allocated to basic education. Overall, however, the share of ODA committed directly to basic education is just 3.6% of the total – 4.8% if the wider definition is used – and one-third of this goes to middle-income developing countries.

Donors are not a homogenous group. Table 4.2 shows the contribution of each donor to total bilateral aid for the education sector as a whole and for basic education. In both cases, just a few donors dominate. In 2003–2004, France, Germany, Japan, the United Kingdom and the United States together contributed 72% of all bilateral aid to education. For basic education, over two-thirds was contributed by Canada, Japan, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and the United States. If aid to basic education is to increase significantly, more donors will need to become more heavily involved, or these three major donors will need to increase their contributions, or both.

Overall, roughly one-third of all education aid goes to LDCs, one-third to other low-income countries and the remainder to middle-income countries.
3.5
1.3 1.4 1.5 1.6
2.1
3.3
All developing countries
0.9 1.0
1.1 1.2
1.6
2.7
0.5 0.5
0.7 0.7 0.8
1.6
Least developed countries
All low-income countries

Figure 4.7: Distribution of aid commitments to basic education by income group, 1999–2004
Source: CRS online database (OECD-DAC, 2006c), Table 2.
1999 2000 2001 2002 2003 2004
Share of education in total sector-allocable aid (%)
All developing countries
Least developed countries
0
5
10
15
20
11.9
12.7 13.2 13.6
12.7 12.5
16.5
17.3
13.6
10.9 10.6 10.7
Figure 4.6: Share of education in total sector-allocable aid commitments, 1999–2004
Source: CRS online database (OECD-DAC, 2006c), Table 2.
Table 4.1: Estimates of total ODA commitments for education and basic education by income group, 2000 and 2004 (constant 2003 US$ billions)
4.60 2.48
1.00 0.93
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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Source: CRS online database (OECD-DAC, 2006c), Table 2.

Figure 4.8: Share of technical cooperation in aid commitments to education and basic education, 1999–2000 and 2003–2004 averages

Page 296 of 1373
Source: CRS online database (OECD-DAC, 2006c), Table 2.1.

Education

Basic education

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Technical cooperation as % of aid
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Greece
Austria
Australia
Germany
Spain
Japan
France
United Kingdom
Belgium
United States
Switzerland
New Zealand
Netherlands
Italy
Canada
Norway
Denmark
Sweden
Finland
Ireland
Luxembourg
Portugal
DAC countries
All donors
Greece
Austria
Australia
Germany
Spain
Japan
France
United Kingdom
Belgium
United States
Switzerland
New Zealand
Netherlands
Italy
Canada
Norway
Denmark
Sweden
Finland
Ireland
Luxembourg
Portugal
DAC countries
All donors
0% 20% 40% 60% 80% 100% 0% 20% 40% 60% 80% 100% 20% 40% 60% 80%
Least developed countries Other low-income countries Middle-income countries
0% 100%

Figure 4.9: Share of education aid across income group by donor, 2003–2004 average
Source: CRS online database (OECD-DAC, 2006c), Table 2.

Table 4.2: Shares of donors in bilateral aid commitments to education and basic education, 2003–2004 average
Note: DAC countries only.
Source: CRS online database (OECD-DAC, 2006c), Table 2.

Luxembourg
New Zealand
Switzerland
Ireland
Finland
Portugal
Italy
Denmark
Greece
Austria
Australia
Sweden
Belgium
Spain
Norway
Canada
Netherlands
United States
United Kingdom
Germany
Japan
France
All DAC countries
0.4 0.5
0.6 0.4
0.7 1.0
0.8 1.1
0.9 0.9
1.0 0.2
1.0 0.6
1.1 1.7
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Donor</th>
<th>Share of the country in DAC countries’ aid to education (%)</th>
<th>Share of the country in DAC countries’ aid to basic education (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>1.3 1.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>1.3 0.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>1.7 3.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>1.9 2.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>2.1 0.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>2.1 1.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>2.9 5.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>3.9 7.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>4.1 8.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxembourg</td>
<td>7.3 21.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>8.6 26.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>16.9 5.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>19.1 6.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>20.3 3.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>100 100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>100 100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
DAC countries
All donors
0% 20% 40% 60% 80% 100%
Basic education
Figure 4.10: Distribution by education level
Source: CRS online database (OECD-DAC, 2006c), Table 2.
INTERNATIONAL SUPPORT: MAKING BETTER USE OF MORE AID / 9

developing countries (Figure 4.5). Individual donors vary substantially in how they distribute their aid among these groups. In spite of repeated calls for a greater concentration of education aid in the poorest countries, half of the bilateral donors shown in Figure 4.9 allocate more than half of their aid for education to middle-income countries. On the other hand, eight donors allocate less than 30% to countries in this group. Donors’ priorities across education levels also vary widely, as Figure 4.10 shows. Overall, almost two-fifths of total allocable education aid is for basic education. For bilateral donors as a group the share is slightly lower, and for nine of the twenty-two DAC donors it is less than onequarter. On the other hand, for six donors the share is over 60%. The situation is complicated by the large share of ‘level unspecified’ for several donors. Encouraged by DAC, donors are continually seeking to disaggregate these allocations further.

While the grants and concessional loans of the multilateral aid organizations are largely funded by the bilateral donors and as such are covered by the previous discussion of total aid, it is interesting to see what priority the multilaterals give to education in their overall aid programmes (Table 4.3). Generally, the share for education in 2003–2004 (11.8%) is similar to that of the bilateral donors and the reduction in the share of sector-allocable aid for education that occurred between 1999 and 2001 has been substantially reversed, reaching 13.5% in 2004 (see annex, Aid Table 4). The share of multilateral education aid that goes to basic education (52%) is higher than that of the bilaterals (38%).

After the International Development Association, the European Commission is the biggest multilateral donor for education. Its support is in the form of grants. Provisional 2005 data indicate that almost half of its disbursements for education were for basic education while a further 13% were for ‘level unspecified’. Post-secondary education received
27%. Commitments were highest for sub-Saharan Africa (30%) and South and Central Asia (19%), with non-EU European countries receiving 13%. The largest commitments were for Bangladesh, Eritrea, India, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea and Turkey. Aid for education was almost equally divided among specific projects (37%), technical cooperation (33%) and sectorwide programmes (30%). The Commission allocates greater shares of its education aid to sub-Saharan Africa and to basic education than do donors overall.

Donors’ priorities across education levels vary widely

0% 20% 40% 60% 80% 100% 0% 20% 40% 60% 80% 100%

Austria
France
Portugal
Belgium
Germany
Japan
Italy
New Zealand
Spain
Finland
Luxembourg
Ireland
Denmark
Switzerland
Greece
Sweden
Australia
Canada
Norway
Netherlands
United States
United Kingdom
DAC countries
All donors
Education, level unspecified Secondary education Post-Secondary Education
0% 20% 40% 60% 80% 100%
of total aid to education by donor, 2003–2004 average
Aid to education from the developing country perspective

In this section, the focus switches to the countries that receive ODA for their education sectors. Three questions are posed. First, which countries receive the largest amounts of education aid and what are their characteristics? Second, for individual countries, what is the importance of aid to the education sector and to basic education in relation to total aid receipts, and how does it vary across countries and regions? Third, how dependent on aid for the education sector are countries becoming?

Table 4.4 shows the twenty countries receiving the highest amounts of education aid commitments in 2003–2004 (the amounts are averaged for the two years). The geographical spread is wide: eight are in sub-Saharan Africa, five in South and West Asia, three each in North Africa and in East Asia, and one in Central and Eastern Europe. Seven of the twenty countries are LDCs, seven are other low-income countries and six are lower-middle-income countries, including four in the top ten. In the next highest twenty countries, half of the recipients are lower-middle-income. Thus, no very significant concentration of education aid on the poorest countries can be observed as yet. The aid tables in the annex provide more information on the education aid received annually by 148 countries between 1999 and 2004, in total and per person for 2003-2004.

Countries vary greatly in the number of bilateral donors contributing to their education sector. Table 4.5, showing this information for the seventy-two poorest countries, reveals
significant differences. Thirty-six of these countries have two donors or less, twenty-five have three to six and eleven have seven to twelve. The countries with the most bilateral donors are Ethiopia, Mali, Mozambique and the United Republic of Tanzania. Of the countries with two or fewer donors, fifteen also lack any multilateral donor presence, apart from UNICEF and/or UNESCO. This revealing distribution poses important questions about the capacity of global aid to raise education levels in a wide range of countries, an issue revisited in the final section of this chapter.

The education sector increasingly has to compete with other sectors, and with other forms of ODA, for external financial support. In 2004, education in developing countries received 10.2% of total ODA and around 13.6% of sector ODA. Roughly two-fifths was for basic education. These averages, however, are heavily influenced by the situation in a few large aid-receiving countries and hide very diverse experiences among countries and regions. Table 4.6 provides more detailed information. For a sample of seventynine poor and middle-income countries (here shown aggregated by region), the average share of total ODA directly allocated to the education sector in 2004 was 12.4% and education’s share of all sector ODA was around 16.1%. However, for almost half of these countries (thirty-five), the share of sector-allocable ODA going to education was less than 10% while for 14 countries it was over 25%.

The relative importance given to education in total aid is not the same for all regions. Countries in South and West Asia and the Arab States in 2003–2004 received a much larger share for education (over 20% of total aid and over 30% of sector-allocable aid) than did countries in other regions. In sub-Saharan Africa, the average No very significant concentration of education aid on the poorest countries can be
observed as yet

PART I. Monitoring EFA

Table 4.3: Multilateral ODA: commitments of major donors to education, 2003–2004 average

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total ODA Aid to education</th>
<th>Aid to basic education</th>
<th>Basic education as % of total aid to education</th>
<th>Amount (constant 2003 US$ millions)</th>
<th>Education as % of total ODA Amount (constant 2003 US$ millions)</th>
<th>Constant 2003 US$ millions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>International Development Association</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Commission</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian Development Bank</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African Development Fund</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inter-American Development Bank Special Fund</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total multilateral</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: CRS online database (OECD-DAC, 2006c), Table 2.
share for education across twenty-two countries was just 11% of total aid and 16% of sector allocable aid. The distribution of aid among the different levels of education also varies by country and region. In South and West Asia, countries on average used almost 50% of education aid for basic education, compared with just over 20% in sub-Saharan Africa and in Latin America and the Caribbean. In the Arab States and in East Asia and the Pacific, the share was

Table 4.4: Twenty countries receiving the highest total amounts of aid for education, 2003–2004 average

Source: CRS online database (OECD-DAC, 2006c), Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>826.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>516.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>472.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>280.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Viet Nam</td>
<td>244.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U. R. Tanzania</td>
<td>189.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>150.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Algeria</td>
<td>143.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>131.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td>119.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cameroon</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senegal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Bilateral Donors to Education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U. R. Tanzania</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia, Mozambique</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mali</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh, Burkina Faso, Zambia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan, Uganda</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia, Nicaragua, Senegal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan, Benin, D. R. Congo, Rwanda, Viet Nam</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angola, Kenya, Niger, Sudan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eritrea, Ghana, Guinea, India, Malawi, Nepal, Timor-Leste, Yemen</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhutan, Burundi, Cambodia, Cameroon, Chad, Haiti, Lao PDR, Vanuatu</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cape Verde, Djibouti, Georgia, Lesotho, Madagascar, Mauritania, Mongolia, Nigeria, Papua New Guinea, Somalia, Togo</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central African Republic, Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, Kiribati, Liberia, Myanmar, Republic of Moldova, Sao Tome and Principe, Solomon Islands, Sri Lanka, Tajikistan, Tonga</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Armenia, Azerbaijan, Comoros, Gambia, Kyrgyzstan, Maldives, Sierra Leone, Saint Lucia, St Vincent/Grenad., Uzbekistan, Zimbabwe</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

114.9
114.5
113.6
113.2
110.5
108.1
107.0
104.6
104.1
99.3

Aid to education
(constant 2003
US$ millions)

Table 4.5: Number of bilateral donors to education
in the seventy-two poorest recipient countries
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of donors</th>
<th>Total number of countries</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Table 4.6: Aid for education and basic education as share of total aid and sector aid in seventy-nine countries, 2003-2004 regional averages

Sources: CRS online database (OECD-DAC, 2006c), Table 2; annex, Statistical Table 11.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Education as share of total aid</th>
<th>Education as share of sector-allocable aid</th>
<th>Basic education as share of total aid</th>
<th>Basic education as share of sector-allocable aid</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>31.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>31.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>31.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>31.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
lower. The very large differences between countries in the importance given to education need to be investigated further if a better understanding is to be achieved of the likely impact on the EFA goals of increased overall levels of ODA.

How important is aid to financing countries’ education systems? The answer is difficult to provide, since countries vary in the ways they report aid and expenditure from domestic Sub-Saharan Africa (22 countries)
Arab States (9 countries)
Central Asia (7 countries)
East Asia and the Pacific (8 countries)
South and West Asia (5 countries)
Latin America and the Caribbean (23 countries)
Central and Eastern Europe (5 countries)
All developing countries
revenue and the impact on education of direct budget support can only be approximated. However, using information on domestic education expenditure as provided to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics and on disbursements of education aid as reported by the OECD-DAC for sixty countries, some rough estimates can be made. In twenty-four of the countries, aid accounts for over 10% of total current expenditure on education, and in seven for over 20% (Figure 4.11). Some consequences of the size of these shares, particularly relating to the long-term unpredictability of aid, are returned to later in this chapter. The contribution of aid to expenditure in basic education is generally lower than for the education sector as a whole (Figure 4.12).

Streamlining aid to education

Previous editions of the EFA Global Monitoring Report have argued that any analysis of the effectiveness of aid in the education sector should be viewed within the wider context of international efforts to improve the quality and effectiveness of aid as a whole, as exemplified by the OECD-led Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness (see page 86).

Efforts to carry forward the Paris Declaration are led by the OECD-DAC’s Working Party on Aid Effectiveness, established in 2003. Work on monitoring progress on twelve qualitative and quantitative indicators includes an international survey every two years from 2006 to 2010. Draft questionnaires were tested in Cambodia, Ghana, Nicaragua, Senegal, South Africa and Uganda before the survey was launched in May 2006 in all countries that indicated interest. The OECD is to publish the consolidated results in December 2006. The survey comprises a donor questionnaire, a government questionnaire and a worksheet for each participating country. In addition to the survey work, subregional consultative workshops are being held, for example in Uganda and Mali.
In March 2006, the DAC published Managing for Development Results, Principles in Action: Sourcebook on Emerging Good Practice (OECD-DAC, 2006d), in which examples of work at national and sector level, and in development agencies are presented. The Country Implementation Tracking Tool, another DAC initiative, looks at national efforts to streamline policy and practice, including at sector level (OECD-DAC, 2006a), in more than sixty countries. In some of them (Ethiopia, India and Uganda are examples), where there is experience of sectorwide programmes going back as far as ten years, evidence of many of the principles in the Paris indicators already exists. These include strong government ownership of education sector policies, channelling of aid into government sector budgets, reduction of duplication of effort (‘parallel project implementation units’) and carrying out of joint field missions, joint analytic work and mutual progress assessments.

So far, few studies exist of the changes taking place and the lessons emerging for donors and governments in their efforts to maximize the benefits of the new procedures. Those that have been made focus mainly on direct budget support, whose flows tend to be triggered by indicators of actions or outputs in several sectors, often including education (IDD and Associates, 2006; Lawson et al., 2005; USAID, 2005). In general, the assessments are positive, but the studies say relatively little about sector experiences. One, on Mozambique, demonstrates the problems arising when all donors participate but some do not really subscribe to the harmonization agenda (Killick et al., 2005).

Before examining promising mechanisms for managing aid in the education sector more effectively, it is useful to review briefly the complex and diverse nature of current aid arrangements. Usually, external funding for education is provided directly for a discrete set of activities identified in advance – the traditional externally supported project.
Alternatively, funds are added to the government budget but earmarked for a given subsector, such as primary or secondary education, and spread across a whole programme. Going one step further, they may be used to provide additional support to a comprehensive programme that affects the whole education sector. Finally, aid may not be sector-specific at all but rather transferred to the government as general budget support for distribution as the government sees fit. In some cases, all these arrangements and others exist at once: Table 4.7 presents the example of Ethiopia. Indeed, the situation of multiple forms of aid is particularly common in countries with several donors and such examples show why Ethiopia, India and Uganda are examples of strong government ownership of education sector policies.

PART II. Monitoring EFA
Mexico
Iran, Isl. Rep.
Malaysia
Argentina
Colombia
South Africa
Oman
Philippines
Tunisia
Chile
Morocco
Costa Rica
Pakistan
Croatia
Indonesia
Grenada
Bangladesh
Mauritius
Azerbaijan
Swaziland
Peru
Kenya
Jamaica
Paraguay
El Salvador
Dominican Rep.
Lesotho
Nepal
Uganda
Cameroon
Kyrgyzstan
Seychelles
Ethiopia
Bolivia
Fiji
Belize
Rep. of Moldova
Guyana
Antigua/Barbuda
St Vincent/Grenad.
Togo
Madagascar
Tajikistan

Sources: CRS online database (OECD-DAC, 2006c) Table 2; annex, Statistical Table 11.
Sources: CRS online database (OECD-DAC, 2006c) Table 2; annex, Statistical Table 11.
Lesotho
Bangladesh
Jamaica
Belize
Uganda
Saint Lucia
Rep. of Moldova
Nepal
Bolivia
Mongolia
Mauritania
Malawi
Cape Verde
Guyana
Nicaragua
Guatemala
Benin
Tonga
Tajikistan
Kyrgyzstan
Senegal
Burundi
Congo
Zambia
Eritrea
Lao PDR
0 20 40 60 80 100
Aid National expenditure
Share in total expenditure on basic education (%)
Figure 4.11: Shares of aid and national spending in total expenditure on education, 2004
Figure 4.12: Shares of aid and national spending in total expenditure on basic education, 2004

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there is pressure for greater harmonization. Harmonization will take time, but in the meanwhile governments need encouragement and examples of successful experiences on which to model their coordination efforts.

Joint monitoring reviews: small steps in the right direction?

A common characteristic of recent efforts to simplify aid arrangements in the education sector and to increase donors’ alignment with government, and with each other, is the joint monitoring review process. Joint reviews are associated with attempts to encourage donors to combine their support around sectorwide programmes and to adopt common practices of aid management, primarily (though not exclusively) in countries with high dependence on aid. Joint reviews provide an arena for increased government-donor dialogue. They also offer a periodic assessment of the performance of the education sector (or subsector or large project) against an agreed set of objectives, targets and performance indicators. The reviews are expected to:

- increase country ownership and provide more effective support of national priorities;
- promote a more efficient division of labour among aid agencies;
- improve the efficiency and transparency of (harmonized) frameworks for monitoring and evaluation;
- improve accountability to funding sources and government partners.

Though it is not aid-dependent, India has the longest experience of joint reviews in the education sector, having held over twenty since 1995. There, the government is clearly in charge; in some other countries the process appears to be more donor-driven.

How common are joint monitoring reviews?

At least forty countries have or are expected to have education sectorwide programmes in
place in 2006 (Packer, 2006). Of these, thirty are in sub-Saharan Africa. Countries with regular joint review mechanisms include Bangladesh, Benin, Burkina Faso, Cambodia, Ethiopia, Ghana, India, Kenya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mozambique, Namibia, Nepal, the Niger, Rwanda, Uganda, the United Republic of Tanzania, Viet Nam and Zambia. PART I I . M o n i t o r i n g E FA Grant (pooled) Grant (pooled) Grant and technical assistance Project grant and technical assistance Grant Grant Grant (pooled) Grant (pooled) Grant (pooled) Grant and project Grant and project Grant and technical assistance Project and technical assistance Technical assistance Grant (pooled) Project Project and grant Project Grant (pooled) Grant (pooled) Grant (pooled) Grant Grant Project Technical assistance Grant Project and grant (pooled) Grant (pooled) Grant Grant Concessional loan and technical assistance Concessional loan Project grant Project grant Grant (pooled)
Table 4.7: Donors supporting the Ethiopian education system by subsector and type of aid, 2004/05 to 2009/10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subsector Type of support</th>
<th>Note: “TVET” stands for ‘technical and vocational education and training’.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>‘Multi-subsector’ means a range of activities within a particular level, e.g. primary.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>‘Pooled grants’ are mainly for the Teacher Development Fund.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>‘Grants’ mainly support the Education Sector Development Programme and are received directly by the Ministry of Education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>‘Project grants’ tend to be managed by unique project implementation units.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Grant
Technical assistance
Technical assistance
Technical assistance
Grant
Concessional loan
Concessional loan

Belgium
Finland
France
Ireland
Italy
Japan
Netherlands
Sweden
United Kingdom
United States
African Development Fund
European Commission
UNDP
UNESCO
UNICEF
World Bank (IDA)
Primary
Multi-subsector
Teacher training
Primary
Non-formal
Teacher training
Multi-subsector
Teacher training
Tertiary
Teacher training
Multi-subsector
Non-formal
Teacher training
Multi-subsector
Teacher training
Primary
Non-formal
Primary
Multi-subsector
Tertiary
Primary
Multi-subsector
Multi-subsector
Teacher training
Tertiary
TVET
Primary
Tertiary
TVET
What stakeholders are involved?

A sample of reviews undertaken in 2005 shows that the number of participants varies considerably. In India, with a programme supported by three donors, the government appointed ten members in 2005 and the donors a further ten. Teams of two or three people visited eight states. At the other extreme, 121 people took part in the joint monitoring review mission in Rwanda, which was held entirely in the capital, Kigali. The range of stakeholders was very broad, including members from lower administrative levels in the education system and from civil society. In Ethiopia, sixty members were divided into six groups to visit selected regions. In Malawi, of sixty-eight participants, roughly a third were from donor agencies or international NGOs.

Reviews are people-intensive. Most joint reviews involve all agencies working in the education sector, whether they provide budget support, work through projects or contribute through technical assistance. Very specific documentation is prepared for joint monitoring reviews, either because of requests made during the previous review or to enable analysis of particular themes during the current one. For example, in Ghana in 2004, a 131-page performance report was prepared, along with a 51-page progress and assessment framework that provided data on each set of activities under the major policy headings. In addition, quarterly budget summaries were provided, along with a ranking of the performance of individual districts against specific performance criteria. In the first review of a new national programme in India, in 2005, the government provided extensive documentation and reports by each of the eight states to be visited, focusing primarily on the programme’s main development objectives.

Processes and issues
The reviews take different approaches. In some, the emphasis is on monitoring progress...
systematically against national targets; in others, it is on implementation practice and management. Reviews in Ethiopia, India and Uganda, for instance, appear to have concentrated more on targets while those in Madagascar and Rwanda have had a greater focus on implementation. Some reviews include field visits, others do not. While field visits are complex, time-consuming and relatively costly, they make it much easier to identify inequities in levels of financing and performance across a country and to showcase good local practice. A look at the aides-mémoires for Ethiopia, India and Rwanda gives additional insight into what issues were considered most important. The Rwandan aide-mémoire explicitly sets the review process within the wider context of poverty reduction. India’s reviews are clearly structured around a small set of national, higher-order education outcomes relating to access, equity and quality in elementary education. The needs and demands of the most disadvantaged children receive considerable attention in all three cases, as do financial management and accountability. Running through the reports for the three countries is the thread of weak or severely constrained capacity for introducing reforms, improving quality and managing systems. In Ethiopia, the report states that the lack of a long-term plan for comprehensive capacity-building at regional and woreda (district) level constitutes a major bottleneck and that adequate resources are not provided for capacity-building. In the other two countries, capacity development is addressed more in relation to particular issues, such as teacher training. How influential are the reviews? It is difficult to judge to what extent joint monitoring reviews are influential and initiate change. Perhaps as a result of the reviews’ comprehensive nature, the reports often fail to distil messages in a way that prioritizes needs and identifies what is possible and what is practical. Studies over time are required to test the extent to which recommendations have been
accepted, put into practice and had an impact. Government participants in the Indian and Ethiopian reviews have reported that they do lead to action, and in Uganda changes in the way grants move to schools and are used by local communities resulted in part from review findings. There is less evidence that the reviews feed into wider national processes, such as those associated with poverty reduction strategies. Nor is it yet known to what extent the reviews influence donor practice. A systematic study of the review processes and outcomes could be beneficial for both governments and donors in their efforts to improve the effectiveness of aid in the education sector.

121 people took part in the joint monitoring review mission in Rwanda, which was held entirely in the capital, Kigali.
Scaling up aid for education

Among the factors that will influence future levels of aid and how it is distributed across sectors will be evidence that developing country governments have the capacity to spend these funds in the ways agreed upon. Disbursement rates are relatively low in the education sector for all developing countries, even lower for basic education, and lower still for basic education in the LDCs (FTI Secretariat, 2006).

Capacity
Some institutions have argued that limitations in absorptive capacity should not be an obstacle to the scaling up of aid, provided efforts to improve capacity are undertaken simultaneously (UNDP, 2005). Others are less optimistic, pointing to the growing complexity of programmes as governments switch attention from the relatively straightforward strategy of achieving broad increases in access and start to concentrate more on the hardest-to-reach children, measures to retain all children in school and improving achievement levels. Of necessity, all these measures will have to be applied in a context of increasing demand for the expansion of secondary and tertiary education.

To move forward effectively on all these fronts requires strengthening both policy-making and implementation capacity.

How can donors help? Donors can influence the capacity available to governments by increasing the quality of their own technical support and by working to revise the content and form of technical cooperation. Unfortunately, while ODA commitments for education are increasing, donors are reducing the number of their staff with sector skills. This is the case in both bilateral and multilateral agencies, and reflects the increasing shift towards programme aid and direct budget support. There are risks in this trend. Some of the benefits gained from emphasizing the maximum use of national systems and providing sectorwide support could
be undermined. Moreover, providing aid in this way may reduce capacity-building efforts in countries where such efforts are not accorded national budgetary priority. Any move to downgrade capacity development efforts while augmenting broad sector support would likely be self-defeating. Changes that could help donors minimize these potentially negative effects include (Fredriksen, 2005):

- using, retaining and strengthening existing national and regional capacity, rather than creating new capacity through long-term technical assistance and external training;
- supporting knowledge exchange so practitioners can benefit from international good practice;
- giving grants to national teams;
- improving coordination among donor agencies;
- helping address the causes of brain drain out of the education sector as well as out of the country.

Given the declining share of technical cooperation, including for capacity-building, in aid for education there is an urgent need to re-examine the ways in which the remaining resources are used.

Aid dependence

Very different issues arise from the extent and implications of aid dependence. The receipt of aid involves a trade-off: it allows an objective to be reached faster but potentially reduces governments’ influence over how resources are used and introduces greater unreliability. The Government of India refused offers of substantial amounts of aid for primary education until 1993, because of concern that it would lose sovereignty over policy decisions. Even after that, aid was less than 2% of total expenditure on primary education. In several countries donors provide over 20% of the total education budget (Figure 4.11). For the twenty country plans so far endorsed by the Fast Track Initiative, on average one-quarter of the costs will need to be covered by aid and the share goes as high as 63%. An initial attempt in 2002 by the World Bank to calculate the financing gap for reaching universal primary education by 2015
concluded that aid would need to reach an average of 42% of total expenditure on primary education and much more in some countries. Such levels of dependence underline the importance of efforts to increase alignment between donor activities and national programmes.

Predictability

Even with greater alignment, however, countries that are highly dependent on aid must still face the problem of its volatility and unpredictability. An analysis of aid flows between 1975 and 2003 in seventy-six countries showed that the aid received Downgrading capacity development while augmenting sector support would be self-defeating.

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by developing countries was far more volatile than domestically generated revenue and that aid disbursements were only weakly related to commitments (Bulir and Hamann, 2006). Both volatility and the gap between aid commitments and disbursements appear to have increased in recent years. Between 2000 and 2003, lenders promised 50% more than was actually disbursed. More worrying, the differences tended to be larger for countries with lower per capita income. These trends partly arise from implementation bottlenecks and constraints within recipient countries. In addition, ‘donor development agencies that make aid commitments are different from those that approve aid funding (parliaments) and disburse aid (ministries of finance)’ (Bulir and Hamann, 2006: p. 4). Donors need to work harder to provide guarantees of longer-term, more predictable financial aid so that countries can take the decisions necessary to increase both the demand for and the supply of education without worrying about having to reverse them if aid is reduced. It may also be prudent for developing country governments that are highly reliant on aid to assess which activities are the most important to sustain and should therefore be funded domestically.

The Fast Track Initiative: encouraging a global compact

The Fast Track Initiative (FTI) was established in 2002 to encourage a global compact that would lead to the development of ‘credible’ education sector plans and to greater – and more predictable – external financial support. The World Bank hosts its secretariat, and over thirty donors share its governance and costs. Last year’s EFA Global Monitoring Report concluded that, while the political visibility of and rhetorical support for the FTI had increased substantially, no significant increases in resources for its Catalytic Fund or Education Programme Development Fund had yet resulted. Nor could the FTI yet claim wider success in leveraging significant additional external funds for basic education. In addition,
2006 Report pointed to often anecdotal evidence that agencies’ in-country education advisors questioned the value added by the initiative either in bringing in extra funding or in enhancing policy dialogue, particularly in countries where the latter is well established. More positively, the Report recognized that the FTI had become an important coordinating mechanism for the donor agencies and a positive influence on donor harmonization. Over the past year the FTI has continued to evolve. Technical support of various kinds has been provided to seventy-four countries to help them develop education sector plans; concept notes on capacity development, fragile states, HIV/AIDS and an expanded financing mechanism have been prepared; and the education plan appraisal guidelines and framework documents have been revised to provide a more holistic approach to gender issues. Sector plans have now been endorsed by local donor groups for twenty countries and the plans of a further twelve countries are expected to be endorsed by the end of 2006.8 By the end of 2008, the secretariat estimates, the plans of fifty-nine countries may have been through this process. In addition, the FTI has added some value by making extra resources available for improving the quality of education sector planning and programme development, and, in a few cases, by providing additional funds for endorsed plans through the Catalytic Fund. So far, however, the amounts in the Catalytic Fund remain quite small (though pledges have been accelerating recently) and a limited number of countries have benefited. As of August 2006, total donor payments into the fund were US$230 million, though with a further US$450 million pledged by a total of eleven donors by the end of 2008. Six donors had pledged over US$10 million each. Of these, the European Commission, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom were responsible for 85% of total pledges. Disbursements as of August 2006 amounted to US$96 million to eleven countries; in addition, formal commitments amounted to US$130 million. The number of donors to the Education Programme Development Fund
increased from two to eight over the past year, and commitments for 2005–2007 total US$46 million, almost half from Norway. Though there has been some growth in the resources available, it is now apparent that the Catalytic Fund, as initially conceived, is not sustainable. It was designed as a temporary source of funding for countries with few donors, the expectation being that good performance would attract additional donors. In practice, new ones have not been forthcoming and, since there is a trend among donors to reduce the number of countries they support, the problem is likely to grow. Similarly, the hoped-for solution of ‘silent partnerships’, in which donors with no programmes in a country would allocate funds for basic education through a donor that did have 7. The Catalytic Fund provides up to three years of transitional support for education sector plans in countries with four or fewer bilateral donors, each contributing a minimum of US$1 million in aid. The Education Programme Development Fund finances technical assistance to help countries develop the plans. 8. The countries with endorsed plans are Burkina Faso, Djibouti, Ethiopia, the Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guyana, Honduras, Kenya, Lesotho, Madagascar, Mauritania, Mozambique, Nicaragua, the Niger, the Republic of Moldova, Tajikistan, Timor Leste, Viet Nam and Yemen. Those expecting endorsement by the end of 2006 are Albania, Benin, Bhutan, Burundi, Cambodia, Cameroon, Mali, Mongolia, Rwanda, Sao Tome and Principe, Senegal and
Sierra Leone. A limited number of countries have benefited from the FTI Catalytic Fund.
a presence, have proved more complicated than expected. To overcome the situation in which a country receiving payments from the fund suddenly faces a cut-off, donors are now considering extending the funding period. While this makes sense, it would significantly alter the nature of the fund and, without large increases in contributions, an extension for existing recipients would reduce the number of potential new ones. While the recent increases in ODA commitments to basic education cannot be attributed solely to the influence of the FTI, they are consistent with the added international attention to basic education financing that it has stimulated. The increases begin to demonstrate the feasibility of the FTI’s ‘virtual fund’ model, increasing overall resources for basic education through a country-by-country approach rather than through a single ‘global fund’ such as the one for malaria, tuberculosis and HIV/AIDS. Further, the considerable efforts that have gone into designing the FTI processes have positioned the education sector well in the event that the recent promises of additional aid are fulfilled. The FTI’s potential impact is not limited to the generation of external funding. Another expectation is that, as countries take note of the indicators and benchmarks included in the indicative framework, which provides the background for the design of education plans and their endorsement by local donors, policy-making will improve and countries will move faster towards the EFA goals. There are signs this may be occurring. Although the period is short, analysis of the experiences of the first eight FTI endorsed countries indicates that progress has been made towards the benchmarks for teacher salaries, percentage of recurrent expenditure devoted to education, proportion of recurrent spending not devoted to salaries and average repetition rate (Umansky and Crouch, 2006). On the other hand, no progress has yet been recorded in pupil/teacher ratios and the
proportion of total education expenditure devoted to primary education. A comparison of performance on several indicators between these eight countries and a control group of countries shows that gross enrolment ratios have increased more rapidly and there is some evidence of greater internal efficiency in the FTI countries. Ultimately, however, efforts to improve the framework of the FTI and to increase its effectiveness will have a limited impact on EFA efforts unless donors undertake an aggressive, high-level push to make the commitments required for FTI to become a fully global compact. Among changes this might require are (Sperling, 2006):

- commitment of funds for EFA in ways similar to those of the debt relief model, with debts automatically eliminated for countries that meet a specific set of obligations;
- more predictable and longer-term funding, including an expectation that current three to five-year funding programmes will be rolled over if performance agreements are met;
- provision of funds, either through the FTI or bilaterally, for a quick response when governments take far-reaching steps such as abolishing fees, to ensure that the outcome is not dramatic increases in class size and decreases in quality of schooling;
- a need to embrace more consistently high-population countries such as India, Nigeria and Pakistan.

Global EFA coordination: the role of UNESCO

Each year the Report presents and comments on the activities of UNESCO in relation to its mandate to coordinate EFA. The 2006 Report suggested that the Executive Board’s call for ‘a concise global plan to achieve the EFA goals, including resource mobilization’, through dialogue with the other convening agencies of the World Education Forum (Dakar), reflected high – and probably unrealistic – expectations (UNESCO, 2005). At the same time it pointed to opportunities to place EFA at the forefront of the international dialogue on development in the coming year:
through advocacy at the ‘Millennium+5’ summit; by strengthening connections among UNESCO, the FTI, the E-9 countries and the High-Level Group; by exercising leadership in promoting good practices of technical cooperation and greater harmonization; and through ongoing initiatives in literacy, education for sustainable development, teacher training in sub-Saharan Africa, and HIV/AIDS and education. Although activities are under way in each of these domains, UNESCO has yet to move into the central leadership position for EFA that was initially envisaged. The organization is generally trusted by developing country governments, yet its direct influence on the ability of countries to reach the EFA goals has been limited, including evidence of greater internal efficiency in the FTI countries.

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INTERNATIONAL SUPPORT: MAKING BETTER USE OF MORE AID / 101

In capacity development, where one would have expected it to excel. An institutional reform programme now being implemented may reverse this situation. The reform aims to put EFA at the core of all UNESCO education activities and to strengthen UNESCO’s field presence and orientation considerably by (a) decentralizing authority and resources to the field (especially the four existing regional bureaux, to which a fifth has been added in Bucharest for Europe and North America), (b) reducing overlap and providing clear accountability for topic areas and programmes, and (c) changing the internal organizational culture into one that generates openness and flexibility, in a context of clear alignment of programmes with institutional and global priorities. The outcome of the reform launched in June 2006 may determine whether UNESCO can become effective in two particular EFA-related areas in coming years: further development of a global action plan and regional EFA reviews. The call for a global action plan by members of UNESCO’s Executive Board in March 2005 emerged from a desire to increase coordination among stakeholders in the EFA movement, particularly those who convened the Dakar meeting in 2000: UNESCO, UNICEF, UNDP, UNFPA and the World Bank. In response, UNESCO initiated a consultative process aimed at harmonizing the approaches of these multilateral organizations in supporting the development and implementation of EFA national plans. To this end it has prepared an EFA Global Action Plan, which the heads of the four UN coordinating agencies for EFA, plus a World Bank representative, discussed in draft at a meeting of the United Nations Development Group Principals in July 2006. Support for the finalization of the plan was provided at the G8 summit in St Petersburg. A more fully developed version will be presented to the High-Level Group Meeting on Education for All in November 2006. Overall, the plan is designed to achieve greater consistency at global level and provision
of more effective support to EFA at national level. At its heart are the concept of ‘one country, one plan’; a strategic focus on the countries having the greatest needs; a concern for the whole EFA agenda; and the intent to create a clear division of labour among international agencies in supporting national EFA plans and efforts.

UNESCO’s own contributions, in addition to convening the High-Level Group, the EFA Working Group, the E-9 meetings and other EFA-related gatherings, will be directed at literacy, education for work, teacher training, technology and learning outcomes. Activities will concentrate on capacity-building, monitoring and evaluation, and national planning processes. The global leadership roles for UNESCO include:

- supporting national leadership by reinforcing the role of its Education Sector as a clearinghouse of ideas and by strengthening its field operations to give better support to governments;
- promoting South-South cooperation, particularly through the E-9 countries, in the areas of teaching and learning best practices, innovative financing and innovations in information and communications technology;
- and through exploring potential donor support for this cooperation;
- coordinating activities to reduce national financial and capacity gaps of the countries least likely to achieve EFA;
- promoting policy analysis based on evidence and research by gathering, collating and disseminating information through headquarters staff and UNESCO institutes.

It is unclear whether the EFA Global Action Plan will result in greater interagency coordination or will mainly guide UNESCO’s own future. In either case it will be important to reform the supporting international machinery as well, especially the High-Level Group, so that it becomes more action-oriented and less of a forum for general discussion whose outcomes cannot be monitored. UNESCO has also signalled its intent to coordinate country assessments of progress towards the EFA goals halfway towards the target
date of 2015. The Asia-Pacific Regional Bureau has begun monitoring country progress with a focus on ‘reaching the unreached’. The Latin America and the Caribbean Regional Bureau will work within the framework of the Regional Project for Education in Latin American Countries (PRELAC), which plans to report in March 2007 on the relevance of educational services, equity and the right to education, effectiveness in achieving educational goals and management efficiency. The Caribbean is planning a regional EFA report by the end of 2007. Similarly, the Africa Regional Bureau expects to make a substantial review in 2007 focusing on the ‘external efficiency of education’. These country assessments may prove very useful; however, it is not yet clear what incentives exist for countries to participate, as there has been no indication of how they might UNESCO is preparing an EFA Global Action Plan.
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Chapter 4

benefit from the review findings. Finally, there is as yet no mechanism for bringing countries together to help set priorities at the global level, either for EFA in general or for UNESCO’s programmes in particular.

$11 billion a year is needed

The most comprehensive and reliable basis for assessing the global cost of providing a quality universal primary education, and the requirements for external financial support, is the study by Bruns et al. (2003). By calculating the number of school age children to 2015, the inputs required to provide schooling for all of them and then assuming the increase in domestic resources that governments should be responsible for, the authors arrived at an estimate of US$3.7 billion per year, on average, as the additional external funding requirement for low-income countries. An assessment of this study by the 2002 EFA Global Monitoring Report arrived at a significantly higher figure (UNESCO, 2002a). First, it was argued that the implicit annual growth rate of government education expenditure over the fifteen-year period used in the study was overly optimistic. In addition, extra resources would be required to (a) induce households to increase their demand for schooling for girls, and more generally for children from poorer households, by reducing the costs to them; (b) cope with the full impact of the HIV/AIDS pandemic on education systems, particularly in many sub-Saharan African countries; and (c) rehabilitate systems in countries affected by conflict, natural calamity and general instability. These considerations, the Report estimated, would require an extra US$3.1 billion a year of external finance bringing the annual total to US$6.8 billion.

The initial estimates used 2000 as the base year (UK Department for International Development, 2005). Between 2001 and 2004, additional ODA commitments to basic education in low-income countries were well below those required. To make up for this deficiency, from 2005
the annual level of external support would need to increase to around US$9 billion to 2015 (at 2003 prices). In addition, completion of a decent-quality primary education by every boy and girl does not cover all the EFA goals; allocating US$1 billion for each of the literacy and early childhood goals would result in an average annual external funding requirement of some US$11 billion.9

How realistic are these estimates? A partial check is provided by the education sector plans prepared for, and endorsed through, the FTI (FTI Secretariat, 2005). By 2008, the total required expenditure for primary education in the twenty plans currently endorsed is estimated at US$4.9 billion. On average, national governments expect to fund 76% of this domestically (the range is from 37% to 83%). The total external support required is estimated at US$1.2 billion annually. However, only three of these twenty countries have a population of over 20 million. The FTI expects twenty-five other countries to submit and obtain endorsement of their plans by the end of 2008. Their total annual external requirement is estimated at US$2.7 billion.

Of the twenty-seven remaining countries in the low-income category on the OECD-DAC list, several have very large populations (Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Nigeria, Pakistan, Uganda, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia). Others, such as Côte d’Ivoire, Haiti, Somalia and Sudan, are in conflict or are regarded as ‘fragile’ in some way. The combination of several highly populated low-income countries with many whose educational infrastructure is in poor condition will translate into very large expenditure needs. These ‘revised’ estimates, then – at least US$9 billion a year to approach universal primary education in all countries by 2015, at least US$11 billion a year to progress towards the other EFA goals as well – appear conservative.

The share of basic education in total ODA for low-income countries will need to more than double if there is to be accelerated progress towards the goals. Such an increase will not occur automatically. As Figure 4.6 showed, education’s share of total ODA that is allocated to sectors
increased from 10.6% to 13.6% between 2000 and 2004. Over the same period, the share for basic education in the education sector’s total allocation increased from less than one-third to about twofifths. As a result, the amount for basic education in low-income countries in 2004 had increased significantly over previous years, but only to US$2.7 billion or about US$3.4 billion if half of all ‘level unspecified’ flows to the education sector and a portion of budget support are included. If, as recent international pledges suggest, the total amount of aid increases by 60% from its 2004 level by 2010, and the share to basic education remains constant, the total allocation for basic education will be US$5.4 billion, less than half of the US$11 billion estimated requirement. The share of basic education in total ODA for low-income countries will need to more than double 9. The 2006 Report put the minimum number of illiterate adults at 771 million and estimated that making 550 million of them literate through programmes to 2015 would require around US$2 billion a year. Here we assume half of this would be financed by aid.

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While the general outlook for an increased level of ODA is favourable, including the portion for supporting sector activities, the competition for it is increasing. This competition takes several forms. First, evidence in recent government poverty reduction programmes indicates that the emphasis on education, health, water and other social expenditure is increasingly accompanied by more focus on infrastructure and other activities regarded as contributing more directly to economic growth. Second, the emphasis on secondary and tertiary education is increasing. While attention has been given internationally to attainment of the EFA goals, several countries whose primary school completion levels are still low plan a major expansion of their secondary and tertiary subsectors. Almost half of bilateral aid to education is allocated to tertiary education already, though much of it is for scholarships to attend donor institutions.

The overall size of the financing gap and the increasing competition are not the only problems. While the multilateral development banks, the UN agencies and, to a lesser extent, the EC work almost exclusively with low-income countries, the bilateral donors, whose programmes constitute three-quarters of total ODA, distribute their resources very unequally. While some countries have ten or more active donors in the education sector, many more have two or fewer (Table 4.5), and the trend among bilateral donors is to reduce the number of countries in which they have programmes. Eight of the first twenty countries whose plans were endorsed by the FTI have a maximum of two donors. If bilateral donors continue directing their support to smaller numbers of countries, more resources must be channelled to the FTI Catalytic Fund, to some new mechanism with a global reach or to the multilateral agencies, if the aid that becomes available for education is to be used in the countries where the need is greatest.

The volatility and short-term nature of aid were discussed earlier. It is particularly important
for governments to be able to count on the sustainability of resources to support their education sector initiatives. Countries need help to expand enrolments rapidly while at the same time providing the conditions that lead to lower dropout rates and higher learning achievement. Schools and other infrastructure need to be built now, teacher-training colleges need to be up and running now, curriculum reform and material design need to be undertaken now. The recent United Kingdom commitment of US$15 billion for education over the next decade is encouraging. The gesture inspired the finance and education ministers of twenty African countries, meeting in Abuja, Nigeria, in June 2006, to develop ten-year education programmes by September 2006. Several have already been prepared for the FTI and, overall, it would probably be best to continue using the FTI rather than to develop new processes and mechanisms.

In addition to increased aid levels and more effective management of aid processes, more emphasis needs to be given to evaluating education activities and programmes supported by donors. For governments, it is in their interest to understand more systematically the nature, level and causes of changes resulting from expenditure. For donors, it is likely that their own citizens will increasingly demand evidence of results as increases in aid budgets are proposed.

Conclusion

At US$11 billion a year, the price tag for fulfilling the EFA agenda is higher than originally expected. Even if aid promises are met, the resources allocated for basic education will be inadequate if the current share of education in total aid and its distribution across levels and income groups are maintained, and further harmonization does not occur. The share of total aid going to basic education must at least double and be more focused on low-income countries rather than on middle-income ones. Aid modalities need to be further streamlined, and competition from the full Millennium Development Goals agenda and the infrastructure lobby addressed. Developing countries must demonstrate that their education
sectors are capable of absorbing the aid required. A closer alignment of donor activities with national programmes and other changes in the way aid is delivered are needed to minimize risks arising from growing aid dependence. The FTI continues to develop the frameworks to bring together credible education sector plans and additional external resources. Greater efforts will be needed internationally to convince donors to increase the volume and predictability of aid for basic education. Governments of low-income countries must be persuaded to give greater priority to education in their discussions with donors, and to allocate to it a greater share of the savings from debt relief. The price tag for the EFA agenda is US$11 billion a year.
Nutrition makes for better learning: mealtime at a pre-school in Johannesburg, South Africa.
PART III. Early childhood care and education
Chapter 5
The compelling case for ECCE
The early childhood years set the foundations for life. Ensuring that young children have positive experiences, that their rights are guaranteed and that their needs for health, stimulation and support are met is crucial to their well-being and development. In a context where family and community structures are evolving and countries are going through rapid social and economic changes, early childhood programmes complement the roles of parents and other carers in raising children during the early years. After discussing the rights of children, this chapter reviews the evidence on the multiple benefits of early childhood programmes: easier transition to primary, better completion rates, reduced poverty, increased social equality and high economic returns. It makes the case for expanding and improving ECCE programmes in order to meet EFA goal 1. Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2007 105
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CHAPTER 5

Early childhood in a changing world

All societies have arrangements for taking care of and educating their young children. These arrangements have evolved over time and are diverse across cultures, in keeping with differences in family and community structures, and the social and economic roles of men and women (Blumberg, 2006). However, current social and economic trends are disrupting many existing child care arrangements. In Central and Eastern Europe, and Central Asia, the transition from planned to market economies has led to the breakdown of institutions that took care of young children while their parents were at work. In developing countries, urbanization, work-driven migration and the increasing participation of women in the labour market are transforming family structures. The prevalence of nuclear families, in which fewer adults are available to take care of young children, is increasing, while extended families are declining. Armed conflict, the HIV/AIDS pandemic and environmental degradation have resulted in large numbers of orphans and, more generally, of families confronted with major difficulties in the upbringing of young children.

Expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education (ECCE), especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children can help to meet these challenges. Early childhood programmes may include basic health and nutrition interventions, such as vaccination campaigns; parenting programmes, through which parents receive support and advice; and various centre-based activities, ranging from crèches for very young children to pre-primary schools that lay the foundations for primary schooling. They can help compensate for disruption of societal arrangements and ensure that young children’s rights and interests are promoted; they can also contribute to the wellbeing of families and societies. Their aim should
not be to substitute for the care provided by young children's primary carers – who may include parents and other family or community members – but to improve and supplement it when needed. There is less consensus among policy-makers about the need for early childhood programmes than there is about the desirability of achieving universal primary education. Although the 738 million children aged 0 to 5 represented 11% of the world's population in 2005 (see Chapter 6), early childhood programmes either are universal or cover at least two-thirds of the population in only a minority of countries, mostly developed and transition ones. Moreover, some developed countries, notably the United States, do not provide for universal coverage. In many developing countries, especially those of sub-Saharan Africa, early childhood programmes are available only to a small fraction of the population, typically affluent urban families. For instance, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, with 12 million children aged 0 to 6, has only 1,200 pre-primary schools, and 60% of these are private schools located in the capital province of Kinshasa, where just 10% of the total population lives (Youdi, 2005).

This chapter makes the case for early childhood programmes. First, young children have rights, and early childhood programmes are one instrument to guarantee that these rights are respected. Second, research on human development emphasizes that young children have specific needs and that the extent to which these are satisfied affects the outcomes of their development into youth and adults. In this developmental perspective, participation in early childhood programmes is beneficial because it leads to improved outcomes, including better nutrition, health and education, in both the short and the long run. Moreover, from an economic point of view, investment in early childhood programmes offers a high pay-off in human capital and there is a strong case for public intervention. Early childhood programmes not only benefit children and families, they reduce social inequality, and benefit communities and
societies at large. Most of the evidence presented in this chapter comes from programmes influenced by evolving perceptions of early childhood in Europe and North America; much more empirical research on programmes influenced by other traditions is needed.

Guaranteeing the intrinsic rights of young children

There are several human rights instruments specific to children’s rights. In 1959 the United Nations General Assembly adopted the Declaration of the Rights of the Child. Although not legally binding, the Declaration affirms some of the most basic principles of children’s intrinsic rights, including the provision of health care, Current social and economic trends are disrupting many existing child care arrangements.

1. According to UNAIDS (2006), there were 15.2 million AIDS orphans aged 0 to 17 in 2005, 12 million of whom lived in sub-Saharan Africa.

2. It should be noted, though, that the regional gross enrolment ratio in pre-primary education for Latin America and the Caribbean is close to two-thirds at 62%.

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housing, social security, education, and protection from neglect, cruelty and exploitation.
In 1989, the United Nations General Assembly adopted the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), the most widely ratified human rights treaty in the world. As a legally binding instrument, the Convention marks the beginning of a new stage for children’s rights during which new international standards need to be translated into domestic laws and practices.3 The CRC has since served as an example for human rights documents such as the 1990 African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child and the 1996 European Convention on the Exercise of Children’s Rights. The CRC rests upon four major interdependent principles:
life, health and development (Articles 6, 24);
non-discrimination (Article 30);
consideration of the best interests of the child (Article 3);
the right to be heard (Article 12).
The Convention emphasizes child well-being as well as child development and calls upon States Parties to ensure that the views of children are given due weight in accordance with their age and maturity (Article 12). Children should be guided in a manner consistent with their ‘evolving capacities’ in the exercise of their rights (Article 5). The CRC emphasizes the right of all children to education and calls for primary education to be made compulsory and available free to all (Article 28). It also calls for parties to provide assistance to parents and legal guardians in their child-rearing responsibilities, and to make childcare services and facilities available, especially to working parents (Article 18) (OHCHR, 1989).
Providing ECCE of good quality is a powerful means of guaranteeing the rights of young children, especially those who are vulnerable and disadvantaged.
Using the Convention on the Rights of the Child to promote early childhood
programmes
The CRC itself has few provisions specific to the youngest age group. Recently, however, a broader discussion has developed on how to apply child rights in early childhood. In 2005 the Committee on the Rights of the Child put early childhood on its agenda, noting that young children have particular needs for nurturing, care and guidance. The working document that emerged (OHCHR, 2005) gives a clearer understanding of the human rights of all young children and the obligations of parties to fulfil them. It gives a working definition of early childhood as from birth to age 8, encompassing ‘all young children: at birth and throughout infancy; during the pre-school years; as well as during the transition to school’.
The committee warns in particular about discrimination against young children through such practices as inadequate feeding, selective abortion, genital mutilation and neglect. It also mentions discrimination against children with disabilities, infected or affected by HIV/AIDS, and on the basis of ethnic origin, class or caste (Paragraph 11, a and b). Parties are reminded of their obligation to develop comprehensive policies covering health, care and education for young children. The document also states that parties should provide assistance to parents and carers, including provision of parenting education, counselling and quality childcare services, backed up by monitoring systems (Paragraphs 20, 21) (OHCHR, 2005). The document specifies that early childhood education should be directly linked to children’s right to develop their personalities, talents and mental and physical abilities from birth. Early childhood development programmes are among several activities to meet young children’s right to education. These activities may be home- or community-based, or they may be pre-school programmes. They should allow for empowerment and education of parents and other carers.
The committee actively monitors national progress in children’s rights, including those
of early childhood (Box 5.1).

Tensions between a universal standard and culturally specific contexts

The CRC establishes a universal standard. While the CRC recognizes parents as having primary responsibility for their children, it also makes clear that parents are expected to give ‘appropriate’ direction to and guidance on children’s active exercise of their rights. This has been interpreted by some to mean that parents are supposed to adapt their actions to reflect the rights of the child as coded in the CRC and that children’s evolving capacity to exert autonomy over their lives and to exercise their rights has greater weight than the parents’ right to decide what is best for the child.

3. General Assembly

Resolution 44/25 of 20 November 1989 adopted the convention, which entered into force on 2 September 1990, after ratification by twenty parties. Two optional protocols (on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography, and on the involvement of children in armed conflict) entered into force in 2004. As of May 2006, 192 countries and territories had ratified the CRC, the latest being Timor-Leste (2003).

4. The committee monitors implementation of the CRC, meeting three times a year to examine national reports. NGOs and national human rights institutions representing children’s rights are encouraged to submit comments on the national reports.

5. A non-binding ‘General Comment’ called
‘Implementing Child Rights in Early Education’, it draws attention to rights and needs in early childhood and comments on the need to formulate policies, laws and practices that focus specifically on early childhood.

The Convention on the Rights of the Child is the most widely ratified human rights treaty in the world.
The African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child adds an extra dimension by imposing upon the child a duty to work ‘for the cohesion of the family, to respect his parents, superiors and elders at all times and to assist them in time of need’ (Organization of African Unity, 1990). A similar provision had been proposed for the CRC, but was rejected on grounds that the CRC was not an appropriate instrument through which to impose duties upon children (Alston et al., 2005).

The CRC also establishes a direct relationship between the child and the state. The state is empowered to intervene on behalf of the child if the child’s best interests are at stake. Although the Convention has stressed the importance of the role of parents, some countries, including the United States, have objected to these provisions, arguing from a need to find a balance between children’s and parents’ rights on the one hand, and concern about public intrusion into the private domain on the other. Indeed, Somalia and the United States are the only signatory parties that have not ratified the CRC (Alston et al., 2005). These examples reflect the difficulties of adopting a universal normative framework. Nevertheless, the near universal adoption of the CRC and its procedures of accountability through periodic monitoring by the United Nations give the CRC a status that few other international treaties can match. Despite its imperfections and its generalities, the CRC has undeniably helped shape policies to protect children’s rights, including, most recently, those of early childhood.

Early childhood: a sensitive period

Children’s physical and psychological development is shaped by their experiences during the first years of life. This intuitive idea has been amply confirmed by research. Indeed, there is a long history of philosophical and scientific interest in early childhood, and its impact on human development, in fields as diverse as biology, psychology, sociology,
anthropology and economics, as well as in applied research on education, social policy, health, law and development studies.

A broad consensus has emerged among those who share this ‘developmental perspective’ on early childhood: Young children’s physical, mental, social and emotional functioning differs from that of older children and adults, and comprises distinctive stages and milestones of development. Numerous progressive transformations occur in children’s physical, mental, cognitive and socio-emotional facilities from earliest infancy to the beginning of schooling. These transformations mark the acquisition of skills and capacities, ways of relating, communicating, learning and playing.

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In 2005 and 2006, early childhood policies in Ghana were the focus of an exchange among the Government of Ghana, local NGOs and the Committee on the Rights of the Child. NGOs made a case for fundamental issues such as birth registration, data collection and effective administrative mechanisms for early childhood. The subsequent government report to the committee emphasized: improved data management for children’s statistics, in particular through an increase in the number of assistants regularly visiting communities to register births and deaths; establishment of an Early Childhood Care and Development (ECCD) Policy and the formation of thirty-seven ECCD District Committees, along with a National Coordinating Committee playing an advisory role and coordinating implementation; inclusion of ECCD in mainstream basic education: the 2003 Strategic Plan of the Ministry of Education made pre-schools (starting from age 4) part of the Ghana Education Service and attached to every primary school. The Ghana NGO Coalition on the Rights of the Child (2005) commented that: data in areas relevant to children’s rights are inadequate or unavailable because systems for data collection, collation and analysis are not in place; an overlap in ministry mandates (e.g. both the Ministry of Women and Children’s Affairs and the Ministry of Education contribute to early childhood policy-making) has the effect of delaying adoption of policy measures.

Finally, the Committee on the Rights of the Child, recommended that: Ghana should strengthen its system of data collection, e.g. by setting up an efficient birth registration system that covers the
entire country and pays special attention to abandoned children
and to asylum seeker and refugee children;
budgetary allocations should be prioritized and increased, so that
all levels of CRC implementation can be maintained;
effective interministerial coordination of activities related to CRC
implementation should be achieved (the committee noted that, at
local level, capacity limitations on the part of district assemblies
hamper implementation).
Sources: Committee on the Rights of the Child (2006a, 2006b, 2006c, 2006d);
Box 5.1: Monitoring progress in children’s rights:
Ghana’s example
6. See Woodhead (2006),
on which this section is
based, for a critical account
of the research, and
Chartier and Geneix (2006)
for a historical account of
the development of early
childhood programmes,
linked to the evolution
of the understanding of
childhood in Europe.
Early childhood is the period when humans are most dependent on secure, responsive relationships with others (adults, siblings and peers) to assure not just their survival but also their emotional security, social integration, and cognitive skills.

Young children’s development is especially sensitive to negative effects from early undernutrition, deprivation of care and of responsive parenting, and ill treatment. If children’s basic needs are not met, or they are maltreated or abused, the repercussions are often felt throughout childhood and into adulthood.

While early development can be summarized in terms of universal general principles, the development pathways vary and are linked to individual capacities and special needs, gender, ethnicity, and economic, social and cultural circumstances.

Neurobiology and other brain research fields have been especially influential in recent decades, as they have highlighted the role of the early years in the formation of the human brain (Center for Early Education and Development, 2002; Mustard, 2002, 2005). Brain cell connectors (synapses) form rapidly in the first few years of life: the density of synapses peaks at age 3, after which comes a plateau and then a period of elimination, when the density decreases to adult levels. Because of this pattern of synapse formation, the first three years of life are the most important for brain development. Moreover, research has shown that:

- the overall environment (physical and emotional) within which the child is raised has an impact on brain development;
- early exposure to toxic substances such as nicotine, alcohol and drugs can have devastating effects on the developing brain, particularly during pregnancy when the brain is being formed;
- a negative experience or the absence of appropriate stimulation is more likely to have
serious and sustained effects on a young child than on older children.
For very specific aspects of brain development, certain ‘critical periods’ exist before age 3, during which adequate stimulation must be received or development is impaired, in some cases permanently. For instance, the absence of a reasonable amount of light in the first weeks after birth alters the development of the visual system (e.g. development of binocularity is not possible). Similarly, a child who never hears language, or receives extremely poor care (as in some orphanages), will likely suffer developmental deficits. Such effects have led some to envisage the first years of life as an extended critical period, a window of opportunity for development, closed by age 3.
Researchers still have much to learn, however, about the persistence of such effects and the ability of the brain to overcome them. Furthermore, the brain continues to grow and mature well into adolescence. Hence, the idea of a window of opportunity closing by age 3 is difficult to support. In general, although some critical periods do exist, the concept of ‘sensitive periods’ is more relevant to understanding early childhood (Bailey, 2002; Horton, 2001). Sensitive periods are times in development when the absence of some kind of stimulus results in development going awry. Sensitive periods are generally longer than critical periods and characterized by more flexibility in the timing of input or experience to the brain and in the brain’s ability to learn and develop over time. Thus, it may never be too late to acquire a skill (as the notion of a critical period implies), but acquiring it early is preferable. For example, adults are certainly able to learn a second language, but it is less intuitive for them than for young children, and they typically do not learn it as well.
Early childhood programmes can enhance development
The understanding of early childhood as a time of sensitive periods leads naturally to the notion that early childhood programmes can supplement the care and education that young children receive.
at home, in their families and communities. Moreover, recent publications (France and Utting, 2005; Luthar, 2003; Masten, 2001) emphasize the flexibility and adaptability of humans, as well as their resilience to trauma. This implies that early childhood programmes can not only benefit all children but also compensate for young children’s negative experiences as a result of conflict (within the family or society) and nutritional or emotional deprivation. To sum up, participation in comprehensive early childhood programmes of good quality can significantly alter the developmental trajectory of a child. Health, nutrition and education are areas where such benefits have been consistently identified. The first three years of life are the most important for brain development.
Good health and nutrition: building blocks for development

Young children are particularly fragile. Reducing infant and child mortality has long been a key public health priority. Vaccination campaigns have reduced child mortality considerably, yet more than 10 million children aged 5 or under still die every year. More than half die from one of five transmittable diseases that can be prevented or treated: diarrhoea, pneumonia, malaria, measles and HIV/AIDS. (Box 5.2 discusses the impact of HIV/AIDS on young children.) Extending the provision of safe drinking water and proper sanitation would reduce infant and child mortality dramatically, especially when complemented by parenting programmes that facilitate improvements in breastfeeding and weaning practices. Whether formally classified as ECCE or not, measures designed to reduce mortality are certainly a first step towards establishing comprehensive early childhood programmes.

The case for including health and nutrition components in early childhood programmes is broader than just assuring survival. For instance, undernutrition – severe or chronic lack of essential nutrients, resulting in height or weight below normal – impairs the development of large numbers of children. Undernutrition has a negative impact on cognitive development, including language skills, both in the short term and until adolescence or adulthood; on motor development; and on socio-emotional development.

Four types of intervention have been identified in rigorous experimental studies as having a major impact on outcomes such as attention, IQ (as variously defined) and language development. These are iron supplements, deworming, nutritional supplements and psychosocial stimulation of malnourished children. Their effects were measured in the short term and mostly in children who initially suffered from iron
deficiency or undernutrition, rather than the
More than
10 million
children aged 5
or under still
die every year
7. This is based
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Each day 1,800 children become infected with HIV
(UNAIDS, 2006). Children may contract HIV during
the mother’s pregnancy, labour, delivery or during
breastfeeding. Other routes of infection are blood
transfusion, use of contaminated syringes and
needles, and sexual abuse. Children with HIV suffer
from common childhood diseases more frequently
than other children, with greater intensity and often
with less responsiveness to drugs. Illnesses that are
rarely fatal in healthy children cause high mortality in
those with HIV. Without antiretroviral therapy, the
disease progresses rapidly and 45% of HIV-infected
children die before age 2. To reduce the impact of HIV
infection, early diagnosis is required, and the child
should receive good nutrition, appropriate
immunizations and drug therapy for common
childhood infections.
Research has documented the negative impact
of HIV/AIDS on children’s education:
Cognitive development: research in high-income
countries has demonstrated that HIV infections
are associated with lower IQ and academic
achievement, with weaker language skills in the late
pre-school and early school-age years, and with
poorer visual-motor functioning in older children.
These consequences are due in part to the effects
of HIV on cognitive development before children
enrol in school. Studies including children from
infancy to school age find that such deficits
in cognitive function can be reduced or reversed
with antiretroviral therapy.
Socio-emotional development: the adaptive
behaviour (skills required for everyday activities)
of children living with HIV improves after treatment.
School attendance: evidence is increasing of the
impact of the HIV/AIDS pandemic on children’s
schooling. Children from AIDS-afflicted families
suffer from the stigma attached to the disease, with some turned away from school. Probably the greatest effect of the disease on children’s education comes when one or both parents die. Few data exist on the impact of orphanhood on participation in early childhood programmes, but it is likely to be similar to that in primary school (see Box 3.3). Indeed, as user fees are more common for early childhood programmes than for primary schooling, the economic impact of parental death on school attendance may be greater. Access to treatment is thus crucial for young children. Early childhood programmes can play a role in the fight against the pandemic through provision of treatment and through efforts aimed at including affected children and compensating for the emotional and other consequences of the disease. 
Box 5.2: HIV/AIDS’s toll on young children
general child population. However, there is also evidence, from a smaller number of studies, of a long-term impact of pre-school health interventions on cognition. For example, a seminal study in Jamaica (Grantham-McGregor et al., 1991) found that the impact of psychosocial stimulation on cognitive ability could be traced until adolescence. Nutrition and education reinforce each other. Combined nutritional and educational interventions are more likely to be successful than interventions that focus on nutrition alone. Studies in Guatemala and Viet Nam (Watanabe et al., 2005) found that nutrition packages had a much larger and longer-lasting impact on children receiving sufficient cognitive stimulation. An important implication is that, where health or nutrition problems commonly recur (for example, with seasonal variations in nutritional intake or disease transmission, or where communities are constantly exposed to diseases for which no simple preventive measures exist), educational interventions are as important as those for health. Undernutrition has a negative impact on school participation and achievement. Studies in Pakistan (Alderman et al., 2001), the Philippines (Mendez and Adair, 1999) and the United Republic of Tanzania (Jukes, Forthcoming) have shown that stunted children (those who are short for their age) are less likely to enrol in school, and more likely to enrol later and to drop out. Poverty explains part of this correlation – children from poor families are more likely both to be undernourished and to remain out of school – but there is also a direct, causal impact of undernutrition on schooling. Parents of stunted children may consider them less mature and favour their healthier siblings instead in enrolment decisions. Stunted children may also find it more difficult to walk to school and, once there, may suffer from discrimination and stigma. Given the links between health and nutrition, on the one hand, and education on the other,
a holistic view of child development is gaining ground, with early childhood programmes designed to address both issues. For example, a programme providing iron supplementation and deworming treatment resulted in increased attendance at pre-schools in Delhi, India (Bobonis et al., Forthcoming). A pre-school feeding programme in Kenya had a similar impact (Vermeersch and Kremer, 2004).

ECCE participation improves primary school attendance and performance. The positive impact of ECCE programme participation on education at the primary level and beyond is well documented (Arnold, 2004; Bertrand and Beach, 2004; Mustard, 2005; Young, 1996, 2002). Such programmes can enhance physical well-being and motor development, social and emotional development, language development and basic cognitive skills. ECCE programmes can improve school readiness; make enrolment in the first grade of primary school more likely; reduce delayed enrolment, dropout and grade repetition; and increase completion and achievement. Effects of participation in ECCE programmes on the acquisition of both cognitive and non-cognitive skills have also been identified.

The most robust evidence comes from the evaluation of particular programmes in both developed and developing countries. Pre-school experience in the United Kingdom resulted in improved measures of intellectual development, independence, concentration and sociability during the first three years of primary schooling (Sylva et al., 2004). The benefits were higher the longer children participated in pre-school.

In a disadvantaged district of Nepal more than 95% of children attending an ECCE programme went on to primary school, compared to 75% of non-participants; the grade 1 repetition rate of participants was one-seventh that of nonparticipants; they had significantly higher marks on grade 1 exams (Arnold et al., 2000). The Turkish Early Enrichment Project in low-income, low-education areas of Istanbul, comprising parenting skills and pre-schooling, resulted in
86% of the children still being in school after seven years, compared with 67% for nonparticipants. Over the long run, participant children had higher school attainment, were more likely to attend university, began working at a later age and had higher occupational status (Kagitcibasi et al., 2001).

Participants in a Myanmar ECCE programme were more likely to enrol in primary school and had better exam results and test scores over the first three years of schooling (Lwin et al., 2004). Children who had attended pre-school in Kenya, Uganda and Zanzibar (in the United Republic of Tanzania) had better language skills than nonparticipants and achieved better results in school until grade 4 (Mwaura, 2005, 2006). Controlling for GDP, the higher an African country’s pre-primary

8. This is based on Arnold et al. (2006).

A holistic view of child development is gaining ground
enrolment ratio, the higher its primary school completion rate and the lower its primary school repetition rate (Mingat and Jaramillo, 2003; Arnold, 2004). The impact of ECCE is stronger for children from poor families in terms of lower dropout and repetition rates than those for more advantaged children (Arnold, 2004). The benefits of making young children ready for primary schooling through participation in early childhood programmes are further enhanced if primary schools recognize that pupils in the first two or three grades are still young children and adopt friendly teaching methods and curricula. Chapter 7 looks more closely at young children’s school readiness and how primary schools can be made ‘ready for children’.

Investing in early childhood pays off. ECCE programmes can thus result in improved health, nutrition and education outcomes, and these persist to some extent in the long term. From an economic perspective, therefore, it is natural to consider these programmes as investments in human capital, and to try to compare their benefits with their costs. Are ECCE programmes profitable investments? How do they compare with other investments in human capital, notably those made at other levels of education?

Studies of the costs and benefits of specific programmes in the United States (Box 5.3) show that the returns to investment in ECCE programmes are positive. Indeed, they are higher than those of other educational interventions: the horizon over which the returns to ECCE investments are reaped is longer than for those targeting older children, youth or adults; and the skills acquired through participation in ECCE programmes are a foundation for further learning. This point has been made repeatedly in recent years by Nobel-winning economist James Heckman (2000, 2006; Heckman and Carneiro, 2003).
Comparably rigorous evaluations of early childhood programmes in developing countries are less available, but evidence has started accumulating over the past decade. A pre-school health programme in Delhi increased average school participation by 7.7 percentage points. The impact of ECCE is stronger for children from poor families.

The following discussion is based on Jukes (2006).

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Rigorous evaluation of the returns to investment in early childhood programmes requires longitudinal data (following programme participants over the long run) coupled with an intervention framework in which comparisons between participants and non-participants are not biased by selection effects. Much of the evidence cited in the literature comes from a small number of experiments conducted in the United States. The best known is the High/Scope Perry Preschool programme of 1962–67 in Ypsilanti, Michigan (Schweinhart et al., 2005). In the study, 58 of 123 low-income African-American children assessed to be at high risk of school failure were randomly assigned to a group that took part in a high-quality pre-school programme at ages 3 and 4; the remaining 65 children constituted a control group. All were assessed annually until age 11, and several times later in life, most recently at age 40. Comparisons between the programme and control groups suggest that participation in the programme led to increased IQ at age 5 (67% vs 28% above 90); enhanced success at school, including higher rates of graduation from secondary school (65% vs 45%); and higher earnings at age 40 (60% vs 40% earning more than US$20,000 a year). Detailed cost-benefit analysis suggests that the programme cost US$15,166 per participant and yielded US$258,888 (in constant 2000 dollars) — a 17.1 : 1 benefit/cost ratio.

A major qualification is that this extremely high ratio is not representative of United States early childhood programmes in general. It pertains to a
small-scale experiment conducted in the 1960s that provided very high-quality care and education to children with an especially disadvantaged social background. For example, 66% of the return consisted of ‘crime savings’, the costs of legal procedures and incarceration that were avoided because participants committed fewer offences than non-participants. Even excluding crime savings, however, the other public returns to the programme (education savings, welfare savings and increased taxes due to higher earnings) and the private returns were high enough to yield a 5.8 : 1 benefit/cost ratio. Other thoroughly studied United States programmes include the Carolina Abecedarian Project (Barnett and Masse, forthcoming), the Chicago Child-Parent Centers (Temple and Reynolds, Forthcoming) and the Infant Health and Development Program (McCormick et al., 2006).

Box 5.3: Economic returns of ECCE programmes in the United States
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for girls and 3.2 for boys (Bobonis et al., Forthcoming). With output per worker in India estimated at US$1,037, and the returns to each additional year of education for girls in India at 5% and boys at 9%, among other considerations, the Delhi programme would increase the net present value of lifetime wages by US$29 per child while costing only US$1.70 per child, or US$2.06 counting the US$0.36 per child for teacher wages necessitated by the additional demand for education that the health programme would entail. Thus, the return in the labour market would be US$14.07 per dollar spent.

Other developing country studies, though lacking experimental design, also suggest high returns. In Bolivia the Proyecto Integral de Desarrollo Infantil, a home-based programme of early childhood development and nutrition, had benefit/cost ratios between 2.4:1 and 3.1:1, with higher ratios for children from groups with high infant mortality, high malnutrition and low school enrolment (Van der Gaag and Tan, 1998). Other economic analyses in Colombia and Egypt find ratios of about 3:1, and the benefits in Egypt could be as high as 5.8:1 if ECCE programmes are targeted to children most at risk (Arnold, 2004).

In summary, while rigorous research (i.e. relying on experimental design and longitudinal data) on benefit/cost ratios for ECCE programmes is still limited, existing studies show high returns. United States programmes studied showed returns higher than those to other educational interventions. Evidence from developing countries also suggests strong returns but so far has been based on less rigorous analysis.

Early intervention can reduce inequalities
Even before quantitative evidence started accumulating on the impact of good quality early childhood programmes on child development, proponents of such programmes were concerned with the possibility of reducing social inequality. Their argument, now supported by research,
is that intervention during the early years can compensate for vulnerability and disadvantage, regardless of underlying factors such as poverty, gender, race/ethnicity, caste or religion. Thus, the large United States public early childhood project Head Start was launched in 1964 as part of the ‘War on Poverty’ on the basis of theoretical work challenging conventional class- and race-based beliefs about inherited abilities and pointing to the formative significance of the early years (Hunt, 1961). The underlying assumption was that targeted intervention could compensate for less favourable family and community background. This premise has since been empirically verified. The High/Scope study cited in Box 5.3 is an example of a programme that helped level the playing field for disadvantaged children as they entered primary school. Other United States studies demonstrating that the benefits of early childhood programmes are higher for marginalized children include the STAR experiment in Tennessee (Krueger and Whitmore, 2001, 2002). Although most studies in developing countries have not used experimental design, research in such diverse places as Cape Verde, Egypt, Guinea, Jamaica and Nepal have consistently found that most disadvantaged children benefit from ECCE programmes.10 Early childhood programmes can also reduce gender inequality. In some cases, the impact of participation on health has been found to be higher for girls than for boys (Jukes, 2006); indeed, early childhood programmes can compensate for the priority that is given to boys in access to basic health care in some societies. Similarly, girls who participate in early childhood programmes are much more likely to begin school at the appropriate age and complete primary school than girls who do not (Arnold, 2004). Among Nepalese children who took part in an ECCE programme, an equal proportion of girls and boys began first grade, compared with 39% of girls and 61% of boys who did not participate (Arnold et al., 2000). Access to early childhood programmes is relatively gender-equal in a majority of countries (see Chapter 6).
It is important to preserve this equality, especially when scaling up projects that have previously reached mostly families of privileged backgrounds. Above all, the impact of early childhood programmes on gender inequality depends on how children are socialized in these programmes, and on pedagogy and curriculum (see Chapter 7).

The differential impact of ECCE programmes on the disadvantaged, whether poor children or girls, is an important argument for targeting programmes, especially when resources are constrained. Yet, targeting can be controversial. It is not always free of the patronizing idea that the poor cannot raise their children satisfactorily.

10. See Arnold (2004) for a review.

Early childhood programmes can also reduce gender inequality.
or of the belief that science-based social engineering alone can solve the political issues that generate vulnerability and disadvantage. However, there is much scope for levelling the playing field through universal programmes providing the same health and nutrition services, educational experiences and socialization to all young children, whatever their social backgrounds.

Whether countries focus on targeted interventions or aim for universal ECCE coverage probably depends on political and cultural factors (see Chapter 8). Whatever the policy, there is consistent evidence that the benefits of early childhood programmes are high for vulnerable and disadvantaged children, facilitating the reduction of social inequality. Indeed, many of the studies documenting the benefits, including several mentioned above, stem from policies or experiments intended to support young children from disadvantaged backgrounds. As James Heckman observes: ‘it is a rare public policy initiative that promotes fairness and social justice and at the same time promotes productivity in the economy and in society at large. Investing in disadvantaged young children is such a policy’ (Heckman, 2006: p. 2).

Conclusion
This chapter has reviewed the benefits of early childhood programmes. It concludes that the case for ‘expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children’, in the words of EFA goal 1, is compelling: programmes of high quality have the potential to improve the health and nutrition of young children, to prepare them for elementary schooling, to guarantee that their rights are respected and to reduce inequality. Clearly it is time to devote increased attention to ECCE. Chapter 6 reviews its provision around the world and Chapters 7 and 8 look at the way ECCE programmes are designed, function and
managed, while also examining the broader policy frameworks in place for achieving goal 1. It is time to devote increased attention to ECCE.

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Early days in a state-run kindergarten in Budapest, Hungary, 1948.
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Chapter 6
Worldwide progress in early childhood care and education

This chapter first examines the changing contexts — smaller households, more working women, maternity benefits, new gender roles — in which the provision of care and education for young children has historically evolved. It then assesses national progress towards the ECCE goal for three groups: children under age 3, those between age 3 and the primary school entry age, and vulnerable and disadvantaged children. Finally, the chapter characterizes the type, composition and professional status of the carers and educators in ECCE programmes. Among the chapter’s main findings: many countries lack programmes addressing the diverse needs (health, nutrition, care, education) of children under 3; few countries have established national frameworks to coordinate ECCE programmes; access to pre-primary education has expanded worldwide, but coverage in sub-Saharan Africa and the Arab States remains low; and children from poorer and rural households enjoy fewer ECCE opportunities than those from richer and urban ones.
Households, children and early childhood provision
How countries provide for the care and education of young children varies greatly and cannot be neatly organized into a succinct typology. Rather, as a result of historical processes, diverse child care arrangements and education programmes have developed in each country and region. Changes in household structures, fertility levels and the social roles of women have been especially influential in shaping ECCE provision. Changing household and family structures
Households and families are the first organizers of the care and upbringing of their young offspring. Since the 1850s, the average household size in Europe and North America has fallen by half, reaching 2.5 to 3.0 members in recent years. The numbers of both children and adults per household have decreased because of lower fertility rates and a trend away from more complex household structures towards the nuclear family. Surveys carried out in forty-three developing countries during the 1990s showed average household sizes ranging from 4.8 members in Latin America to 5.6 in the Middle East and North Africa (Bongaarts, 2001). Changes in household size also reflect changes in their composition. The larger the household, the less likely it will be a nuclear family and, once it exceeds 5.5 members, the lower will be the ratio of adults to children. As well as size and composition, a key factor is whether the adults work outside the home. When children under age 6 are raised in households where all working-age adults are employed, the availability of other household members becomes critical to the provision of early childhood care (Heymann, 2002). Another change is the growing number of single-parent, especially mother-headed, households. In the European Union, for example, the number of single-parent families grew by
58% between 1983 and 1996, and in some countries (e.g. Ireland and United Kingdom) it doubled (Prud’homme, 2003). In every Latin American country, the incidence of femaleheaded households in urban areas rose during the 1990s (Chant, 2004). Throughout much of sub-Saharan Africa, surveys point to declines in marriage rates and the growing prevalence of single motherhood (Mookodi, 2000). The nature and patterns of parent-child interactions in households headed by single mothers may differ from those in two-parent households in ways that have implications for the children’s future development.

The changing demographics and regional diversity of young children
The number of young children below primary school entrance age defines the potential demand for early childhood programmes.1 Between 1970 and 1990 the world’s population aged 0 to 5 increased from 617 million to 744 million. It then slowly declined and stands now at 738 million. Another increase is projected, however, and by 2020 it is expected to reach 776 million (Table 6.1). In the developed and transition countries, as well as the East Asia and Pacific region, declines in the early childhood population were already evident in the 1970s. In Latin America and the Caribbean and, to a lesser extent, in South and West Asia, the population of young children has stabilized. By contrast, in sub-Saharan Africa and the Arab States their number continues to grow, although at a more moderate pace since 1990.

The stabilization and, in some cases, decline of the early childhood population reflect both lower fertility levels and higher mean ages at first marriage, which are influenced by growing family planning provision, women’s participation in the labour force and the rise in their levels of educational attainment. UN population projections indicate that moderate growth or decline in the early childhood population will continue in coming decades, except in sub-Saharan Africa, where the number of young children is expected to increase by 35 million
by 2020.
The changing demographics of early childhood can be viewed not only in absolute terms, but also as the share of the total population (Table 6.2). Worldwide, the ratio of children below age 6 to the total population has decreased from 17% in 1970 to 11% today. This decrease is apparent in all regions, and notably in East Asia and the Pacific where the relative share of the early childhood population declined from 19% to 9% as fertility levels dropped sharply in urban areas of China. Less pronounced decreases occurred in all other developing regions except sub-Saharan Africa, where the share remained virtually unchanged at about one young child per five inhabitants.

Changes in the social roles of women have been influential in shaping ECCE.

1. In three-quarters of 203 countries and territories the official entrance age for primary education is 6 or earlier; in one-quarter of countries children begin school at 7 (in one case, 8). Especially in poorer countries where intake rates to primary education are low and pre-school provision limited, children under 6 are the main target population of ECCE programmes. Although the EFA Global Monitoring Report defines ‘early childhood’ as spanning ages 0 to 8, this chapter focuses on the 0 to 5 group as reflecting the normative age span before entry into primary education.
2. The early childhood share of the total population is affected by increased longevity. As adults live longer, even if more children are being born, the proportion of young children in the total population may stabilize or decline.

PART III. Early childhood care and education
Women’s employment, child-rearing and child care

Most cultures have defined child-rearing and child care as women’s work and belonging to the family sphere. The compatibility of woman’s productive activities with child care responsibility varies by economic system (Blumberg, 2006). In many households worldwide the care of young children is organized with the help of female kin or friends. Like mother-centred child-rearing, such care arrangements are informal.

Since the 1950s a growing number of women in developing and developed countries have become economically active. In 2005 the labour force participation rates for women were over 55% in East Asia, South-East Asia and sub-Saharan Africa, and about 50% in Latin America and the Caribbean (ILO, 2004). They were considerably lower in South Asia (35%) and the Arab States (28%). Increases in women’s nonagricultural employment have mainly occurred in certain labour market sectors – e.g. clerical, retail and other services – in relatively low status, insecure jobs. In professional and managerial positions, including positions of political authority, gender discrimination continues. Thus, women are overrepresented in non- and semi-professional work and receive lower salaries than men, in both developed and developing regions. In addition, a substantial percentage of women work in the informal sector, in which steady employment, job promotions and social security are tenuous at best (ILO, 2006a).

Worldwide, the ratio of children below age 6 to the total population has decreased from 17% in 1970 to 11% today.
Table 6.1: Change in population aged 0 to 5 since 1970 with projections to 2020 and regional distribution

Population aged 0 to 5 (millions)

Note: In Tables 6.1 and 6.2, data for East Asia and the Pacific refer to developing countries only; Australia, Japan and New Zealand are included in the developed country category. The total for developing countries is higher than the sum of the five regions because it also includes data for Bermuda, Cyprus, Israel, Mongolia and Turkey.


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Table 6.2: The share of children aged 0 to 5 in the total population worldwide and by region, 1970–2020

Population aged 0 to 5 (percentage of total population)

Note: See Table 6.1.

Comparative time-use surveys carried out since the mid-1990s show that, while women work more hours than men, their work tends to be in less visible, non-market activities (including child care), so the monetary value of their economic contribution to the household is less (UNDP, 2002, 2005). Moreover, in some countries (e.g. Singapore, Thailand), young women are expected to relinquish a significant portion of their wages to their parents. These patterns illustrate the complex status of economically active women whose activities are embedded in strong family networks. Despite their increased work-related activity, mothers continue to be the major direct providers of care to children. Fathers and other men have typically had limited involvement in the care and upbringing of young children. Recently established parental leave policies (see below) seek to redress this situation and to enhance fathers’ roles as carers.

In more developed countries, higher rates of female labour force participation are strongly associated with higher enrolment ratios in preschool programmes. In developing countries, however, the association between female employment patterns and pre-primary education is weaker (O’Connor, 1988). In contexts where most mothers work in agriculture, they tend to rely on other women in the community (aunts, grandmothers, co-wives and daughters) for child care support. In response to the predominantly male migration to urban centres in some countries, women have had to increase both their farming and domestic responsibilities. This additional work rarely allows women time to explore care and education options for children who in any case may now be needed more than ever at home. In some cases the feminization of farming is associated with an increase in child labour. Equally important to mothers’ increased economic activity is the impact on early childhood
of their relative control over economic resources. The greater the woman’s relative economic power and the level of adult gender equality within the family, the more likely that children’s welfare will be considered a priority in household decisions and that boys and girls will benefit equally from early childhood provision (Blumberg, 2006).

Overall, historical patterns suggest that mothers who work in the informal sector or who possess less economic power rely on relatives for child care or keep children with them during working hours. In such contexts, the welfare of male children often takes precedence over that of female children. Mothers with jobs in the formal sector, by contrast, are more apt to know about, and use, a wider range of options to assure their young children’s welfare. They are also more likely to use structured early childhood services, where available, and to treat boys and girls equally.

Maternity and parental leave policies supporting infant care

Historically, maternal and parental leave policies have enhanced the care and well-being of infants. Laws on maternity leave, initially linked to employment provision for sick leave, were first enacted more than a century ago to protect the health of working women and their babies at the time of childbirth.3 Supporters of maternal leave argued that relieving women of workplace pressure for a brief time before and after childbirth, while protecting their economic situation, would promote the physical well-being of both mothers and children.

Paid maternity leave was first established in Germany under Bismarck as part of a broad enactment of social insurance policies. By the First World War, thirteen countries had paid maternity leave policies and eight others had legislated unpaid maternal leave (Gauthier, 1996). By the 1970s, all major industrialized countries except Australia, Austria, Switzerland and the United States had enacted laws providing maternity leave during which all or part of the worker’s wages were replaced by benefits. In
some cases paid leave was supplemented by longer unpaid leave (or an extension at a lower payment level). Statutory leave was initially provided to mothers employed in certain occupations; later, coverage was extended to other occupations and, in some countries, to informal sector workers and the unemployed.4 The International Labour Organization (ILO) played an important role in promoting maternal leave policies (ILO, 1980, 1985). In 1919, the ILO adopted its first Maternity Protection Convention, which was significantly revised in 1952 and 2000. The first convention applied to all women working in industry and commerce,5 and stipulated entitlement to a maternity leave of twelve weeks (six before and six after childbirth, the latter being compulsory). The convention stated that while on leave women should receive a cash benefit that Mothers continue to be the major direct providers of care to children.


4. Maternity leave provisions resulting from collective bargaining or provided voluntarily by employers may supplement statutory provisions and raise the benefit level or extend the leave’s duration, or both.

5. In 1954, the convention was extended to women working in agriculture as well.

PART III. Early childhood care and education
would be at least two-thirds of their wage. The ILO reported that women had access to paid maternity leave in fifty-nine countries by 1960 and in more than a hundred countries by the 1980s (ILO, 1980, 1985). In 1999 a survey by the International Social Security Association reported that 128 countries of the 172 responding had some type of maternity leave provision (US Social Security Administration, 1999). During the 1960s and 1970s, the trend in most OECD countries was towards longer and more generous maternity leaves, with benefits replacing all or most of women’s wages. The current situation of maternal leaves in developing countries is examined later in this chapter.

In 1974 Sweden introduced parental leave, which enabled either the mother or the father (at the couple’s discretion) to take time off from work. Other Nordic countries later followed suit. Transition countries also have paid, job-protected parental leave, as well as extended child-rearing leave with varying benefit levels. Compared to most OECD countries, the duration of these leaves is long – e.g. three years in Hungary and Slovakia, four years in the Czech Republic. Not all leave policies were designed to meet the needs of working mothers or parents. In quite a few countries (e.g. Armenia, Georgia, Poland and Uzbekistan, and, to some extent, Austria, Finland and Germany), paid leave policies were designed to encourage low-skilled women to withdraw from the labour force during periods of high unemployment. In many cases these policies included subsidized home care of infants and toddlers by their mothers, rather than investment in more costly centre-based care (Kamerman and Kahn, 1991).

The emergence and formalization of early childhood provision

Europe and North America

Beginning in the nineteenth century European and North American countries started to organize more formal arrangements to care for, socialize and educate young children. The formalization
of early childhood provision evolved in response to multiple challenges, notably: addressing the needs of abandoned, deprived or neglected children and the children of poor working mothers; providing an enriching pre-school education for middle-class children; providing a safe and affordable environment for the children of working women. More recently, a fourth challenge has been added: to prepare young children for primary schooling. This objective, which necessarily implies a need for qualified professionals and state accreditation, could emerge only after the basic needs of most children (food, safety and care) were regularly met (Chartier and Geneix, 2006).

Until the eighteenth century, the only institutions involved in early childhood education were churches, which condemned infanticide and set up charitable orders to take in, baptize and raise abandoned children or orphans. Noting the marked improvement in such children’s life expectancy compared with those not thus sheltered (who often died within their first year), public authorities in some European countries organized limited health care for abandoned children, and placed them with rural families, generally until about the age of 13 (Jablonka, 2006). Few, if any, institutions catered to the whole of early childhood until bottle-feeding made wet nurses unnecessary in the midnineteenth century. Day nurseries welcomed abandoned or sick children, whereas crèches (nido in Italy, Krippe in Germany and ‘nursery’ in England) offered day care to healthy children (Chartier and Geneix, 2006).

In Europe, emergent approaches to early childhood education became embodied in model institutions founded by well-known educators. Examples include J. H. Pestalozzi and the Yverdon Institute (1805-1815), Andrew Bell and Joseph Lancaster’s monitorial system (1798-1810), the infant school founded by Robert Owen in Scotland (1816), Friedrich Fröbel’s Kindergarten at Blankenburg (1837)
and the scuole infantili of Father Ferrante Aporti at Cremona (1828). During the twentieth century, several exemplary institutions catering to young children – the Casa dei Bambini of Maria Montessori in Rome (1909), Ovide Decroly's École de l'Ermitage in Brussels, Roger Cousinet and Jean Piaget's Maison des petits in Geneva and A. S. Neill’s famous Summerhill School – attracted educators from near and far. They focused almost exclusively on well-cared-for children above the age of 3 – that is, clean, weaned children who could walk, talk and feed themselves (Chartier and Geneix, 2006).

The development of early childhood institutions throughout the nineteenth century in different parts of Europe reflected salient historical forces: industrialization, demand for

6. Sixteen weeks was the average basic paid leave, typically including six to eight weeks before and after childbirth. In almost half the countries the cash benefit replaced the full wage (or the maximum covered under social insurance). With some variation in benefit levels, this is the standard for maternity policies in the EU. In ninety-five of the countries (including all European ones), health and medical care is provided. Increasingly, in Europe, adoption is covered as well. In Europe, model institutions were founded by wellknown educators.
women workers, debate over ideological and political issues (e.g. custodial care vs early learning, provision for specific social classes vs all children). A great variety of early childhood institutions took root. For example, garderies in France, écoles gardiennes in Belgium, Spielschule in Germany, speelscholen in the Netherlands, ‘dame schools’ in Great Britain and scuole delle maestre in Italy provided basic care for the youngest children. Other schools, initially established by charitable, religious or philanthropic institutions, organized educational activities for young children. Examples include ‘infant schools’ in the United Kingdom, salles d’asile in France, Kleinkinder-Bewahranstalen in Germany, bewaarscholen in the Netherlands, escuelas de párvulos in Spain and scuole infantili in Italy. Many such schools were eventually taken over by government authorities. Non-religious kindergartens, supported by liberal or progressive movements, dispensed with early learning and emphasized free play, while targeting children from all social backgrounds (Chartier and Geneix, 2006).

In the United States early childhood institutions were rooted in two developments: day nurseries (equivalent to today’s child care or day care centres), first established in the 1830s under voluntary auspices and designed to care for the ‘unfortunate’ children of working mothers; and nursery schools, developing from the early education programmes established in Massachusetts in the 1830s and the later kindergarten programmes based on the work of Fröbel. Day nurseries – custodial in nature, and providing basic child care and supervision – became more numerous in the latter part of the nineteenth century due to rapid industrialization and massive immigration. Kindergartens and nursery schools slowly became more common during the nineteenth century, and their numbers underwent a significant increase in the 1920s as demand grew for a form of enriched experience.
for middle-class children (Kamerman and Gatenio Gabel, 2003; Kamerman and Kahn, 1976). During and after the Second World War, countries in Europe and North America began to reconsider the traditional role of early childhood policies and programmes (Berkovitch, 1999). In addition to providing protection for neglected children and enriching the education of middle class children, a third focus took shape. It revolved around the growing number of women in the formal labour force who wanted decent, affordable care for their young children. Increasingly, pre-schools were redesigned to adapt to the needs of working parents by providing basic child care during the workday and workweek (Kamerman, 2005). In some cases, governments facilitated increased female labour force participation by developing a standard public pre-school system. Maternal and parental leave policies (as noted above) were developed to accommodate a mother’s right to care for her child. In Sweden, women’s increased participation in the labour force drove a significant expansion of child care in the late 1970s, which in turn reduced the gender employment and wage gaps (OECD, 2005a). By the end of the twentieth century, the model of the public nursery school as a place offering education for children from all backgrounds and run by highly qualified professionals, had won the day everywhere, with allowances for national specificities (timetables, levels of state intervention and the organization of activities). Thus, the overarching historical pattern – in Europe and North America, at least – is the movement from private charity, beginning in the nineteenth century, to public responsibility, evolving largely after the Second World War. Although the extent of public responsibility varied by country, a key distinguishing factor in most was the relative policy emphasis given to custodial care of disadvantaged children of working mothers, on the one hand, and education and socialization of all children, on the other. Developing countries. The existence of early childhood programmes
in developing countries is more recent (typically since 1970) and has involved different rationales than in Europe. As the basic needs of so many young children were not being met, many developing countries and aid agencies emphasized infant and child health, poverty reduction, safe and affordable environments for childminding, and the transition to primary schooling. The formalization of early childhood provision shows considerable regional variation. Most African countries developed an early childhood paradigm based on age segmentation: care programmes for those under age 3 and education from 3 to compulsory school age. Centre-based provision developed for the older group (though covering only a small percentage of children) while younger children continued to be cared for. Maternal and parental leave policies were developed to accommodate a mother’s right to care for her child.

PART III. Early childhood care and education
for by parents or kinship networks. In some post-colonial countries, pre-schools retained the structure established by the former colonial power, supplemented with national elements. In post-independence Morocco, for example, kuttabs (Koranic schools) survived as a source of early learning for boys aged 4 to 7 (Chartier and Geneix, 2006).

Throughout the Caribbean, services and supports for young children evolved in common ways. Health issues related to birth and immunization were considered the traditional responsibility of governments, while early childhood provision in all other areas relied upon the initiative of concerned citizens and/or organizations such as UNICEF, the Bernard van Leer Foundation and religious institutions. Except in Barbados, Grenada, and Saint Kitts and Nevis, the predominance of private or charitable initiatives is the defining feature of early childhood programmes in the subregion (Charles and Williams, 2006).

Latin America had few early childhood programmes before 1970. Governments historically took little interest in child care or pre-primary education and relied on private organizations (Myers, 1983). Pre-schools mainly served the children of urban households, and the upper and middle classes. However, beginning in the 1970s pressures to expand access to early childhood education grew steadily, with many governments initiating and expanding formal programmes for 3- to 5-year-olds (UIS, 2001). The Asia and Pacific region demonstrates considerable diversity. In the decades following the Second World War, early childhood programmes were relatively undeveloped. In East and South-East Asia, pre-primary education expanded slowly, mainly in urban and affluent areas, and was delivered by private providers. Children from poor and socially marginalized families were largely excluded from institutionalized ECCE (Kamerman, 2005). What historical international surveys tell us
Three surveys sponsored by UNESCO, in 1961, 1974 and 1988, provide comparative historical information on early childhood provision. The first, synthesizing results from sixty-five countries, reported that while pre-primary education rarely sought to ‘undermine or usurp’ the primacy of parental or family care, new programmes to accommodate working women were multiplying. Pre-schools were expensive to establish and operate; in some contexts, disadvantaged children received priority access. Qualified pre-primary teachers, often suffering from low status, were in short supply in all countries (UNESCO-IBE, 1961).

The 1974 survey broadened the definition of pre-schools to include day nurseries, kindergartens, residential nurseries, children’s homes, educational centres, special institutions for handicapped children and religious institutions (Mialaret, 1976). More than half of the seventy-eight countries responding had pre-school programmes for 2-year-olds and nearly all had programmes for 3-year-olds. Coverage was limited and uneven in most developing countries. Many authorities, both government and nongovernment, were involved in pre-school education, and evidence of national coordination of programmes was limited. The survey also provided a four-category classification of pre-school education: (1) state institutions administered by ministries, typically the ministry in charge of education; (2) private institutions organized by individuals, small groups, officially recognized associations or religious organizations; (3) institutions administered by local or provincial authorities; and (4) semi-private institutions run by an individual, group or association, but under government supervision.

The 1988 survey, based on responses from eighty-eight countries, focused for the first time on ECCE programmes and identified five types of institutions: kindergartens, nursery schools, ECCE institutions attached to primary schools, day care centres and others. About half the countries reported having kindergartens; about 40% had institutions attached to primary schools. Half the
ECCE programmes charged fees and two-thirds provided a full day’s programme to meet the needs of working mothers (Fisher, 1991). Overall, the twentieth century saw a significant expansion of early childhood programmes, many initiated and sustained by private agencies and charitable groups. Not only was there a substantial increase in the number of young children spending time in non-parental care (nurseries or child care centres), but more children participated in structured, purposeful learning activities both before and, more typically, after age 3. Programmes involving the latter age group – known as pre-school education, kindergarten or early childhood education – came to be labelled as pre-primary education corresponding to ISCED level 0 (UNESCO, 1997). The survey defined ECCE programmes as those providing care and/or education for children from birth until age 6 or 7 (entry age for primary education) in a variety of institutions and settings, some organized by ministries, others by NGOs.

8. Crèches, pouponnières, pre-schools, play groups, institutions serving sick or disabled children, institutions combining health and education components, Koranic schools, India’s anganwadi centres and so forth.

9. Pre-primary education is defined as ‘programmes at the initial stage of organized instruction, primarily designed to introduce very young children, aged at least 3 years, to a school-type environment and to provide a bridge between home and school’. Variously referred to as infant education, nursery
education, pre-school education, kindergarten or early childhood education, such programmes are the more formal component of ECCE. Upon completion of these programmes, children continue their education at the primary level (see glossary).

The twentieth century saw a significant expansion of early childhood programmes.
Country progress towards EFA goal 1

The data and monitoring challenge

The diversity of arrangements for organizing and funding ECCE programmes represents a formidable challenge in monitoring the ECCE goal. Box 6.1 describes recent work to compile cross-country information on early childhood provision.

It is not easy to assess national progress towards the ECCE goal:

- The goal contains no benchmarks or quantitative targets for monitoring progress (or the lack thereof).
- National reports on the nature and quality of early childhood provision are less standardized than those on education, since they typically involve a multiplicity of non-government actors and government authorities, and they cover children of different ages yet lack disaggregated age data.
- Few countries compile information on ‘other early childhood programmes,’ even though this category was meant to supplement data on ‘pre-primary’ education.10
- Reporting frameworks exclude information on parental education, although this is an important element of the overall goal.
- Ideally, national reports on early childhood provision should include detailed information about where and with whom young children spend their days. They also should provide information about the quality of children’s care and educational experiences, assessed over time if possible. Some of this information is captured in the results of the cross-national IEA Pre-primary Project.11 Similar studies need to be conducted more extensively.

At present, international figures on the education component of the ECCE goal remain uneven and, at times, non-comparable. More importantly, indicators of the care component of the goal (e.g. attention to health and nutrition...
as well as cognitive, social and emotional development) are almost completely lacking. Not surprisingly, given these reporting challenges, the EFA Global Monitoring Report (including Chapter 2 of this Report) has monitored progress towards the ECCE goal by relying on measures related to pre-primary institutions. Sustained efforts to augment and improve existing ECCE data are needed (see Chapter 9).

The 2000 Dakar Framework for Action (paragraphs 30 and 31) articulated several core components of early childhood programmes. They should be ‘appropriate to [the children’s] age and not mere downward extensions of formal school systems’ and ‘comprehensive, focusing on all of the child’s needs and encompassing health, nutrition and hygiene as well as cognitive and psycho-social development.’ The Dakar Framework also noted the importance of ‘the education of parents and other caregivers in better child care, building on traditional practices, and the systematic use of early childhood indicators’.

To address these issues, this chapter expands reporting on the monitoring of the ECCE goal in three ways: by looking separately at three groups of children (those under 3, those between 3 and primary school age, and vulnerable and disadvantaged children); by expanding the number and type of indicators used to monitor progress in relation to each group of children; and by paying greater attention to the care component of early childhood provision.

PART III. Early child hoo d care and edua tion
UNESCO’s International Bureau of Education (IBE), in collaboration with UNICEF, has prepared draft profiles of early childhood provision in 175 non-OECD countries. The profiles, prepared for this Report, include information on ECCE legislation, official supervision and coordination of programmes, ECCE providers, personnel and training, and curriculum and pedagogy, as well as current policies and special programmes, especially those targeting vulnerable and disadvantaged children. The profiles incorporate data from the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) on official definitions of pre-primary education, entrance age and duration of ISCED level 0, enrolment ratios (GER, NER, by
gender), teachers and their training, financing (average funding per child, sources) and hours per week of ECCE programmes. UNICEF added a section on parenting programmes and national systems for monitoring children’s development and school readiness. The draft profiles were sent to national ministries of education and to UNICEF field offices to check, revise and supplement. By June 2006, ninety-four countries had revised their ECCE profiles.

Additional ECCE information for twenty-three OECD countries was compiled from the IBE’s World Data on Education database (UNESCO-IBE, 2005) and from the OECD’s Early Childhood Education and Care and Family-friendly Policy reviews. In total, then, 198 ECCE profiles were created for this Report (www.efareport.unesco.org). This database, while still uneven in completeness and detail, is an important new source of information on early childhood provision around the world.

Box 6.1: Towards a global database of national ECCE profiles

10 ‘Other ECCE programmes’ refers to non-formal development programmes designed for children from age 3 that include organized learning activities spanning, on average, the equivalent of at least 2 hours per day and 100 days per year. This category emerged from decisions following the Dakar forum and underscored the need to develop additional measures for monitoring ECCE provision. Data on ‘other ECCE programmes’, which began to be compiled in 2000, are still missing for many countries.

11. See Olmsted and Montie (2001). The countries in this phase of the project were Belgium, China, Finland, Greece, Hong Kong (China),
Indonesia, Ireland, Italy, Nigeria, Poland, Romania, Slovenia, Spain, Thailand and the United States.
The organization of care and education for children under 3
In developed and transition countries the demand for structured early childhood provision largely rose in line with the growth of women’s employment. In developing countries, by contrast, mothers were assumed to be working at home or, if not, in agriculture or the informal sector, for instance selling or trading in the market. In rural areas children were expected to carry out household chores from an early age. With these ‘realities’ in mind, few governments prioritized publicly funded care or educational programmes for young children. To meet existing demand, primarily from middle class and urban families, private initiatives were encouraged.
Increasingly, working mothers are a fact of life in much of the world, and parents seek out decent and affordable care and education programmes for their children. In addition, more families are migrating to urban areas (or other countries) in search of paid employment, often losing access to kin support networks for childrearing and child care. Thus, increased migration and female labour force participation have expanded the demand for maternal (and parental) leave benefits and early childhood provision.

Maternal and parental leave
Worldwide evidence concerning maternal or parental leave is available through comparative surveys and international compilations. In almost all OECD countries, paid and jobprotected parental leave allows one or the other parent (or, in rare cases, both parents) to take off from work for a limited period, from a couple of months to a few years, to care for their babies. Policies increasingly include – and, in some countries, require – prenatal leave. Although the parameters of statutory leave (duration, extent of wage replacement and coverage for adopted children) vary in developed countries, most new parents receive some
public support for caring for their children during this critical period in their development. Among Central and Eastern European countries, which have historically provided an extensive package of child and family cash benefits, services and leaves, the transition to a market economy brought unemployment, significant reductions in social benefits and services, higher fees for services and cuts in consumer subsidies (Kamerman, 2003; Rostgaard, 2004). By the late 1990s, however, most countries had recovered, although not always to previous levels, and the historical model of government-funded and government-provided early childhood services was reaffirmed.

Not all developing and transition countries have maternity leave policies and, where they exist, they are unevenly implemented or limited to workers in certain labour market segments. The lack of effective enforcement mechanisms is widespread. Among the 126 countries for which current information is available, approximately 80% report having established some sort of maternity leave. Such provisions are most prevalent in Latin America and the Caribbean, Central and Eastern Europe, and South and West Asia (Table 6.3). They are least available among Arab States, in East Asia and the Pacific, and in Central Asia. Three-fifths of the countries in sub-Saharan Africa have some provision, though only a small proportion of women are employed in the formal labour market and hence able to benefit. While the duration of the maternity leave varies from one week to one year, the median period is twelve weeks in most regions, with slightly higher leave provisions in Central and Eastern Europe (eighteen weeks), Central Asia (seventeen weeks) and sub-Saharan Africa (fourteen weeks). In most regions cash benefits are 12. This section draws upon Kamerman (2005). Additional information can also be found in US Social Security Administration (1999) and
Moss and Deven (1999).

Table 6.3: Maternity leave policies in developing and transition countries, by region, 1999–2002

1. Data are for the most recent year available during the period specified.
2. Calculations for leave duration and wage replacement included only countries with statutory leave.
In countries where various payment regimes apply, the period of maximum wage replacement was selected.
In all countries, this corresponds to the first leave period taken before and after birth, usually called maternity leave.
Several countries have other statutory leave periods (additional maternity, parental or child care leave) where wage replacement is lower or zero. These are: in Central Asia, Georgia (up to three years of unpaid leave); and in Central and Eastern Europe, Croatia (paid leave until age 1), Czech Republic (paid leave until age 4), Hungary (paid leave until age 3), Lithuania (up to a year of paid leave), Poland (up to age 3), Romania (paid leave until age 2) and Slovakia (paid leave until age 4).

3. Excludes Australia, Japan and New Zealand.

Source: Kamerman (2005).

Sub-Saharan Africa
Arab States
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific3
South and West Asia
Latin America and the Caribbean
Central and Eastern Europe
76 14 4 26 74
50 12 4 14 92
67 17 16 20 100
50 12 8 20 83
86 12 8 16 93
94 12 8 24 76
94 18 1 52 90

Duration of maternity
% of countries leave2 (weeks)
with statutory
Region leave Median Minimum Maximum
Mean wage
replacement
rate2 (%)
Not all developing
and transition
countries have
maternity leave
policies
meant to replace between 75% and 90% of the mother’s wage. Moreover, in some regions (e.g. Latin America) working mothers are entitled to time off for breastfeeding (Linnecar and Yee, 2006).

National policy: few integrated frameworks
In general, few countries have established national frameworks to finance, coordinate and supervise ECCE programmes for infants and toddlers. Ministries of health or ministries associated with child welfare target health and welfare needs specific to young children, but not the broader care and educational dimensions of early childhood provision. Ministries of education tend to view the education of children under 3 as the responsibility of parents, private associations or non-government agencies. Even in cases where ministries of education have been assigned administrative responsibility for the under-3 age group (e.g. Brazil; some other countries, such as Botswana, are moving in that direction), limited information is reported about existing programmes and services.

Programmes targeting the care and education of under-3s
The national profiles indicate that in just more than half (53%) of the world’s countries there is at least one formal ECCE programme before pre-primary education, accepting very young children (from birth or age 1). These programmes typically provide organized custodial care and, in some cases, health services and educational activities. The most common names given to the programmes are day care services, crèches, centros infantiles, nurseries and early childhood development programmes.

To provide a basic measure of the prevalence of formal programmes targeting under-3s, Table 6.4 reports the percentage of countries in each region in which at least one programme exists. The findings show that such programmes are most prominent in North America and
Western Europe, Central Asia, and Latin America and the Caribbean.
Information is limited regarding the duration (in hours per day/week) of programmes targeting under-3s. Some are full time and others accommodate children on flexible hours. For example, in Burkina Faso, the Gambia, Kazakhstan, Mozambique and the Netherlands, infants and toddlers can attend day care for as much as ten to twelve hours per weekday. In Slovenia and Viet Nam, flexible hours in child care centres accommodate children under age 6 between four and eight-plus hours a week. In Namibia, home-based care and family visiting programmes offer services six to ten hours a week.
Belarus, Kazakhstan and Singapore, among many others, have programmes designed to accommodate part-time work schedules. In Finland and Sweden, where many mothers work part time, municipalities have a legal obligation to provide day care that meets the complex schedules of working parents. In Cambodia, Eritrea, Lebanon, Malaysia, Panama, the Syrian Arab Republic, Uruguay and Vanuatu, programmes for children below age 3 are available for four hours or less per day.
Comprehensive ECCE programmes: providing care, health and education
Of particular interest for monitoring purposes are countries in which early childhood provision for children under 3 addresses a child’s overall well-being in an integrated way. A critical step in the development of comprehensive care and education for young children is the creation of national policy frameworks that cover not only custodial care, but also parent education and children’s health needs, physical development and learning potential.
Few countries have established national frameworks to finance, coordinate and supervise ECCE.
programmes for infants and toddlers

13. Information in this section is drawn from the ECCE profiles and data gathered from education officials participating in a UIS capacity-building workshop in Africa (2005).

PART III. Early childhood care and education

Table 6.4: Prevalence of ECCE programmes for children less than 3 years old by region, c. 2005

1. Proportion of countries within a region that identify a programme targeting a population that includes children less than 3 years old (e.g. a programme for children aged 2 to 6).


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Countries in region with programmes for children less than age 3 (%)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>World</td>
<td>53 198</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
<td>42 45</td>
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<td>Arab States</td>
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<td>Central Asia</td>
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<td>East Asia and the Pacific</td>
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<td>Latin America/Caribbean</td>
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<td>N. America/W. Europe</td>
<td>92 24</td>
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<td>Central and Eastern Europe</td>
<td>35 20</td>
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Number of countries with relevant information
India’s 1974 National Policy on Education served as a foundation for a variety of programmes focusing on the child and the mother, notably Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS), a programme taking a life-cycle approach that was first adopted in 1975 and now reaches 23 million children. Since 1999, an African consortium, the Association for the Development of Education in Africa, has provided technical support to member countries for the development of national, cross-sectoral early childhood policy frameworks that address issues related to health, nutrition, water, sanitation, child protection and early childhood provision. Ten African countries are in various implementation stages: among them, Mauritius has drafted an integrated policy, Ghana and Namibia have ratified national ECCE policies and Eritrea is piloting a programme (Ashby, 2002; Boakye et al., 2001; Moti, 2002; Torkington, 2001). For the most part, integrated ECCE frameworks involve national governments, with varying levels of decentralization, coupled with local operators, community leaders, teacher organizations and other stakeholders. International organizations and, in a few cases, public-private partnerships provide financial support (e.g. the Bernard van Leer Foundation in Jamaica and Colombia’s Instituto Colombiano de Bienestar Familiar). The many different models of integrated care range from parental assistance programmes (Colombia and Jamaica) to community and family-focused modules (PROMESA in Colombia), teacher training (India and Mauritius), group care activities (Educa a tu Hijo in Cuba) and holistic initial education (Eritrea and Haiti). Information permitting assessment of the coverage and outcomes of integrated provision is limited and often mixed. In Dominica, Grenada, Jamaica, Saint Lucia and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, the Roving Caregivers programme is considered an efficient means of offering
critical health and care information to parents in isolated areas (Caribbean Support Initiative, 2006).

Child health, nutrition and survival

Many children in the world grow up in poor environmental conditions, have limited or no access to health services and live in impoverished households. These children are especially susceptible to waterborne disease, are more likely to have deficient diets and stunted growth, and are less likely to survive childhood and enter school (UNICEF, 2006).

In most countries, ministries of health have sole responsibility for the health of children from birth to age 3. The discussion here highlights selected indicators of children’s health and nutritional status, which are crucial contributors to children’s well-being and their effective functioning in school.

The health and nutrition indicators in Table 6.5 are useful for assessing regional levels of children’s well-being. While immunization campaigns have expanded worldwide, coverage is still unsatisfactory, particularly in the poorest regions. For example, in sub-Saharan Africa one-quarter of all 1-year-olds are not immunized against tuberculosis, one-third have never received the vaccine against diphtheria, pertussis (whooping cough) and tetanus, and two-thirds have not received the hepatitis B vaccine. In the Arab States, and East Asia and the Pacific, immunization rates against hepatitis are also quite low.

Poor diet and malnutrition are the main reasons more than one-quarter of all children under 5 in sub-Saharan Africa are moderately or severely underweight. In addition, one-third of African children in the age group suffer from moderate or severe stunting. Both problems weaken children and make them more vulnerable to illness and disease. Chronic hunger and stunting directly affect a child’s ability to learn, but because coverage of early childhood provision in sub-Saharan Africa is limited, timely detection and treatment of health problems due to undernutrition are reduced.
By contrast, in many developing countries, particularly in Latin America and the Caribbean, early childhood programmes have reduced the prevalence of malnutrition and stunting, and contributed to children’s well-being and school readiness (see Chapter 5). The under-5 mortality rate – the number of children per 1,000 (‰) live births who die before reaching age 5 – is generally considered the most robust indicator of childhood survival. More than the infant mortality rate (see glossary), the under-5 mortality rate captures the accumulated impact of the quality of the birthing experience, neonatal care, disabilities, breastfeeding and vaccination, as well as the effects of gender discrimination, mal- or undernutrition and inadequate health care. 14. See Box 8.7. Chronic hunger and stunting directly affect a child’s ability to learn.
Statistically, this indicator captures 90% of the global mortality among children under age 18. As Table 6.5 shows, worldwide about 86 of every 1,000 children born in recent years will not reach age 5. There are, however, significant regional differences: rates are highest in sub-Saharan Africa (176 children per 1,000) and South and West Asia (101 children per 1,000) and lowest in Europe and North America (fewer than 30). Some countries have made great strides since 1990, reducing the under-5 mortality rate by almost, or more than, half. Among them are Bangladesh, Bhutan, Bolivia, Brazil, Egypt, Guatemala, Indonesia, the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Nicaragua, Peru, the Syrian Arab Republic and Turkey. In some other countries, however, the overall situation for child survival has worsened. For example, in Cambodia, Cameroon, Côte d'Ivoire, Iraq, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Rwanda, Swaziland, Turkmenistan and Zimbabwe, the under-5 mortality rate has increased since 1990. According to UNICEF (2005a), of all the Millennium Development Goals, reducing child mortality remains the furthest from being achieved.15

Early childhood provision for children 3 and older

Government involvement

Governments play a more active role in the provision and supervision of programmes for children age 3 or older, in contrast to their limited role in programmes for those under 3. In many cases, however, this involves more than one official authority. In about 60% of the 172 countries with relevant information in their ECCE profiles, national ministries are the sole supervisors/ coordinators of programmes for children of age 3 and older; in about 30% these functions are shared by a ministry and another official body; and in the remaining 10% nongovernmental organizations, subnational government entities or socio-political bodies are the sole supervisors of early childhood
programmes. Examples from the third category include private organizations in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Dominica and the Syrian Arab Republic; NGOs in Burundi, Côte d’Ivoire and the Lao People’s Democratic Republic; a political organization in Viet Nam; community-based organizations in Comoros, Côte d’Ivoire and Cuba; and regional governments in Austria and Bulgaria.

In about 85% of the 154 countries with at least one ministry supervising and/or coordinating early childhood programmes, the ministry in charge of education is the main one involved. In the remaining countries the most prominent ministries with oversight responsibilities are those dealing with (a) women, family, gender, children and/or youth affairs; (b) social affairs or social welfare; and (c) health. In a relatively small number of countries, the overall situation for child survival has worsened.

15. For further details on the under-5 mortality rate see World Bank (2004). Factor analyses indicate that among variables such as stunting, underweight, vitamin deficiency, breastfeeding and vaccination, the under-5 mortality rate loads strongest on an underlying factor.

Millennium Development Goal 4 (United Nations, 2005) calls on countries to reduce by two-thirds the under-5 mortality rate between 1990 and 2015.

Culture, etc.

PART III. Early childhood care and education

Table 6.5: Selected indicators of children’s health and nutrition by region, 1996-2004

1. Data are for the most recent year available during the period specified.

Note: DPT3: three doses of diphtheria, pertussis (whooping cough) and tetanus vaccine.

HepB: hepatitis B vaccine.

Source: Annex, Statistical Table 3A.

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Immunization of 1-year-olds (%) % under-5 who are:
few cases, ministries of labour, development, planning or local government oversee early childhood programmes.

Entry age and duration of pre-primary education

All countries have one or more programmes at pre-primary level. They are most commonly called pre-school education (ninety-three countries), kindergarten (sixty-six countries), preprimary education (fifty countries), early childhood education (thirty-four countries), nursery education (twenty-eight countries) and various combinations of the above (UNESCO-IBE, 2006).17 National authorities typically establish an official age at which children can enter preprimary education. In about 85% of countries, participation in pre-primary education is not obligatory and children may enter the programmes at any age between the official entrance age and the onset of compulsory primary school attendance. Age 3 is the theoretical entrance age for pre-primary education in 70% of the world’s 203 education systems (Table 6.6). In about one-quarter of countries, particularly in the Arab States, sub-Saharan Africa, and Latin America and the Caribbean, children are eligible to enrol at age 4. In a dozen countries, pre-primary education begins at age 5 or 6.18 Since 1998, the intended entrance age for preprimary education has been stable. Only sixteen of the world’s education systems altered their age eligibility policy: seven countries raised the official pre-primary entrance age and nine lowered it. These changes reinforced the global norm of age 3 as the start of pre-primary education.

The intended duration of pre-primary education is three years in almost half of the world’s countries. Pre-primary education of shorter duration – one or two years – occurs in much of Latin America and the Caribbean, the Arab States, and East Asia and the Pacific. In a small group of countries, mainly in Central and Eastern Europe, and Central Asia, the duration
is four years. As might be expected, there is an inverse relationship between the official entrance age and duration of pre-primary education: where the entrance age is higher, the duration is shorter (Table 6.7). From a global perspective, the age groups that countries target for pre-primary education are less standardized than for primary or secondary education. Most typically, pre-primary programmes are intended for 3- to 5-year-olds (eighty-six countries), but the target age group is 4 to 5 in thirty-one countries, 3 to 6 in thirty countries and 3 to 4 in twenty-four countries.19 Compulsory attendance and universal coverage in pre-primary education Increasingly, countries are passing legislation making school attendance compulsory for children of pre-primary age (Table 6.8). While the rationales vary – for example, to underscore government commitment to early childhood provision; to expand and upgrade the quality of pre-school education; and to improve the readiness for and transition of children to primary education – the structures are quite similar. Typically, children must attend a year of preschool, which begins at age 4 or 5 (in a few cases at age 6). Of the thirty countries with such laws, twenty-six are in Latin America and the Caribbean (ten), Central and Eastern Europe (nine), Western Europe (four) or East Asia and the Pacific (three).20

17. Other names include children centres (Eritrea and Greece), transition cycle (Costa Rica), preparatory education (Algeria, Macao (China) and Papua New Guinea) and initial education (Argentina, Bolivia, Dominican Republic, Panama, Peru and Venezuela).
18. Ecuador, Eritrea, Indonesia, the Islamic Republic of Iran, Malaysia, Nauru, Papua New Guinea,
the Philippines, Solomon Islands, South Africa, Switzerland and the United Republic of Tanzania.

19. Other target groups include 4 to 6 (twelve countries) and 5 to 6 (four countries). In addition, some countries have one-year programmes aimed at: age 3 (one country), age 4 (five countries), age 5 (seven countries) and age 6 (two countries).

20. In addition, a Canadian province, Prince Edward Island, has made a year of pre-primary attendance compulsory for 5-year-olds.

Table 6.6: Official starting age for pre-primary education by region, 2004
Source: Annex, Statistical Table 3B.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>World</th>
<th>Sub-Saharan Africa</th>
<th>Arab States</th>
<th>Central Asia</th>
<th>East Asia and the Pacific</th>
<th>South and West Asia</th>
<th>Latin America and the Caribbean</th>
<th>North America and Western Europe</th>
<th>Central and Eastern Europe</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>142</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>203</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>70</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>29</td>
<td>13</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<td>28</td>
<td>12</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Intended entry age for pre-primary education, 2004
3 4 5 6 Total

Table 6.7: Duration of pre-primary education systems by official entry age, 2004
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duration (number of countries)</th>
<th>1 year</th>
<th>2 years</th>
<th>3 years</th>
<th>4 years or more</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Entry age for pre-primary education</td>
<td>1 2 4 8 6 3 1 1 4 2</td>
<td>5 3 1 1 2 0 4 8</td>
<td>9 4 0 0 1 3</td>
<td>1 5 5 9 9 8 3 1 2 0 3</td>
<td>5 3 1 2 0 4 8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Compulsory attendance laws tend to reflect policy intentions rather than educational realities, which depend on availability of resources and strictness of enforcement (Benavot et al., 2005). The legislation does not necessarily result in higher pre-primary enrolment. For example, the mean net enrolment ratio (NER) in pre-primary education for the ten countries in Latin America and the Caribbean with such laws is about 47%. However, for countries in this region without such legislation, the mean pre-primary NER is actually higher (58%, n=21). The corresponding results for Central and Eastern Europe are 62% (n=8) and 67% (n=7). These figures raise doubts about enforcement of compulsory attendance laws and the willingness (or ability) of parents to send their children to pre-primary institutions.

In addition, compulsory attendance laws may not necessarily contribute to the development of an integrated ECCE policy targeting all children and spanning the period between birth and primary school entrance. In several Latin American countries with compulsory attendance laws (e.g. Argentina and Uruguay), policy attention and resources are focused almost exclusively on the last year of pre-primary education, to the detriment of programmes aimed at younger children and addressing their holistic development needs (Umayahara, 2005; UNESCOOREALC, 2004). Finally, quite a few countries have achieved near universal coverage of pre-primary education (NER greater than 90%) without compulsory attendance laws (Table 6.9). Thus, while such laws may help crystallize political will and stakeholder commitment to address the needs of young children, other conditions are equally important in assuring children’s actual participation in early childhood programmes and institutions.

How many hours a week do ECCE programmes last?
More than 85 countries have provided up-to-date information, incorporated in their national ECCE
profiles, on the duration (weekly hours) of 118 early childhood programmes. The range is PAR II. Early childhood care and education

Table 6.8: The thirty countries with laws making pre-primary education compulsory

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Year(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sudan</td>
<td>1999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kazakhstan</td>
<td>1995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brunei Darussalam</td>
<td>1994</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DPR Korea</td>
<td>1979</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macao, China</td>
<td>1979</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iran, Islamic Republic of Sri Lanka</td>
<td>1992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>2004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>1979</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costa Rica</td>
<td>1997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominican Republic</td>
<td>1993</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>El Salvador</td>
<td>1995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>2004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panama</td>
<td>1997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>1997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uruguay</td>
<td>1994</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venezuela</td>
<td>1994</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>1994</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>2004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>1994</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxembourg</td>
<td>1997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>1995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>1997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latvia</td>
<td>1997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TFYR Macedonia</td>
<td>1995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>1997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Republic of Moldova</td>
<td>1997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Romania</td>
<td>2004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serbia and Montenegro</td>
<td>1997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>1997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992 4 or 5 1</td>
<td>1992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999 5 1</td>
<td>1999</td>
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<td>1979 5 1</td>
<td>1979</td>
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<td>1995 5 1</td>
<td>1995</td>
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<td>2004 5 1</td>
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<td>1997 5 1</td>
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<td>1993 5 1</td>
<td>1993</td>
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<tr>
<td>1994 5 1</td>
<td>1994</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997 4 or 5 1 or 2</td>
<td>1997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996 5 1</td>
<td>1996</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Regional average Year law was enacted Age at which compulsory education begins Number of years of compulsory pre-primary education Arab States Central Asia East Asia and the Pacific South and West Asia Latin America and Caribbean North American and Western Europe Central and Eastern Europe

21. Incorporating the data for Turkey would bring the mean NER for countries without compulsory pre-primary in this region to 60%.

22. This section examines both pre-primary education and other ECCE programmes targeting children aged 3 and older. The 2003/4 Report reviewed national estimates of hours per week for pre-primary education alone (UNESCO, 2003a: p. 36). Among developing countries the duration ranged from as few as seven hours in Iraq, Maldives and Tajikistan to more than thirty-two hours in Cuba, Morocco, Saint Kitts and Nevis and the Syrian Arab Republic.
In a majority of the countries for which data were available, the duration was twenty to twenty-five hours per week.
1. The measure is rarely enforced.
2. The law allows pre-school education to be provided by the family, pre-school organizations or schools.
3. The ECCE profile states that by 2006 the country planned to have free pre-school education begin at age 3 (instead of 5) and last for three years. There is no mention of changing the compulsory entrance age.
4. The ECCE profile states that all pre-school is mandatory. Further research shows that only the last year of pre-school is mandatory, as of age 5.
5. Compulsory pre-primary education was to be phased in for the following ages (as of 1 September):
   5 (2004/05), 4 (2005/06) and 3 (2008/09).
6. The ECCE profile states that the law requires children to attend formal or non-formal initial education programmes from age 3.
7. Data are for Serbia only.
8. Pre-primary classes, which were obligatory one year before entering school, have been discontinued and the entrance age for compulsory primary school has been lowered by one year to age 6.
from five to sixty hours a week and the average about twenty-seven.23 Figure 6.1 shows the distribution of early childhood programme duration in weekly hours, by region.24 Most fluctuate between fifteen and forty hours. In Central and Eastern Europe, East Asia and the Pacific, Latin America and the Caribbean, and sub-Saharan Africa, some run ten hours or fewer per week. Programmes of more than forty hours are more common in Central and Eastern Europe, and North America and Western Europe. Given the importance of early childhood programmes for working women, an alternative way to monitor programme availability is by noting the extent to which programmes operate full time (defined in this context as more than four hours per day) or part time during the week. The findings indicate that pre-primary and ECCE programmes are open most of the workweek and about half are full time. Nearly 88% of the programmes for which data are available operate five days a week. The operation of ECCE programmes can depend on who offers the programme, even within the same country and for the same age group. In Cambodia, for example, government pre-schools targeting 3- to 5-year-olds operate for five hours more per week than community pre-schools and are open thirty-eight weeks a year – between two and fourteen weeks longer than the community schools.

23. Programmes of longer duration are not necessarily of better quality. Much of their impact depends on support provided by the home and on the quality of the programme activities.

24. In some countries, including Belarus, the Czech Republic, Finland, Latvia and Sweden, programmes can be boarding or available twentyfour hours, depending on the
parents’ needs. These outliers were removed from the figure.

France
Italy
Spain
Belgium
United Kingdom
Netherlands
Iceland
Malta
Denmark
Cuba
Belarus
Guyana
Jamaica
New Zealand
Suriname
Aruba
Seychelles
102 2002
102 2002
101 2002
100 2002
100 2002
99 2002
93 2002
93 2002
92 2002
100 2004
92 2004
92 2004
91 2004
91 2004
91 2004
90 2004
90 2004
Table 6.9: Countries having pre-primary net enrolment ratios of at least 90% without compulsory pre-primary attendance laws
1. In Ireland, 4-year-olds are meant to be enrolled in primary schools (ISCED level 1). The age-specific NER for 4-year-olds in Ireland is 50%. The NERs of France, Italy and Spain are reported as exceeding 100% because they were calculated on the basis of separate data sets (population and education) derived from surveys carried out on two different dates.
2. Age groups vary by country, reflecting national definitions.
Sources: European Commission (2005); annex, Statistical Table 3B (non-European countries).
NER of 4-year-olds
Year of enrolment estimate
NER2
Year of enrolment estimate
Sub-Saharan Africa
Arab States
Central Asia
East Asia/Pacific
South/West Asia
Latin America/Caribbean
N. America/W. Europe
Centr./East. Europe
0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70
Regional median World median ECCE programme
Average hours per week
Figure 6.1: Average hours per week of pre-primary and other ECCE programmes by region, c. 2005
Note: Each point represents a programme type in a country in the specified region.
Average hours are identified as programme hours during which a young child can participate.
Round-the-clock programmes are not included, as children do not usually attend for the full twenty-four hours.
Pre-primary and ECCE programmes are open most of the workweek and about half are full time
The mix of public and private provision in pre-primary education

Table 6.10 classifies countries into three categories (low, medium and high) according to the share of total pre-primary enrolment in private institutions. In about 50% of the 154 countries with data, the prevalence of private pre-primary education is less than one-third of the total. In 30% of the countries the share of private enrolment is more than 66%. In the remaining 20% of the countries the share is relatively equal. Regional variations are pronounced. In developed and transition regions (North America and Western Europe, and Central and Eastern Europe), country shares of private pre-primary enrolment are either in the low or medium categories. In much of sub-Saharan Africa, the Arab States, the Caribbean and East Asia, the private sector is considerably more prominent.

Additional analyses examined the extent to which the share of private pre-primary enrolment changed between 1999 and 2004. Among developed and transition countries the trend was towards more private-sector involvement: the private share of enrolment increased by more than two percentage points in twenty-two countries and declined by more than two percentage points in only eight. Among developing countries the evidence was mixed (increases in thirty-three countries and decreases in thirty-five countries) and region-specific increases in public pre-primary education in the Arab States, decreases in East Asia and the Pacific. Overall, the evidence suggests that public provision of pre-primary education has been an Among developed and transition countries the trend is towards more private-sector involvement
25. Private pre-primary institutions are defined as those 'not operated by a public authority but controlled and managed, whether for profit or not, by a private body such as a non-governmental organization, religious body, special interest group, foundation or business enterprise'. A public institution is one controlled and managed by a public education authority or agency (national/federal, state, provincial or local), whatever the origin of its financial resources.

26. The Netherlands is an exception, having a large proportion of private preprimary enrolment.

PART III. Early childhood care and education

Belarus, TFYR Macedonia,
Lithuania, Ukraine, Bulgaria,
Slovakia, Rep. Moldova, Romania,
Slovenia, Estonia, Czech Rep.,
Russian Fed., Latvia, Turkey,
Hungary, Albania, Poland, Croatia

76
Ghana, Equat. Guinea, Côte
d’Ivoire, Togo, Burundi,
Comoros, Cameroon
Kuwait, Egypt, Yemen,
Saudi Arabia
Malaysia, New Zealand,
Philippines, Viet Nam, Japan
Maldives, Bangladesh
Colombia, Dominican Rep.,
Suriname, Chile, Ecuador,
Grenada, St Kitts/Nevis,
Turks/Caicos Is
Spain, Malta, United States,
Cyprus, Norway, Portugal,
Belgium, Germany

34
Gabon, Senegal, Eritrea, Congo,
Mauritius, Madagascar, Guinea, Uganda,
Ethiopia, Lesotho, Namibia, Rwanda
U. A. Emirates, Syrian A. R., Sudan,
Lebanon, Djibouti, Mauritania, Tunisia,
Qatar, Jordan, Bahrain, Palestinian A. T.,
Morocco, Oman
Australia, Brunei Daruss., Rep. of Korea,
Macao (China), Indonesia, Fiji
Nepal
Neth. Antilles, Aruba, Bahamas,
Jamaica, Cayman Is, Anguilla, Belize,
Br. Virgin Is, Dominica, Saint Lucia,
St Vincent/Grenad., Trinidad/Tobago
Netherlands

45
Table 6.10: Countries classified according to the share of private pre-primary enrolment,
2004
Sub-Saharan Africa
Arab States
Central Asia
East Asia and
the Pacific
South and West Asia
Latin America and the Caribbean
North America and Western Europe
Central and Eastern Europe
Total countries: 155
Low
(0% to 32%)
% of total enrolment in private schools
Medium
(33% - 66%)
High
Region (more than 66%)
Note: In each box, countries are listed in increasing order of private enrolment.
Source: Annex, Statistical Table 3B.
The expansion of pre-primary education

The global and regional picture

Worldwide the number of children enrolled in pre-primary education has almost tripled during the past three decades, from about 44 million in the mid-1970s to about 124 million in 2004 (Table 6.11).27 Regional trends are especially informative. In developed and transition countries (including the former USSR), pre-primary enrolment peaked in the early 1990s and then decreased because of low birth rates as well as economic hardships in transition countries. By contrast, enrolment increases occurred in all developing regions, especially East Asia and the Pacific and South and West Asia, from the mid-1970s to the late 1990s.28 Much of this growth reflected expansion of pre-primary education in China, where enrolment increased from 6.2 million in 1975/76 (UNESCO, 1999) to 24 million in 1998/99, before dropping to the present level of 20 million.29

Standardizing pre-primary enrolment by the relevant school-age population measures the coverage of pre-primary education, and can be calculated at the national, regional and global level. Between 1975 and 2004 the global gross enrolment ratio (GER) in pre-primary education more than doubled from about 17% to 37%. In developed and transition countries about 40% of the relevant child population was enrolled in pre-primary education in 1970 and the GER had reached 73% by 2004. In developing countries the coverage of pre-primary education has been considerably less: in 1975, on average, fewer
than one out of ten children were enrolled in pre-primary institutions; by 2004 the ratio had increased to about 32% or one in three.

Differences among developing country regions are especially marked (Figure 6.2). GERs have been highest in Latin America and the Caribbean and lowest in sub-Saharan Africa. Pre-primary education expanded noticeably in East Asia and the Pacific in the 1980s and 1990s, and in South and West Asia in the 1990s and 2000s. In the Arab States, by contrast, the coverage of pre-primary education, while increasing since the 1970s, has been essentially stagnant.

Differences within regions

The coverage of pre-primary education varies considerable among countries within regions.30 In sub-Saharan Africa, half the countries have GERs below 10%, but in Mauritius and Seychelles the ratios are close to 100%. Similarly, in East Asia and the Pacific, Cambodia and the Lao People’s Democratic Republic report GERs below 10% while China, the Philippines and Viet Nam have ratios between 36% and 47%, and Australia, Malaysia, New Zealand, the Republic of Korea and Thailand register near full enrolment. Threequarters of the countries in Latin America and the

27. World and regional estimates of pre-primary enrolment should be treated with caution. After the Dakar Forum and the increased emphasis on pre-primary education, some countries began reporting pre-primary enrolment more systematically than in the past. In addition, the adoption of ISCED97, which includes a more comprehensive definition of education, may have increased reporting of informal pre-primary programmes, so some enrolment increase may not reflect programme expansion. Moreover,
changes in enrolment ratios can reflect both changing reporting patterns and population assessments.  
28. For South and West Asia, some of the expansion involves the inclusion of enrolment in previously unreported ECCE programmes in India during the late 1990s.  
29. According to the UN Population Division, China’s population aged 0 to 5 also declined, from 140 million in 1990 to 103 million in 2005. Thus, the gross enrolment ratio increased from 6% of the 3 to 6 age group in 1975 to 36% of the 4 to 6 age group in 2003/04.  
30. Factors that can affect the comparability of national enrolment ratios include programme duration, targeted age group, compulsory attendance legislation, eligibility restrictions and birth rates. Pre-primary enrolment increased in all developing regions World Developed and transition countries Developing countries of which: Sub-Saharan Africa Arab States East Asia and the Pacific South and West Asia Latin America and the Caribbean … 43.7 58.4 72.5 85.4 111.8 123.7 23.9 30.0 33.2 35.6 37.4 31.7 32.6 … 13.7 25.2 37.0 48.0 80.1 91.1
Table 6.11: Total enrolment in pre-primary education by region, 1970/71–2003/04 (millions)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Region</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1970/71</td>
<td>0.2 0.5 1.5 1.8 2.4 5.1 7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975/76</td>
<td>0.3 0.8 1.2 1.6 1.9 2.4 2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>…</td>
<td>8.1 15.2 19.7 25.9 33.3 29.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980/81</td>
<td>0.8 1.4 2.3 4.1 5.4 22.2 31.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985/86</td>
<td>1.8 2.8 4.7 9.4 11.9 16.4 19.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: During the 1970s some countries, especially in sub-Saharan Africa, did not report data on pre-primary enrolments. Thus, the regional totals probably underestimate enrolment for this period. Data for East Asia and the Pacific are for developing countries only; Australia, Japan and New Zealand are included under developed countries. The total for developing countries is higher than the sum of the five regions because it includes data for Bermuda, Cyprus, Israel, Mongolia and Turkey.

Caribbean have GERs above 75% while the lowest ratio is 28%. In South and West Asia countries enrol between one-third and one-half of children in pre-primary education. In Central Asia, despite indications of recovery after the decline of the 1990s, no country has a GER of above 50%. In North America and Western Europe, virtually all countries have GERs above 60% and in half the ratio is 100%. In all Central and Eastern European countries except Albania, Croatia, the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Turkey, more than half the children are enrolled; in Belarus, the Czech Republic, Estonia and Slovakia, coverage is close to universal (See annex, Statistical Table 3B).

Country advances between 1991 and 2004 Overall, between 1991 and 2004 (Figure 6.3), four-fifths of the eighty-one countries and
In Belarus, the Czech Republic, Estonia and Slovakia, coverage is close to universal

PART III. Early childhood care and education
Latin America/Caribbean
East Asia and the Pacific
Developed and transition countries
Sub-Saharan Africa
Arab States
South and West Asia
GER (%)  
0  
10  
20  
30  
40  
50  
60  
70  
80  
School years
Figure 6.2: Regional trends in pre-primary gross enrolment ratios, showing a strong
increase in Latin America and the Caribbean
Note: Data for East Asia and the Pacific are for developing countries only; Australia, Japan and New Zealand are included under developed countries. The broken line signifies a break in the data series due to a new classification.
Trinidad/Tobago
Thailand
Estonia
Kuwait
Japan
Latvia
Rep. of Korea
Guyana
Australia
El Salvador
Peru
Finland
Iran, Isl. Rep.
Colombia
Portugal
Mexico
Belarus
Nicaragua
Sweden
Brazil
Uruguay
Austria
Viet Nam
Kenya
Croatia
Palestinian A. T.
Bahrain
Czech Rep.
Bolivia
Namibia
Venezuela
Tunisia
Argentina
Jamaica
South Africa
Belgium
Cyprus
Russian Fed.
Greece
Jordan
Italy
U. A. Emirates
Egypt
Cameroon
United Kingdom
Lithuania
Slovakia
Cambodia
Sudan
Poland
Brunei Daruss.
Belize
Syrian A. R.
Indonesia
Turkey
Senegal
Congo
Oman
Côte d’Ivoire
Fiji
Lao PDR
Changes in pre-primary GER between 1990/91 and 2003/04 (percentage points)
0
10
-10
20
-20
30
-30
40
-40
-50
50
60
70
80
Figure 6.3: Changes in pre-primary GERs between 1990/91 and 2003/04 in eighty-one countries: coverage increased in four-fifths
Note: Includes only those countries in which the officially targeted age group was unchanged. For Ethiopia, Republic of Korea and Thailand, the GERs are for 2004/05.
Source: Annex, Statistical Table 12.
WORLDWIDE PROGRESS IN EARLY CHILDHOOD CARE AND EDUCATION / 135
territories with comparable data increased their coverage of pre-primary education. Among
these sixty-eight countries whose GERs rose, the increase was more than twenty percentage
points in nineteen countries, six to twenty percentage points in twenty-eight countries
and one to five percentage points in sixteen countries.31 On the other hand, in Albania,
Armenia, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan and Tajikistan (see below), as well as in Iraq, Morocco
and Togo, the GERs declined. Several countries or territories, including Fiji, Kuwait, the Palestinian
Autonomous Territories and the United Kingdom, saw pre-primary coverage expand between 1991
and 1999, then contract.32 Cross-national analyses suggest that teacher availability is related to the expansion of preprimary
education. Specifically, the supply of preprimary teachers in relation to the number of
pupils prior to 1999 is associated with the net enrolment ratio (NER) in pre-primary education in
2004.33 Countries with lower pupil/teacher ratios (PTRs) tended to have higher NERs (Figure 6.4).34
Countries in transition: recovering lost ground While pre-primary education was expanding in
much of the world, many countries in transition experienced significant declines and/or
fluctuations following the break-up of the Soviet Union (see UNESCO, 2003a: pp. 37-8). Figure 6.5
reports annual pre-primary net enrolment ratios (NERs) for children aged 3 to 6 between 1989
and 2003. In Central and Eastern Europe and the Baltic States, pre-primary enrolment levels
initially dropped – sometimes precipitously – but had recovered by the end of the 1990s. In Albania,
Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia and Montenegro and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia,
which had relatively low enrolment rates in the early 1990s, governments introduced various
measures to increase access to kindergarten and other ECCE programmes (Albania Ministry
of Finance, 2004; Zafeirakou, 2005).
Among countries belonging to the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS),
particularly in Central Asia, enrolment ratios in pre-primary education declined rapidly in the early 1990s and have yet to recover. The decrease took place despite government initiatives and policies that sought to increase the role of private providers and institutions. Kazakhstan, for instance, introduced new forms of ECCE,

31. In Australia, El Salvador, Estonia, Guyana, Japan, Kuwait, Latvia, Peru, Republic of Korea, Thailand and Trinidad and Tobago, the GER for pre-primary education increased by thirty percentage points or more.

32. Figure 6.3 does not reflect the data used for this intra-period analysis.


34. Worldwide, the median pre-primary PTR was about 18:1 in 2004, slightly lower than the median for primary education of 21:1 (in North America and Western Europe the pre-primary median was slightly higher than the primary one; see annex, Statistical Table 10A). Crossnational variation is limited:

among the 157 countries with data, the pre-primary PTR was below 25:1 in 78% of countries and above 35:1 in 9%.

2004 NER (%)  
1999 PTR
0 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 45 50
0
10
20
30
$y = -1.1056x + 68.995$

$R^2 = 0.08$

Figure 6.4: The inverse relationship between the pupil/teacher ratio in 1999 and the net enrolment ratio in 2004.

Source: Annex, Statistical Table 10A.

|------------------|----------|-------|----------|-------|-------|------|---------------|------|--------|---------|---------|------------|---------|----------|---------|---------|-------------|------------|---------------|------------|

Changes in pre-primary GER between 1990/91 and 2003/04 (percentage points)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage Points</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
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<td>-10</td>
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</table>
including complexes of ‘kindergarten schools’ as well as kindergartens and other pre-school institutions funded privately or by local government. The governments of Kyrgyzstan and Uzbekistan opened many community-based kindergartens to increase enrolment (Tabuslatova, 2006).

The challenges facing countries in transition are further compounded by the extremely large numbers of young children who live apart from their birth families in institutions or through foster care, guardianship or adoption. UNICEF (2005b) estimates that about 1.5 million children in transition countries live in such out-of-home care contexts. These ‘social orphans’ – children whose parents are living but unable or unwilling to care for them – are especially vulnerable and often have limited, if any, access to early childhood programmes.

Age-specific enrolment and participation levels in ECCE programmes

Monitoring national progress in ECCE coverage by examining gross or net enrolment ratios raises two problems. First, pre-primary enrolment data reported by education ministries may undercount children’s participation in early childhood programmes funded by other ministries, private groups or local communities. The lack of consensus as to what constitutes an ECCE programme and uncertainty whether particular programmes meet international standards also contribute to the undercounting. Second, while a majority of countries define 3 to 5 or 3 to 6 as the normative ages for enrolment in pre-primary institutions, in practice enrolment patterns vary significantly within these age spans. Thus, conventional statistics do not reveal important age-specific enrolment patterns in pre-primary education.

To address these limitations, this subsection reports age-specific participation data from three household surveys (Box 6.2) and age-specific enrolment data from a special UIS compilation.
Together these new sources provide a more accurate and valid portrayal of national differences in the coverage of ECCE programmes for children aged 3 and above. They also reveal instances in which children from one age bracket may be enrolled either in pre-primary programmes or in primary schools. This ‘mixed’ pattern of same-aged children in pre-primary and primary education is partly determined by administrative authorities and partly by parental preferences and household decisions.35

Figure 6.6 reports age-specific participation rates of 3- and 4-year-old children in organized care and learning centres.36 For 3-year-olds, participation levels varied from less than 3% in some countries (e.g. the Central African Republic, Chad, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Egypt, Guatemala, Iraq, Rwanda and the United Republic of Tanzania) to more than 20% in others (e.g. Albania, Bahrain, Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Equatorial Guinea, Jamaica, Nicaragua, the Republic of Moldova, Trinidad and Tobago, Venezuela and Viet Nam). For 4-year-olds, participation levels were relatively high (more 35 Official eligibility requirements, for example, may determine the dates used to decide which children of what age can enrol in preprimary or primary institutions. Not all countries rigidly enforce these requirements. In addition, in federal countries and decentralized systems, eligibility rules may not be uniform nationwide. 36. MICS survey-takers asked the mother or caretaker of 3- and 4-year-olds: ‘Does [name of child] attend any organized learning or early childhood education
programme, such as a private or government facility, including kindergarten or community child care?’ This question includes ECCE provision that may be excluded in the formal definition of pre-primary education. Therefore, findings emerging from this question provide a more accurate depiction of the care component of the ECCE goal.

PART III. Early childhood care and education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>CIS (Eastern Europe)</th>
<th>Belarus</th>
<th>Rep. Moldova</th>
<th>Russian Fed.</th>
<th>Ukraine</th>
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CIS (Central Asia)

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<thead>
<tr>
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Figure 6.5: Pre-primary net enrolment ratios for children aged 3 to 6 in transition countries, 1989 to 2003
Notes:
Albania, Armenia, Russian Federation, Slovenia, Ukraine: GERs.
Belarus: 1999-2003 data are for ages 3 to 5.
Bosnia and Herzegovina: ages 3 to 7.
Czech Republic, Hungary, Slovakia: ages 3 to 5.
Lithuania: 1989-93 data are GERs.
Tajikistan: 1989-2001 data are GERs.
TFYR Macedonia: includes pre-school preparatory classes.
1.5 million children in transition countries live in out-of-home care contexts.

### Eastern Europe
- **Czech Republic**
- **Hungary**
- **Bulgaria**
- **Slovakia**
- **Romania**
- **Poland**

### NER (%)

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<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>1989</th>
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### Central Europe
- **Croatia**
- **Slovenia**
- **Serbia and Montenegro**
- **TFYR**
- **Macedonia**

### NER (%)

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<tr>
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Much of the rest of the chapter is based on ECCE information from the second wave of the Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS2), the Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) and the Living Standard Measurement Surveys (LSMS). Data for MICS21 and DHS2 were collected between 1999 and 2003, and those for the LSMS3 between 1995 and 2003. All three surveys were based on nationally representative samples of households in developing countries. Researchers questioned parents or guardians of children aged 3 to 6 about their children’s participation in ECCE programmes. Sixty-five countries took part in MICS2 surveys, and ECCE data are available for forty-five of them. In eight DHS countries and all ten LSMS countries, the surveys obtained relevant data on ECCE.

Depending on the child’s age, each household survey used different questions to gather information about participation in ECCE programmes. For example, MICS2 asked parents of 3- and 4-year-olds whether their child ‘attends any organized learning or early childhood education programme, such as a private or government facility, including kindergarten or community child care’, while parents of children aged 5 or older were asked whether their child
attended a pre-school programme. DHS and LSMS also included age-differentiated questions about participation in ECCE programmes. Strictly speaking, then, the questions asked of parents of children in the two age groups (3 to 4 and 5 to 6) are not comparable and are therefore reported separately.

Except for a few countries in the LSMS (e.g. Ecuador, Guatemala and Nicaragua), most countries in all three household surveys did not differentiate between types of pre-schools — that is, day care, kindergarten or preparatory. Despite limited variations in survey questions, the overall level of data quality is high, with relatively few non-respondents.

1. The aim of MICS2 was to assess progress towards the goals of the World Summit for Children. The methodology was developed and the surveys carried out by UNICEF in cooperation with WHO, UNESCO, the ILO, UNAIDS and the UN Statistical Division. The surveys were designed to collect data on diverse issues, such as nutrition, health, education, birth registration, family environment, child labour, and knowledge and attitudes about HIV/AIDS.

2. The DHS were designed to measure the health and nutritional status of women and children in the developing world. They provide data on standard demographic and health indicators, as well as special topics (including ECCE in the surveys of Colombia, Dominican Republic, Egypt, Haiti, Nicaragua, Uganda, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zimbabwe, to date). Survey-takers interviewed parents and guardians of children aged 2 to 6, enquiring about the children’s participation in early childhood education, among other topics. Ten of these surveys had included ECCE questions as of 2004.

3. The LSMS were carried out in Albania, Bosnia, Brazil, Bulgaria, Ecuador, Guatemala, India (the states of Bihar and Uttar Pradesh), Nicaragua, Panama and Papua New Guinea. In Albania, Ecuador, Nicaragua and Panama, the relevant age group was 3 to 5 instead of 3 to 6.

4. In the other twenty countries, either the ECCE module was not included or, in a few cases, data were unavailable.

5. As with the MICS2, participants in some LSMS countries (e.g. Albania and Brazil) were asked about current pre-school attendance while for others (e.g. Papua New Guinea) the question concerned attendance in the year prior to the survey.

Sources: Nonoyama et al. (2006); Education Policy and Data Center (2006); Carr Hill (2006).
than 25%) in Albania, Bahrain, Equatorial Guinea, Lesotho, Mongolia, the Republic of Moldova, Viet Nam and three-quarters of the countries in Latin America and the Caribbean. Regionally, participation rates were lower in sub-Saharan Africa and higher in Latin America and the Caribbean. Except in the Republic of Moldova, participation levels were higher for 4-year-olds than for 3-year-olds, significantly so in Bolivia, Guyana, Nicaragua, the Philippines, Suriname and Venezuela, as Figure 6.6 shows. Figure 6.7 reports attendance rates in preprimary institutions for 5- and 6-year-olds.37 Among the former, cross-national variation in participation rates is considerable: from less than 2% in Burundi, the Central African Republic, Chad, Myanmar and Rwanda to more than 55% in Colombia, Ecuador, Guyana, Haiti, Nicaragua, Panama, Suriname, Venezuela and Viet Nam. Among 6-year-olds, participation levels are higher in some cases, but are similar or lower in many others. This pattern of declining coverage reflects, in large part, the onset of compulsory schooling and children’s entrance into primary schools in many countries, including Bolivia, Cameroon, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Guyana, Nicaragua, the Philippines, Suriname, Trinidad and Tobago, Viet Nam and Zimbabwe. In sum, countries differ in two ways: the extent to which children’s participation in ECCE programmes increases significantly with age or remains relatively stable, and the extent to which the transition to primary education affects participation levels in pre-primary education. To further clarify these national differences, age-specific enrolment ratios for children of ages 3 to 7 can be constructed for sixty countries (Figure 6.8).38 The ratios are reported separately for pre-primary (dark bars) and primary (light bars). Instances of a ‘mixed’ transition occur at those ages with both dark and light bars – in other words, where
enrolment ratios in pre-primary and primary overlap for the same age bracket.
A comparison of age-specific enrolment profiles highlights the following patterns:
Countries range between those in which very few children are enrolled in pre-primary education in each age category (e.g. Senegal and Yemen) to countries in which almost all children are enrolled (e.g. France and Italy).
In some countries enrolment ratios in preprimary education rise quite steeply with age Participation of 5- and 6-year-olds varies between 2% in Burundi to 55% in Viet Nam
37. As Nonoyama et al. (2006) point out, caution should be exercised when comparing country rates within and across household surveys for these ages.
38. Additional information on EU countries is available in European Commission (2005: pp. 128-30).

PART III. Early childhood care and education
U. R. Tanzania
Egypt
Zimbabwe
Nicaragua
Dominican Rep.
Colombia
Haiti
Uganda
Guatemala
India
Albania
Nicaragua
Bulgaria
Ecuador
Panama
Chad
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Net attendance rates (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>age 4</td>
<td>0 20 40 60 80 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>age 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 6.6: Net attendance rates for ages 3 and 4 in organized care and learning programmes, showing higher participation for 4-year-olds, c. 2000

Note: Data for age 3 are unavailable for Bulgaria, Ecuador, Haiti, Panama and Uganda.
Sources: Three household surveys (Box 6.2).
(e.g. Brazil, Cyprus and Guatemala) while in others there is little change with age (e.g. Azerbaijan and Mongolia). In the Russian Federation, enrolment levels actually decline with age.

In quite a few, mainly developed, countries the transition to primary occurs neatly at the official or theoretical primary entrance age, with no mixed age categories (e.g. Japan and Norway).

In other countries many children enter primary education earlier than the theoretical entrance age (e.g. Benin, Madagascar and Turkey). Another pattern involves countries in which children of the official primary entrance age are still enrolled in pre-primary education (e.g. Mauritius and Pakistan).

Finally, in some countries the last two patterns coexist: children of official pre-primary age are already in primary education while others, of the official primary education age, are still in pre-primary education (e.g. Colombia and Lithuania).

Overall, careful comparisons of attendance and enrolment figures of young children in ECCE programmes are needed in order to improve assessments of programme coverage as well as progress towards the ECCE goal.

Disadvantaged and vulnerable children: limited access

Worldwide, millions of children who belong to disadvantaged groups and live in vulnerable settings are denied access to ECCE programmes, despite many studies highlighting considerable benefits accruing from their participation (see Chapter 5). This section examines which socio-demographic groups are particularly disadvantaged and which circumstances of vulnerability most impede access to ECCE programmes. It evaluates the relative importance of such socio-demographic factors as gender, place of residence, household wealth and parental education on the likelihood that a child will participate in an ECCE programme.
programme. It also considers the influence of several proxies of poverty, such as stunting and lack of a vaccination record or birth certificate. While these factors cover only selected types of disadvantage and vulnerability, they help account for major disparities in access to ECCE programmes.39 Do girls, children residing in rural areas or those in poorer households have significantly lower participation rates in ECCE programmes than their counterparts who are male, live in urban areas or belong to richer households? Figure 6.9 shows the gender gaps and Figure 6.10 the urban-rural gaps in participation rates for care and learning programmes among 3- and 4-year-olds in countries with available 39. Children with disabilities and children living in emergency situations are discussed in Chapters 3 and 7. Millions of children who belong to disadvantaged groups and live in vulnerable settings are denied access to ECCE U. R. Tanzania Zimbabwe Egypt Uganda Nicaragua Haiti Colombia Bosnia/Herzeg. India Guatemala Bulgaria Albania Ecuador Nicaragua Panama Burundi C. A. R. Rwanda
Chad
Myanmar
Azerbaijan
Kenya
Côte d'Ivoire
Lao PDR
Madagascar
Sierra Leone
Guinea-Bissau
Comoros
D. R. Congo
Mongolia
Angola
Cameroon
Rep. Moldova
Guinea
Senegal
Sudan (North)
Lesotho
S. Tome/Principe
Trinidad/Tobago
Swaziland
Bahrain
Bolivia
Jamaica
Philippines
Equatorial Guinea
Viet Nam
Venezuela
Suriname
Guyana
Bosnia/Herzeg.
Iraq
DHS
LSMS
MICS
0 20 40 60 80 100
Net attendance rates (%)
age 6
age 5
Figure 6.7: Net attendance rates for ages 5 and 6 in ECCE programmes, showing significant cross-national variation, c. 2000
Note: Data are unavailable in some countries for children age 5 (Bosnia and Herzegovina, Iraq) or age 6 (Albania, Colombia, Ecuador, Panama).
Sources: Three household surveys (Box 6.2).
data. Figure 6.11 reports household wealth disparities in participation rates, also for 3- and 4-year-olds.40
A comparison of boys’ and girls’ participation rates indicates that in most countries the gender gap is relatively small (less than 10%). In Bahrain, Colombia, Equatorial Guinea and Suriname the gender gap favours boys, while in Bolivia, the Philippines, and Trinidad and Tobago, it favours girls (Figure 6.9). By contrast, urban-rural differences in participation rates are much larger and, except in Jamaica, always favour urban children (Figure 6.10). The proportion of rural children in early childhood programmes is often 40. Nonoyama et al. (2006), Education Policy and Data Center (2006) and Carr-Hill (2006) also examine gender, urban-rural and wealth differences in attendance rates among 5- and 6-year-olds. The findings are largely similar to those reported for 3- and 4-year-olds.

PART III. Early childhood care and education

Jordan
Guatemala
Kyrgyzstan

Page 452 of 1373
Azerbaijan
3 4 5 6 7
3 6 7
0
20
40
60
80
100
Croatia (2003)
3 4 5 6 7
Poland
3 4 5 6 7
Pakistan
3 4 5 6 7
Dominican Republic
3 4 5 6 7
0
20
40
60
80
100
Brazil (2003)
3 4 5 6 7
3 6 7
0
20
40
60
80
100
Greece
3 4 5 6 7
Peru
3 4 5 6 7
United States
3 4 5 6 7
Finland
3 4 5 6 7
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Switzerland
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3 4 5
Age Age Age Age Age Age
6 7
0
20
40
60
80
100
Netherlands
3 4 5 6 7
Portugal
3 4 5 6 7
Bulgaria
3 4 5 6 7
Mauritius
3 4 5 6 7
0
20
40
60
80
100
Slovenia
3 4 5 6 7
Eritrea
3 4 5 6 7
Benin
3 4 5 6 7
Togo
3 4 5 6 7
Algeria
3 4 5 6 7
0
20
40
60
80
100
Senegal
3 4 5 6 7
Madagascar
4 5
Kuwait
4 5
Nicaragua
4 5
Lebanon
Yemen (2003)
3 4 5 6 7
0
20
40
60
80
100
Pre-primary Primary
Age-specific enrolment ratios (%)
Figure 6.8: Age-specific enrolment ratios for ages 3 to 7 in pre-primary and primary education, 2004
Note: Official primary school entrance age is indicated in bold for each country, except for Mongolia where it is age 8. In the following countries, compulsory education begins at an age lower than that cited as the official entrance age to primary school: Colombia, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guinea, Israel, Nicaragua, Republic of Moldova and Russian Federation.
Source: UIS database.
between ten and thirty percentage points lower than that of urban children. Place of residence is a more important factor than gender in accounting for participation rate disparities. Figure 6.11 compares participation rates for the richest 40% of households with those for the poorest 40%. In general, children from poorer households participate in ECCE programmes at considerably lower levels than do children from richer households. Poverty, like place of residence, is an important factor in access to early childhood programmes. Nevertheless, it should be noted that in Albania, Bolivia and Suriname, participation rates in poorer

Ghana
3 4 5 6 7
0
20
40
60
80
100
Mongolia
3 4 5 6 7
Morocco
3 4 5 6 7
Colombia
3 4 5 6 7
Bolivia
3 4 5 6 7
0
20
40
60
80
100
United Arab Emirates
3 4 5 6 7
Costa Rica
3 4 5 6 7
0
20
40
60
El Salvador
3 4 5 6 7
Republic of Korea
3 4 5 6 7
Honduras
3 4 5 6 7
Mexico
3 4 5 6 7
0
20
40
60
80
100
Age-specific enrolment ratios (%)
TFYR Macedonia
3 4 5 6 7
Australia
3 4 5 6 7
0
20
40
60
80
100
Cyprus
3 4 5 6 7
Republic of Moldova
3 4 5 6 7
Lithuania
3 4 5 6 7
United Kingdom
3 4 5 6 7
0
20
40
60
80
100
Russian Federation
3 4 5 6 7
Age Age Age Age Age Age
Israel
3 4 5 6 7
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<th>Year 1</th>
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<th>Year 4</th>
<th>Year 5</th>
<th>Year 6</th>
<th>Year 7</th>
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<td>7</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<td>Guinea</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lao PDR</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>7</td>
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<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>Turkey</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Philippines | 3      | 4      | 5      | 6      | 7      | 3      | 4      | (2003)
Pre-primary Primary
households are actually higher than in richer households, and that in some countries (e.g. Angola, Equatorial Guinea, and Trinidad and Tobago) the wealth gap is relatively small given the overall attendance rates. The evidence suggests that policy measures in these two groups of countries have successfully reached disadvantaged children. Multivariate analyses were conducted to identify socio-demographic factors other than gender, place of residence and household wealth that significantly affect the probability of a child’s participating in an ECCE programme. The analyses, carried out separately in sixty-two counties with household survey data, focused once again on the participation of 3- and 4-year-olds in organized care and learning programmes. They assessed the net effect of five variables – including age and mother’s education in addition to gender, place of residence and household wealth – on children’s ECCE participation. Table 6.12 shows the positive, 41. Nonoyama et al. (2006) and Education Policy and Data Center (2006) also examined pre-primary attendance by 5- and 6-year-olds in forty-one countries.

PART III. Early childhood care and education

Bahrain
Colombia
Suriname
Cameroon
Guyana
Equat. Guinea
Niger
Azerbaijan
Côte d’Ivoire
Senegal
Tajikistan
Guinea
Guinea-Bissau
S. Tome/Principe
Zambia
Chad
Iraq
Angola
D. R. Congo
Madagascar
Egypt *
C. A. R.
Sierra Leone
Albania
Mongolia
Rwanda
Togo
Dominican Rep. *
Uganda *
Burundi
Gambia
Bolivia
Myanmar
U. R. Tanzania *
Bosnia/Herzeg.
Sudan (North)
Venezuela
India
Comoros
Haiti *
Zimbabwe *
Swaziland
Lesotho
Viet Nam
Rep. Moldova
Kenya
Lao PDR
Jamaica
Philippines
Botswana
Uzbekistan
Nicaragua *
Trinidad/Tobago
Disparity favouring girls
Disparity favouring boys
Figure 6.9: Gender disparities in attendance rates for ages 3 and 4 in care and learning programmes, 1999-2003

Note: *DHS survey countries.
Sources: Three household surveys (see Box 6.2).

Viet Nam
Rep. Moldova
Suriname
Uzbekistan
Mongolia
Swaziland
Colombia
Myanmar
Kenya
Sudan (North)
Haiti *
Cameroon
Guinea
Burundi
Guyana
Madagascar
Lesotho
Azerbaijan
Lao PDR
Botswana
Tajikistan
Guinea-Bissau
Uganda *
Sierra Leone
Comoros
Togo
India
Dominican Rep. *
Zambia
Côte d’Ivoire
Albania
Egypt *
Rwanda
Bosnia/Herzeg.,
U. R. Tanzania *
Equat. Guinea
Nicaragua *
Senegal
Niger
Philippines
Gambia
D. R. Congo
Zimbabwe *
C. A. R.
Iraq
Bolivia
Chad
Angola
S. Tome/Principe
Jamaica
Disparity
favouring
rural
areas
Disparity
favouring
urban
areas
-20 -10 0 10 20 30 40
Urban-rural attendance disparity (percentage points)
Figure 6.10: Urban-rural attendance disparities for ages 3 and 4
in care and learning programmes, 1999-2003
Note: *DHS survey countries.
Sources: Three household surveys (see Box 6.2).
negative or non-significant relationships between each independent variable and the likelihood of ECCE programme participation.

By and large, the multivariate analyses expand and further validate the findings reported above. They demonstrate that while age is a significant factor in most countries (4-year-olds have higher participation rates than 3-year-olds), gender is not. The net effect of place of residence is mixed: in fewer than half the countries children in rural communities have lower participation rates, while in more than half the cases this effect disappears and becomes non-significant. Both the mother’s having secondary-level education and the household’s relative wealth – especially in households belonging to the fourth and fifth quintiles – substantially increase the likelihood of children attending ECCE programmes in a majority of countries.

Findings on additional variables, based on a smaller sample of countries (the bottom part of Table 6.12), indicated the following:

Trinidad/Tobago
Colombia
Rep. Moldova
Dominican Rep. *
Viet Nam
Venezuela
India
Guyana
Equatorial Guinea
Lesotho
Haiti *
Mongolia
Nicaragua *
Swaziland
Botswana
Kenya
Cameroon
S. Tome/Principe
Gambia
Suriname
Philippines
Guinea
Sierra Leone
Sudan (North)
Togo
Madagascar
Comoros
Azerbaijan
Myanmar
Côte d'Ivoire
Bolivia
Egypt *
Senegal
Guinea-Bissau
Albania
Rwanda
Uganda *
Tajikistan
Lao PDR
Angola
Zimbabwe *
U. R. Tanzania *
D. R. Congo
C. A. R.
Burundi
Niger
Chad

0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80
Attendance rates for 3- and 4-year-olds (%)

Richer households
Poorer households

Figure 6.11: Household wealth disparities in attendance rates
for ages 3 and 4 in care and learning programmes, 1999-2003

Note: Richer households = top 40% by wealth; poorer households = bottom 40%.

Sources: Three household surveys (see Box 6.2)

Table 6.12: Results of multivariate analyses of ECCE participation
by 3- and 4-year-olds1

1. This summary table gives the number of countries in which each independent variable
has a significant
or non-significant effect on the likelihood of participation in organized care and learning
programmes. Each
variable’s net effect is analysed with the other variables held constant. Figures in bold
indicate the main
tendencies.

2. The upper part of the table deals with sixty-two of the countries involved in the
household surveys
discussed in Box 6.2: all forty-five of the countries in MICS2 (2000–03) with ECCE data;
seven DHS

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countries (1999–2002); and the ten LSMS countries (1995-2003; for India, two states are used in the sample).

3. Logit regression analyses are employed when the dependent variable is dichotomous – in this case, whether a child of pre-school age has, or has not, participated in an organized early learning or pre-primary programme. The reference categories for the independent variables are (in brackets): gender (male), age (3), residence (rural), mother’s education (none) and household wealth (bottom quintile).

4. Using a slightly lower significance level (i.e. p<.10), the same patterns are obtained, but with slightly more cases falling into the categories of the dominant trend.

5. The analyses reported in this section are based on the LSMS and include children aged 3 to 6. Only ten countries had variables appropriate for the multivariate analyses. Sources: Nonoyama et al. (2006); Education Policy and Data Center (2006).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place of residence</td>
<td>Urban area (not standardized)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother’s education</td>
<td>Primary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household wealth</td>
<td>2nd quintile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3rd quintile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4th quintile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5th quintile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other variables</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household size</td>
<td>Both parents home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Region of country</td>
<td>ECCE centre in village</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10 3 48 1</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>50 1 8 3</td>
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<td>25 3 30 4</td>
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<td>8 3 43 8</td>
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<td>29 1 25 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>37 2 16 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0 5 5 0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Logit regression results
(number of countries)²
Variable positive negative
Significant at p=0.05
Not significant
Data not available
Household size: In five countries children living in large households (i.e. families with three or more children) were significantly less likely to attend ECCE programmes than those in small households. The more children in a particular household, the less likely the family is to send them to ECCE programmes. In some cases household members may take care of children while others work, so parents do not deem it necessary to enrol children in child care.

Two-parent households: Having both parents at home does not appear to affect the odds of participation in ECCE programmes, after controlling for other socio-economic variables. The exception is Ecuador, where the effect is negative and significant.

Subnational regions: Brazil and Guatemala show large regional disparities in probability of ECCE attendance, even after controlling for household wealth and urban residence. This may mean that certain parts of these countries are underserved in terms of ECCE centres, or it could reflect differences in culture, geography and accessibility.

Availability of a centre: In India, the supply of ECCE centres positively affects participation. Having an early learning centre in the village in which the household is located significantly increases the likelihood of attendance.42

The accumulation of disadvantage

Substantial evidence indicates that low birth weight, reduced breastfeeding, stunting, and iron and iodine deficiency are associated with longterm deficits in children’s cognitive and motor development, and school readiness (see Chapter 5). Examining whether these factors are also related to participation in early childhood programmes suggests that the socio-economic disadvantages associated with poverty, social marginality, reduced nutrition and susceptibility to disease tend to accumulate during the first years of life and that the accumulated disadvantage significantly inhibits access to ECCE programmes.
for the most vulnerable children in society. The impact of these factors is further accentuated as children gain access to primary education. To examine the influence of particular variables on participation in early learning programmes, MICS2 household surveys were analysed. The following patterns were observed:43

Birth certificate: In almost all the surveyed countries, children for whom a birth certificate was seen by survey takers were considerably more likely to attend organized care and learning programmes than children who had none (Figure 6.12).

Vaccination: The influence of a child having been vaccinated is similar to that of possessing a birth certificate. Children who lack vaccination records have lower ECCE participation rates than those who possess such records. Healthier children, in this case those who have been vaccinated, are more likely to attend ECCE programmes.

Stunting: In all the surveyed countries, children suffering from stunting have lower ECCE participation rates than other children. The effect is more apparent among boys than among girls.

In sum, the evidence suggests that variables such as the possession of a birth certificate and, to a lesser extent, a vaccination record are associated with participation levels. While the effect of the availability of an ECCE centre on participation levels was examined only in the Indian context, other studies provide evidence substantiating this finding.

42 Also see Carr-Hill (2006) for additional findings.

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Dominican Rep.
Viet Nam
Suriname
Venezuela
Guyana
Kenya
Sudan (North)
Rep. Moldova
Sudan (South)
Sierra Leone
Albania
Zambia
Uzbekistan
Swaziland
Cameroon
Boliva
Gambia
S. Tome/Principe
Côte d’Ivoire
Lao PDR
Comoros
Myanmar
Guinea-Bissau
Azerbaijan
Togo
Angola
Senegal
Bosnia/Herzeg.
Burundi
Madagascar
Niger
Chad
Tajikistan
Rwanda
C. A. R.
Congo
0 10 20 30 40 50 60
% of children attending organised early learning programmes
No birth certificate
Birth certificate seen
Figure 6.12: Disparities in attendance rates for ages 3 and 4
in organized care and learning programmes based on possession
of a birth certificate, 1999-2003
Note: The survey included a third category for which no birth certificate was in evidence
(respondents stating to have the child’s birth certificate, but which was not presented to the survey
taker).
Sources: Three household surveys (Box 6.2).
with children’s attendance in early care and learning programmes. Stunting, related to poverty, is influential in some settings and for some children but it is a less consistent predictor of ECCE participation. In other words, absolute poverty and social exclusion are important factors inhibiting ECCE participation.

Who are the child carers and pre-primary educators? Early childhood teachers, pedagogues, nursery workers, child minders, day care staff, auxiliary nurses, volunteer helpers – these are just some of the titles used to describe the diverse workforce found in ECCE programmes and institutions. This section characterizes the type, characteristics and professional status of the heterogeneous staff working in ECCE programmes worldwide. A global and comprehensive survey remains elusive since comparable data about paid and unpaid ECCE programme staff working with infants and toddlers (under 3) are limited, especially for developing countries. As a result, this section mainly highlights teachers working in pre-primary institutions catering to older children (3 and up), about whom much more information is available. UNESCO’s 1988 survey identified three main categories of personnel working in ECCE centres: teachers (about 67% of all staff), day care workers (8%) and others (25%) (Fisher, 1991). The third category included administrators, helpers, play attendants and service staff, such as cooks, cleaners and guards. Parents (typically mothers) may also be included in the ECCE workforce. In addition to being the first educators of their children, some parents actively assist in development, organization, management and fundraising for local ECCE programmes (Table 6.13). In developing countries and in rural areas, many ECCE programmes, especially those for disadvantaged children, would probably not be established without the collaboration of parents and community members (Fisher, 1991).
In many countries where parents have limited access to formal ECCE programmes, governments and NGOs develop parenting programmes to improve the quality of care and education that young children receive (Evans, 2006). For example, the international HIPPY (Home Instruction for Parents of Preschool Youngsters) programme provides parents with support and information to help them accomplish their role as first educator effectively (Westheimer, 2003). In more supportive environments, preschools are incorporating parental education within their learning environments. Open preschools in Sweden provide educational and developmental guidance to parents while their children are attending the centre (as of age 1). In Malawi, parents are trained in basic child care and pre-school activities within community-based child care groups.

What qualifications and training for pre-primary teachers?

Qualifications for pre-primary teachers vary greatly by country, as Table 6.14 shows for twenty-three developing countries for which relevant data are available. In four countries, preprimary teachers need only a lower-secondary qualification (roughly equivalent to between nine and eleven years of formal schooling). In eight countries, completion of regular uppersecondary studies is required. In the remaining

In Malawi, parents are trained in basic child care and pre-school activities within community-based child care groups.

Benin, Bolivia, Fiji, Côte d'Ivoire, Lao PDR, Mauritius, Rwanda, San Marino, Sweden, Thailand, Yugoslavia Cameroon, Malawi, Nicaragua, Peru, Senegal, Syrian A. R., Ukrainian S. S. R., United Arab Emirates, USSR Congo, Dominica, Ghana, Grenada, Lao PDR, Mauritius, Trinidad/Tobago, Zambia
Albania, Belize, Benin, Fiji, Thailand, 
Trinidad/Tobago
Cameroon, Spain, Suriname, Sweden, 
Thailand, Yugoslavia
Belize, Dominica, Fiji, Mauritius, 
Papua New Guinea
Belize, Benin, Congo, Czechoslovakia, 
Ghana,

Table 6.13: Parental involvement in ECCE programmes
Management/
administration of
schools and centres
Parent committees
and councils
Assistance in building
or putting up centres
Making of toys, 
equipment and other
materials or
furnishing of centres
Collaboration in
starting, assisting
or developing ECCE
programmes
Fundraising
Collaboration with
teachers and other
ECCE personnel
(including providing
transport and
supervision during
field trips)

Type of collaboration Countries1
1. As the survey was taken in 1988, the country names in use
at the time are given.
eleven countries, a post-secondary or tertiary qualification is required. In OECD countries, tertiary education and specialized training are usually required. In France, pre-primary teachers must pass a national examination open only to holders of a three-year post-secondary diploma (OECD, 2004c). In Belgium, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Luxembourg and Portugal, preprimary teachers must complete at least three years of post-secondary education. A master’s degree is required of pre-primary teachers in Spain (OECD/UNESCO, 2005). Sweden recently increased the university training course for preschool teachers and ‘leisure time pedagogues’ from three to three-and-a-half years, making it equivalent to the requirement for primary teachers (UNESCO, 2002c).

The United States represents a special case among OECD countries. Most teachers in child care centres are not required to hold an undergraduate (bachelor’s) degree (Ackerman, 2006): only fourteen states require teachers in state-funded pre-schools to have both a bachelor’s degree and specialized training in early childhood (Barnett et al., 2004). Nor do teachers in private centres have to undergo any pre-service training in most states (Ackerman, 2004).

In many contexts, formal requirements are not enforced, effectively broadening the range of qualifications found among pre-primary teachers. For example, in Cuba, where enforcement is high, 100% of teachers meet formal requirements; the percentage is considerably lower in Kazakhstan (36%), the Lao People’s Democratic Republic (59%) and Lebanon (52%) . Qualification requirements also vary according to the type of ECCE professional and the nature of the tasks performed (Box 6.3). In most industrialized countries, the care and education components of early childhood provision are differentiated, leading to separate staffing policies and a ‘divided workforce’ (Moss, 2004). Highly
trained educators or qualified pedagogues work alongside untrained child care workers, many of them part time. Some ECCE personnel work in, or are trained for, the whole spectrum of early childhood from infancy to pre-primary education; others specialize in given age brackets or in particular types of institutions, such as crèches, kindergartens or pre-schools (Moss, 2000). Researchers have identified certain categories of ECCE professionals common to many developed countries (Moss, 2000, 2004; Oberhuemer, 2000; Oberhuemer and Ulich, 1997):

- **Pedagogues**, who receive broad training in the theory and practice of pedagogy and work with children in multiple contexts from birth to compulsory school age.
- **Early childhood or pre-primary teachers**, who receive teacher training and work with children of pre-primary school age, primarily in institutional settings.
- **Child care or nursery workers**, who usually receive basic paramedical training to work in child care centres and may also be employed in early childhood services in the welfare system.
- **Qualified or trained auxiliaries** such as nurses – semi-professionals who typically work part time.
- **Family day care workers**, who have few, if any, formal qualifications or training and tend to work outside centre-based programmes; their status depends on whether they are independent providers or self-employed.

44. Information gathered from education officials attending a UIS capacity building workshop in sub-Saharan Africa in August 2005 indicates that qualifications for lead and support ECCE staff may be even lower than requirements for preprimary teachers in Burkina Faso, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritania and Namibia.
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Table 6.14: Academic qualifications required of pre-primary teachers in selected countries and comparison with primary teachers, 2000–2005

1. The number of asterisks (*) indicates how many additional ISCED levels are required to teach primary school:
   *= one level higher; **= two levels higher. For example in Chad, the primary teacher qualification is upper secondary,
one level higher than the pre-primary teachers; in Ecuador, it is tertiary, two levels higher.

Source: UIS database.

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<td>Bangladesh</td>
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<td>Mali</td>
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Required qualification for pre-primary teachers Country Year % meeting requirement
Required qualification for primary teachers
Many ECCE programmes are further staffed by non-qualified auxiliaries or volunteers such as mothers of attending children. In general, pre-primary teachers have little preservice training and almost always less than their primary school counterparts, as Figure 6.13 indicates. In 60% of the countries with data for 2004, more than 20% of teachers lacked any training, a percentage slightly higher than in primary education. In some countries (e.g. Bangladesh, Chad, Guinea, Oman and Syrian Arab Republic) there is no specific training programme for pre-primary teachers; only a few countries (e.g. Senegal) explicitly require teacher training. Lesotho and Uganda have recently developed training courses for pre-primary teachers: an early childhood certificate course taught at the Lesotho College of Education and a nursery teacher certificate to be registered by Uganda’s Ministry of Education (Wallet, 2006).

The age and gender composition of the ECCE workforce is related to the traditional caring roles of mothers and women. In many societies, the care and education of young children were assumed to be intuitive, maternal activities that required few formally acquired skills and little training. Thus, the prevalence of women workers in ECCE programmes represents, for many, an extension of women’s traditional child care and mothering roles (Moss, 2000). Almost all preprimary school teachers are women: the global median of women’s share of the profession is 99% in contrast to 74% among primary school teachers. Among 151 countries for which data are almost all pre-primary school teachers are women.

Lao PDR
Cambodia
Macao, China
Marshall Islands
Maldives
Bangladesh
Iran, Isl. Rep.
Br. Virgin Is
Nicaragua
Trinidad/Tobago
Grenada
Guyana
St Kitts/Nevis
Panama
Saint Lucia
St Vincent/Grenad.
Bahamas
Turks/Caicos Is
Honduras
Anguilla
Belize
Ecuador
Dominican Rep.
Dominica
Bolivia
Barbados
Costa Rica
Cayman Is
Aruba
Bermuda
Cuba
Montserrat
Neth. Antilles
Belarus
Croatia
Rep. Moldova
Russian Fed.
East Asia and the Pacific
South and West Asia
Latin America and the Caribbean
Central and Eastern Europe
0 20 40 60 80 100
Cape Verde
Ghana
U. R. Tanzania
Congo
Equatorial Guinea
S. Tome/Principe
Cameroon
Eritrea
Burundi
Togo
Kenya
Ethiopia
Seychelles
Uganda
Niger
Mauritius
Benin
Côte d'Ivoire
Senegal
Lebanon
Sudan
Syrian A. R.
U. A. Emirates
Saudi Arabia
Djibouti
Iraq
Kuwait
Mauritania
Oman
Palestinian A. T.
Kyrgyzstan
Armenia
Azerbaijan
Tajikistan
Georgia
Uzbekistan
Sub-Saharan Africa
Arab States
Central Asia
0 20 40 60 80 100
Trained teachers (%) Trained teachers (%)
Pre-Primary Primary
Figure 6.13: Percentage of trained pre-primary and primary school teachers by region, 2004
Source: Annex, Statistical Table 10A.
available, male pre-primary teachers are a majority only in Nepal, Pakistan and Papua New Guinea, whereas in primary education they constitute majorities in thirty-eight countries, mostly in sub-Saharan Africa (see annex, Statistical Table 10A). The preponderance of women among pre-primary teachers also influences the design of ECCE programmes (see Chapter 7).

In OECD countries, where pre-primary education has existed for decades, the age distribution of pre-primary teachers is comparable to that of primary school teachers.

In most OECD countries, more than 20% of preprimary teachers are age 50 or older, except in the Republic of Korea (where fewer than 1% are 50 or older) and Japan (fewer than 6%). The age composition of pre-primary teachers has financial implications, since teachers who are more advanced in their career command higher salaries. Furthermore, when salary levels in the public sector grow more slowly than wages in other sectors or than GDP per capita, countries encounter difficulties in attracting new recruits to the profession (OECD, 2003).

In low- and middle-income countries, the more recent expansion of pre-primary education translates into a higher proportion of younger teachers than at the primary level. For instance, in Jordan some 80% of pre-primary teachers are below age 30 and in Paraguay the share is 52%.

Exceptional cases include Indonesia and the Niger, which have recruited large numbers of young teachers (and paraprofessionals) for primary schools to increase access and completion rates.

The importance of upgrading the ECCE workforce

Several trends are emerging regarding the expansion and upgrading of the ECCE workforce; these have implications for the development of good-quality ECCE programmes. First, many countries are developing, revising or improving
the training programmes through which preprimary teachers become qualified. Some countries are expanding the availability of ECCE programme opportunities at general universities and vocational institutions. For example, in 1997 New Zealand increased the diversity and number of pre-service teacher education providers, including three-year training programmes for early childhood education, and Singapore did the same in 2001. In Egypt, universities providing education degrees have developed pre-service and in-service training programmes for nonspecialized kindergarten teachers. Other countries, including Albania and the Marshall Islands, have recently developed their first programmes for pre-school teachers.

Second, many European countries (e.g. Denmark, Finland, Italy and Norway) are trying to reconcile primary and pre-primary qualifications so that teachers at both levels attain the same base qualification levels, albeit with different specializations (see Chapter 8). It should be noted that upgrading ECCE teacher qualifications does not imply that ECCE teaching methods or programmes are being usurped by the

45. For details on the Niger, see L’Écuyer (2004).

46. The national ECCE profiles are the main source of information for this section.

PART III. Early childhood care and education

A recent comparative study of the child care workforce in Denmark, Hungary, Netherlands, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom described the characteristics of formal paid workers in child care and out-of-school care as well as residential and foster care. Informal carers and domestic workers were excluded from the study.* The study found that the occupations and training requirements of the care workforce depended on whether the setting was domestic, group day or residential, and sometimes on the country as well. Care in domestic settings involved (a) carers in their own homes (family day care services), (b) nannies or other paid carers in the child’s home or (c) foster carers. Care provided in group day settings was carried out by nursery nurses, nursing assistants and auxiliaries, and sometimes teachers. Social care workers, pedagogues and teachers were the
typical occupations of those providing care to children in residential settings. In most domestic settings carers had little or no formal training. In the United Kingdom, for example, foster carers, house parents, nannies and childminders had almost no training requirements. By contrast, most workers in group day and residential settings were required to be trained at higher levels and to have, for example, a vocational training certificate. In Spain, a medium training level was required for canguros (‘kangaroos’, nannies or other paid carers in the child’s home), domestic helpers, instructors in child play centres, or those leading out-of-school or leisure activities for children. Finally, teachers, pedagogues and social care workers were required to have higher education credentials.

The study found part-time employment to be pervasive in the care occupations, partly due to the high proportions of women workers. Self-employment is very low compared to non-care occupations. Although personal carers working full time earn less annually than the total workforce on average, those on a part-time schedule earn more than the average for all part-time workers.

* This EU-funded study also examined carers for youth, disabled adults and the elderly, groups not treated in this chapter or, in the latter two cases, in this Report.

Source: van Ewijk et al. (2002).

Box 6.3: The child care workforce in six EU countries
Third, in several developing countries, teacher training is being enhanced with research-based evidence concerning child growth and development. Following a reform in 1995, for instance, at least 30% of the training of Libyan kindergarten teachers must be devoted to educational, psychological and vocational sciences. In Mexico, the Quality Scale for Preschool Centres, which evaluates national ECCE programmes, consists of seven research-based dimensions, including community involvement in the educational process (Myers, 2006). Singapore has adopted a national self-appraisal tool called PEAK (Pursuing Excellence at Kindergartens) to highlight problem areas in kindergartens.

Fourth, several countries are considering ways to include more men as ECCE professionals in order to strengthen the role of fathers in children’s care and upbringing. In Norway, a ministerial decree aimed to increase the presence of men among kindergarten staff to 20%, but low salaries and general working conditions are considered major obstacles to reaching this goal (Box 6.4). Some other countries are considering similar policies.

Finally, many countries are strengthening in-service training or continued education as a means of improving the quality and qualifications of existing ECCE staff. In 2003, Estonia launched competence-based teacher training and inservice training requirements for pre-school teachers. Each Moroccan province has a preschool resource centre providing continuing education and pedagogical support to teachers. The SERVOL Training Centre in Trinidad and Tobago organizes in-service training for other Caribbean islands.

In sum, the presence of knowledgeable and experienced early childhood staff – who are in short supply in most countries – helps ensure that ECCE programmes are of high quality (see Chapter 7).
The ECCE goal:
slow but uneven progress
Historically, Europe and North America expanded early childhood provision earlier and more rapidly than other regions. Smaller households, changing gender roles, more working women and increased migration swelled the demand for centre-based child care programmes and preprimary education. In developing countries, the traditional roles of women in agriculture and the informal sector meant greater reliance on kin and informal community arrangements for children's care and upbringing.

Europe and North America expanded early childhood provision earlier and more rapidly than other regions

Improving working conditions is an important factor in increasing the overall supply of ECCE programme staff. Because of data limitations, however, it is possible here to focus only on pre-primary teachers’ salaries and official hours worked for a limited number of countries.

Some data are available for eleven countries. In Argentina, Brazil, Jordan, Thailand and Uruguay, pre-primary teachers at the beginning of their careers receive lower salaries than the per capita GDP (Figure 6.14). In Argentina, Jordan and Uruguay, average salaries remain at or below the per capita GDP level at the end of the teacher’s career, even after salary increments for experience or seniority have been accrued. In the rest of the countries, pre-primary teachers with the minimum required qualifications generally do better — their starting salaries are above the per capita GDP, and in some (e.g. India and Thailand) pay increases for seniority result in salaries that are more than double the average GDP per capita. In Mexico (not included in the figure), to supplement their salaries some teachers work double shifts and others take second jobs outside education (OECD, 2004a). Additional data for the eleven countries in the figure show no evidence of major salary differences between pre-primary and primary teachers with minimum
qualifications, except in Brazil (Wallet, 2006). The number of official hours worked by pre-primary and primary school teachers in fourteen countries with available data shows no discernible relationship with salaries on a cross national basis (Figure 6.15). In countries where pre-primary teachers are paid the same salaries as primary teachers but work significantly fewer hours (e.g. India and the Philippines), unit costs are likely to be higher at the pre-primary level, since teacher salaries represent a very large share of total costs. Box 6.4: Salaries and teaching hours of pre-primary teachers
This is now changing. Indeed, access to early care and pre-primary education has expanded worldwide. GERs in pre-primary education are increasing in all regions, though coverage in sub-Saharan Africa and the Arab States remains very low. After a serious decline in pre-primary education after the break-up of the Soviet Union, transition countries have regained most lost ground.

In much of the developing world, however, despite the increased coverage, children from poorer and rural households have significantly less access to early childhood programmes than those from richer and urban ones. In addition, the socio-economic disadvantages associated with poverty and social exclusion (e.g. inability to obtain a birth certificate) accumulate during the first years of life and further inhibit ECCE participation for the most vulnerable children in society.

This means government ECCE policy frameworks have the potential to make a difference for the disadvantaged, vulnerable and disabled. Yet extremely few countries have established national frameworks to coordinate or finance programmes that comprehensively address the diverse needs (health, nutrition, care, education, psychosocial development) of children in the first three years of life. For disadvantaged, vulnerable and disabled children, the lack of such frameworks...
GDP per capita
Salaries higher than GDP per capita
Ending salary
Starting salary
Figure 6.14: Average starting and ending salaries for pre-primary teachers with minimum qualifications as a factor of GDP per capita in selected countries, 2002-2003
Note: Salary data for Thailand are for 2003-2004. Minimum qualifications were selected for starting and ending salaries since these categories provided the most complete data (see glossary).
Paraguay
Philippines
Uruguay
India
Peru
Malaysia
Argentina
Jordan
Chile
Egypt
Sri Lanka
Jamaica
Tunisia
Russian Fed.
Annual teaching hours
0 200 400 600 800 1 000 1 200 1 400 1 600
Pre-primary teachers Primary teachers
Figure 6.15: Total annual number of teaching hours for pre-primary and primary teachers in selected countries, 2002-2003
Note: Countries are listed in ascending order by pre-primary teaching hours.
national frameworks represents a truly missed opportunity. With respect to children aged 3 and older, many more official bodies – typically, but not exclusively, ministries of education – are involved in national policies and provision. Carers and educators working in ECCE programmes and institutions, while almost uniformly female, are exceptionally diverse in terms of qualifications, training and experience. In most industrialized countries, trained staff work alongside untrained child care workers and part-time volunteers. In developing countries, the ECCE workforce, typically possesses minimal education and pre-service training. Many countries have implemented policies to expand and upgrade their ECCE workforce, but progress is uneven and slow. Ways to improve the scope, coverage and staff of ECCE programmes so as to address the needs of all children from birth to primary school entry are examined in Chapters 7 and 8.

For disadvantaged, children, the lack of national frameworks represents a truly missed opportunity.
A proud father with his son in Baghdad, Iraq.
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Early childhood programmes ensure children’s holistic development by supporting and complementing efforts of parents and other carers during the early years and easing the transition to primary school. Such programmes are extremely diverse and no global model exists. However, all successful ones ensure continuity of support as the child moves from the family to a programme outside the home and eventually into primary school. One way to smooth the transition is by engaging with parents. Centre-based programmes, including pre-schools, for children from age 3 to school entry age require pedagogies and curricula that take into account the specificity of children’s development and the social context within which they live. Given the relatively low participation and poor quality of many programmes in developing countries, it may be helpful to learn from and adapt others’ experiences in meeting the challenge of expanding and improving early childhood care and education. This chapter offers examples from around the world.
Learning from country experiences

There is no universal model of early childhood provision that can be followed globally. Each nation has to determine its own way forward, yet much can be learned from the experience of other countries. Good-quality ECCE builds on a nation’s own experiences while drawing on and adapting lessons learned by others. For example, Western Europe’s well-established and nearly universal early childhood systems, which are supported by the public sector, may not be immediately appropriate for sub-Saharan African countries where the private sector plays the key role in provision. Yet they can offer important findings relevant to curricular continuity, for example, regardless of how they are financed. Despite the complexities of designing and implementing good-quality, holistic early childhood programmes, strong programmes share some characteristics no matter what the setting:

- focusing on and offering support to parents during children’s earliest years;
- integrating educational activities with other services, notably health care, nutrition and social services;
- providing relevant educational experiences during the pre-school years and easing the transition into primary school.

This chapter examines the practices that make for continuity and a smooth transition from parental care to an early childhood programme and on to primary school.

The many meanings of early childhood

The meaning and practice of child care vary greatly within and across countries, as can be seen in the Home Observation for Measurement of the Environment (HOME) Inventory, one of the most widely used tools to measure the family environment, based on home visits in both developed and developing countries. Using
observation and interviews, it assesses the quality and quantity of support and stimulation provided for children at home, as well as involvement with extended family and community that affects children. It focuses on three aspects of parent-child interactions: warmth and responsiveness, harshness and discipline, and stimulation and teaching. Findings include the following:

Although body contact is a near-universal form of responsiveness to very young children, differences in culture and socio-economic conditions influence how responsiveness is enacted in different countries. Belief in the ‘evil eye’, for instance, is strong in some societies, which has implications for face-to-face engagement as a form of responsiveness. In societies where pre-school children spend most of their time with siblings, parental responsiveness is more limited.

Attitudes on the use of physical punishment to control children's behaviour vary widely. Generally, physical punishment seems more culturally accepted in societies where respect for elders and parental authority are highly valued, for instance in some African societies. In other cultural models, such as Mayan families in Latin America, there is more acceptance that young children’s capacity to understand the consequences of their actions is limited, and parents are therefore less likely to punish their toddlers. In general, parents in societies that believe children should be deferential do not encourage them to contribute to adult conversations and respond to their emotional needs more non-verbally than verbally. Whatever the cultural context, harsh physical punishment is generally associated with negative outcomes for small children.

Emphasis on stimulation for young children escalated in the late twentieth century, particularly in industrialized societies. Early school achievement is particularly valued in North America, Europe and parts of Asia, including Japan, the Republic of Korea and
Taiwan (China). Parents in Latin America, by contrast, tend not to emphasize academic achievement early in life, as they see children as developing more slowly. In some African societies, children are expected to learn by observing rather than through direct teaching, and much emphasis is put on responsibility training.

In all societies, however, there is a strong relationship between household socio-economic status and scores on the HOME Inventory. Above and beyond cultural differences, parental income and education have a major impact on childrearing. In all regions models of parenting are evolving, and educated parents tend to favour.

There is no universal model of early childhood provision that can be followed globally.

PART III. Early childhood care and education
more stimulating and less punitive parenting. (Bradley and Corwyn, 2005). Qualitative anthropological fieldwork underscores the fact that significant differences in parenting practices exist across and within countries. For example, young Kenyan children are often present as non-participants in situations dominated by adult interaction; they are not necessarily the focus of attention of the adults, but they are rarely if ever left alone. In contrast, young children in North America and Western Europe experience a sharp disjuncture between long periods when they are left alone and moments when they interact with their parents and receive much attention and stimulation. While young children in Kenya have few toys or other possessions that are considered their own, children in North America receive an increasing number and variety of gifts as they grow older, and are encouraged to develop individual tastes; as a result, young children in Kenya do not develop the same sense of individuality as those in North America (LeVine, 2003).

In small rural communities in Côte d'Ivoire, the care of young children is not individualized: as soon as they are able to walk (between the ages of 18 and 30 months), they are left free to wander around and it is assumed that any adult will take care of all children within sight (Gottlieb, 2004). Early learning thus takes place through experience and within groups of children who interact with most adults of the community, whether they are a given child’s parents or not. Generally, young children in many sub-Saharan African societies are expected to be ‘more obedient, less demanding, more helpful and more alert to and keen to meet the expectations of others; less linguistically precocious, although more likely to be bilingual; but also more independent and self-sufficient, and better able to entertain themselves’ than young children in North America and Western Europe (Penn, 2006: p. 4).1

The emerging field of childhood studies places
such observations of parenting practices in a broader perspective and emphasizes the following points:

Young children’s development is a social process. Children learn to think, feel, communicate and act by interacting with others in specific contexts. (Richards and Light, 1986; Schaffer, 1996; Woodhead et al., 1998).

Cultures of early childhood are also profoundly social, expressed through peer group play, styles of dress and behaviour, patterns of consumption of commercial toys, and television and other media (Kehily and Swann, 2003).

Childhood contexts and practices are socially constructed. Most children today experience the world through built environments: classrooms, playgrounds, cars, buses and other forms of transport, supermarkets, etc. These are human creations that regulate children’s lives. (Maybin and Woodhead, 2003; Qvortrup, 1994).

Childhood has been differently understood, institutionalized and regulated in different societies and periods of history. Early childhood has been reinvented and differentiated according to children’s social and geographical location, their gender, ethnicity, wealth or poverty, among other factors (Cunningham, 1991; Hendrick, 1997).

Early childhood is also a political issue, marked by gross inequalities – in resources, access and opportunities – that are shaped by global as well as local factors (Montgomery et al., 2003; Stephens, 1995).

These perspectives draw attention to the ways early childhood is constructed and reconstructed, and how pedagogies and practices are shaped by circumstances, opportunities and constraints, and informed by multiple discourses about children’s needs and nature.

Early childhood programmes should take these findings into account. Yet current programmes in most developing countries and models advocated by multilateral organizations and international NGOs are heavily influenced by developments since the nineteenth century in
Programmes are only rarely designed with an understanding of early childhood realities in a given country; more commonly they are driven by external ideas. The parenting practices of Western (and Westernized) middleclass families tend to be the benchmark of what is appropriate to young children’s development everywhere, an assumption that can undermine the practices of other social classes and other parts of the world. When benchmarks originating in developed country institutions are used to measure what constitutes good early childhood programmes in developing countries, both the constraints and the opportunities within developing countries may be ignored. Some efforts to promote more culturally relevant programmes are highlighted in the discussion of good practice that follows.

1. See also Penn (2005).
2. The following discussion is based on Woodhead (2006).
3. For a broader discussion of these issues, see Nsamenang (2006).

Childhood has been differently understood in different societies and periods of history.
Working with families and communities

The most rapid period of a child’s growth occurs during the early years and it sets the foundation for later well-being. During this period it is important for children to have support in terms of protection, good health, appropriate nutrition, stimulation, language development and, most of all, interaction with and attachment to caring adults (Evans, 2000). Parents or other custodial carers are children’s first educators, and for the youngest group the home is the main arena of care. Carers and families can also benefit from resources in the local community that assist families in their parenting tasks.

Supporting parents

Research findings confirm that the home environment has a major impact on child development. For instance, the availability of reading materials, drawing and art supplies, and toys (especially home-made) is considered a good indicator of parental concern and sensitivity regarding play and development, and also of the quality of the home environment (Iltus, 2006). In the United States, a study of 700 first-graders found that stimulation and care in the family resulted in stronger attention and memory than did similar interactions in institutional child care environments (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2005). In the Republic of Moldova, the availability of toys, and drawing and play materials in the home was a good predictor of high cognitive development scores among children aged 1 to 3, regardless of families’ socio-economic status (UNICEF Moldova Country Office, 2005).

In most societies, child care is seen to be the concern of the family, immediate or extended, and not the concern of outsiders (Evans, 2000). However, as noted above, many environments affect learning and development. The best way to support the home environment is to work with the parents of very young children. Parenting
programmes aiming to reach children under age 3 have proliferated in the past ten years. They are most often offered through the health sector, but as ministries of education increasingly assume responsibility for education from birth onwards, they too are exploring how best to work with parents.

The two main types of parenting programme are:

Parent education programmes, which provide training or learning activities for parents. They may impart actual parenting skills but can also involve livelihood skills, practical skills and others.

Parent support programmes, which provide parents (or other main carers) with information on how to give children the care they require to realize their potential.

Parent support programmes, in turn, come in many different variations. They may include home visits, as in ‘parents as teachers’ programmes, which provide one-on-one support for individual parents. In recent years the trend has been to shift from a didactic model to a more collaborative one (Evans, 2006).

Home visiting programmes are expensive, because of the intensity of the inputs, and are thus best targeted at families at risk (Box 7.1). Visits should be weekly; less frequent visiting has not been shown to be effective. Attention must be continued for gains to be sustained. Gains achieved in programmes offered during the first two years of life are lost if the child does not continue to receive appropriate health, nutrition, care, and psycho-social stimulation. (Evans, 2000).

4. As Chapter 1 points out, families may take many different forms, and a ‘parent’ is a main carer responsible for a young child, regardless of biological relationship.

5. Such programmes have elements that can be useful for most families, regardless of socioeconomic
status.

PART III. Early childhood care and education

Dublin has a support programme for first- and some second-time parents of children aged 0 to 2. It is targeted at single parents, teenagers, members of the travellers community, asylum seekers, refugees and people living in disadvantaged areas. Support and parenting advice are delivered by experienced mothers, known as Community Mothers — para-professional volunteers who are trained and supported by family development nurses. Community Mothers visit parents monthly and use a specially designed child development programme focusing on health care, nutritional improvement and overall development. In 1990 a randomized, controlled trial showed significant beneficial effects for both mothers and 1-year-olds in the programme (Johnson et al., 1993). In 1997-98 a follow-up study was carried out to find out if the benefits had been sustained (Johnson et al., 2000). About onethird of the mothers in the original intervention and control groups were located and asked for details on the child’s health, the diet of mother and child, the child’s development and the mother’s parenting skills and feelings of self-esteem. Overall, the mothers in the intervention group demonstrated higher esteem and enthusiasm for motherhood than those not involved in the programme. This effect was evidenced by the way they interacted with their children and supported their learning and school experiences.

Source: Molloy (2002).

Box 7.1: Supporting new parents: the Community Mothers Programme in Dublin
Parent groups are another common form of parent support. Parents with children of the same age, or with common interests and concerns, are brought together to acquire information and to share their experiences. While such groups are generally formed by professionals, it is not uncommon for parents to continue them on their own once official support has ended. The variety of parenting programmes makes cross-national monitoring difficult. However, a review of evaluation literature on parenting support compiled in 2004 shows that early interventions produce better and more durable outcomes for children, and that targeted interventions (aimed at specific populations or individuals at risk for parenting difficulties) seem to work best when tackling the more complex types of parenting difficulties (Moran et al., 2004). The many types of group-based care and support programmes for young children include home-based models (Box 7.2), community-based approaches (Box 7.3) as well as the more formal centre-based programmes discussed below.

Centre-based early childhood programmes
Centre-based care and education is the most common form of early childhood provision and government support for such programmes is increasing (Chapter 6). Centre-based programmes typically accommodate children from age 3 to the primary school entry age, offering a range of activities and learning opportunities to help young children develop the language skills, social skills and enthusiasm that are vital for their present and future well-being.

Fostering language and cognitive development
Centre-based early childhood programmes provide young children with a very different experience compared with home- and community-based arrangements. They tend to be more organized and structured, and have a stronger education component. Research in developing and developed countries has begun...
to identify key features of good-quality learning in centre-based programmes that have a positive
6. The review, by the Policy Research Bureau in the United Kingdom, is based on an analysis of over 2,000 journals, books and reports, and on evaluation of experiences with both universal and targeted parenting programmes.
In the mid-1980s the Colombian Government set up a targeted programme designed to improve nutrition in poor households. Today the Hogares Comunitarios programme is one of the country’s largest welfare programmes, serving more than a million children in urban and rural areas. This community nursery programme, catering for children from birth to age 6, now covers both nutrition and child care, allowing mothers to enter the labour market.
Households eligible for the programme form parent associations that elect a ‘community mother’, who must meet minimal requirements set by the authorities. The community mother opens her home (hogar) to as many as fifteen children. She gives them three meals a day, constituting 70% of the recommended daily calorie intake. While earlier evaluations were inconclusive, a recent study looked at participation, anthropometric and welfare measures of children, and other outcomes such as female employment rates and hours of work. It found that the programme was reaching the poorest children and seemed well targeted. Stunting was offset: 6-year-olds who had attended Hogares since infancy were between 3.78 and 3.83 centimetres taller than those not in the programme. Children aged 13 to 17 who had attended the programme were more likely to be currently in school and less likely to have repeated a grade in the past year than those who had not.
Box 7.2: Hogares Comunitarios: mothers open their homes in Colombia
Kenya’s national policy of universal free primary education has put the pastoralist communities of the Samburu district in northern Kenya under pressure to become more settled and peri-urban. Parents need child care so they can perform daily tasks such as tending animals, finding firewood and working their gardens. Loipi (the Samburu word for ‘shade’) are enclosed places where young children are protected from danger and the sun. Grandmothers used to look after the children, passing on oral traditions and skills.
Since 1997 the Samburu, Turkana and Pokot people have pooled resources to provide care for children aged 2 to 5 through an integrated early childhood development programme. The Loipi programme is rooted in traditional approaches to child-rearing and offers access to health services, income generation and information on harmful practices such as female genital mutilation. The District Centre for Early Childhood Education and the Kenya Institute of Education provide professional guidance, while the Christian Children’s Fund and the Bernard van Leer Foundation give financial and technical support.
In 2004 over 5,200 children (slightly under 50% girls) were enrolled at about seventy specially prepared enclosed sites selected by the
communities. Members of the communities provided construction and play materials and built the sites. Some loipi also offer adult education, mother and child health services, nutritional supplements and health information. The system has improved nutrition and access to immunization and growth monitoring; also, pre-school teachers have commented on the positive influence the loipi have on the transition to primary school.
Box 7.3: ECCE in traditional societies: the Loipi programme for pastoralists in Kenya
impact on young children’s language and cognitive development (Arnold et al., 2006; Shonkoff and Phillips, 2000). For example, the Effective Provision of Pre-school Education Project in the United Kingdom found a strong correlation between a high-quality pre-school programme (one that provides warm interactive relationships with children and is managed by a trained teacher) and improvement in intellectual and social development (Sylva et al., 2004). A review of United States research indicated that children’s development and wellbeing correlated strongly with programme quality. In particular, adult-child interactions were more closely associated with enhanced well-being than were structural features such as class size, staff-child ratios and staff training (Love et al., 1996). The IEA Pre-primary Project, one of the most significant cross-national studies of ECCE programmes, sought to understand whether and how experience at age 4 affected language and cognitive development at age 7 (Weikart, 2005). Seventeen countries or regions varying in size, political constitution and level of development participated in the project, using jointly developed common instruments. Findings with respect to language development included:

In all countries, children who at age 4 had been in settings where free-choice activities predominated achieved significantly or nearly significantly higher language scores at age 7 than those from settings in which preacademic activities such as literacy and numeracy predominated.

The amount of interaction with adults at age 4 was positively related to language performance at age 7 in countries with relatively infrequent use of directive approaches and negatively related in countries where direction was frequent. Teachers’ level of education was positively related to children’s age 7 language
performance, while group size, and the quantity and variety of materials were not. In countries where adults often participated in children’s activities, language scores at age 4 were more strongly related to the scores at age 7 than in countries with less adult participation. With respect to cognitive development: Children who engaged in more whole-group activities at age 4 were more likely to have lower cognitive performance scores at age 7. In countries with more free-choice activities, the amount of interaction 4-year-olds had with adults was positively related to their cognitive performance at age 7, while the relationship was negative in countries with fewer free-choice activities. Greater availability of materials at age 4 was related to more positive cognitive performance at age 7, while teachers’ education and group size were not.

ECCE: a powerful means of promoting equity
Besides their potential to enrich the lives of all young children, good early childhood programmes can compensate for disadvantage and hardship. They can also increase equity by promoting multilingual education, gender equality, and opportunities for the disabled and children in emergencies or precarious circumstances.

The overlooked advantages of multilingual education
The frequency with which carers read to children and the number of books in the home help determine language development, reading outcomes and school success (Whitehurst and Lonigan, 1998). A large-scale longitudinal study of children in the United Kingdom found that the most important influence on children’s success in learning to read in primary school was the extent of their direct experience with print during their pre-school years (Wells, 1985). Poverty affects language development. By age 4 in the United States, a professional’s child has heard 50 million words, a working-class family’s child 30 million, and a welfare recipient’s child
just 12 million. At age 3, the professional’s child has a larger vocabulary than the parent of the welfare child. The nature of verbal interaction also differs by socio-economic background. By age 3, the professional’s child has received 700,000 encouragements, compared to 60,000 for the welfare recipient’s child. School attendance later does little to attenuate these disparities (Hart and Risely, 2003). These findings clearly demonstrate the importance of exposing children – particularly those from lower socio-economic backgrounds – to language-rich environments in their early years. If difficulties with language development and communication are not addressed early in life, children are likely to face more difficulties learning and adapting to their surroundings later (Cohen, 2005).

Good early childhood programmes can compensate for disadvantage.

7. Belgium (Frenchspeaking), China, Finland,* Germany (former Federal Republic), Greece,* Hong Kong (China),* Indonesia,* Ireland,* Italy,* Nigeria, Poland,* Portugal, Romania, Slovenia, Spain,* Thailand* and the United States.* The findings summarized here refer to the ten countries marked with an asterisk, which participated in both Phase 2 and Phase 3 of the project.

8. This section draws on Arnold et al. (2006).

PART III. Early childhood care and education
Children acquire languages quickly in the early years, and early childhood programmes offer them the opportunity to develop their self-esteem by using their mother tongue while acquiring a second (and sometimes a third) language (UNESCO Bangkok, 2005). Although UNESCO has encouraged mother tongue instruction in early childhood and primary education since 1953, monolingualism in the official or dominant language is still the norm around the world (Arnold et al., 2006; Wolff and Ekkehard, 2000). A challenge facing most ECCE programmes is to respond to the needs of linguistically and culturally diverse children and their families.

Linguistic specialists argue that children who learn in their mother tongue for the first six to eight years (an approach known as the additive bilingual model) perform better in terms of test scores and self-esteem than those who receive instruction exclusively in the official language (subtractive model) or those who make the transition too soon (before age 6 to 8) from the home language to the official language (transition model) (Thomas and Collier, 2002). It is easier to become a competent reader and communicator in the mother tongue. Once a child can read and write one language, the skills are transferable to other languages. Bilingual learning environments tend to be more comfortable for children than monolingual settings. Evidence from Bolivia, Guinea-Bissau, Mozambique and the Niger shows that parents are more likely to communicate with teachers and participate in their children’s learning when local languages are used (Benson, 2002).

Mother tongue instruction is also important for promoting gender equality and social inclusion. Girls in some societies are much less likely than boys to be exposed to the official language, as they spend more time at home and with family members. Girls who are taught in their mother tongue tend to stay in school longer, perform better on achievement tests and repeat
grades less than girls who do not (UNESCO Bangkok, 2005). Multilingual education also benefits other disadvantaged groups, including children from rural communities (Hovens, 2002). Why, despite the research consensus, is multilingual education in the early years still unusual? There are many reasons. Some argue that opposition to multilingual education is a result of colonialism, where local political elites and international agencies have promoted colonial languages to the detriment of local ones.11 The most common reasons are the views that in multilingual societies, bilingual education is generally too challenging to implement; it is too expensive; it would prevent children from learning other languages; and it would foster social and political division (Robinson, 2005). As regards the last point, however, multilingual education can, in fact, promote greater social tolerance among linguistic groups. Moreover, by facilitating the integration of different cultures and traditions into the curriculum, the use of local languages can enrich the content of education for all children (Benson, 2002).

The relationship between language and power is not easy to address, but early childhood is an important place to start. Indeed, the bilingual early childhood programmes in Cambodia, Malaysia, Myanmar, Papua New Guinea, Thailand and Viet Nam have shown promising results and have influenced language policies and practices for the first years of primary education (Kosonen, 2005). Box 7.4 gives one example.

9. The mother tongue is also referred to as the home language or local language.

10. In this model, either the mother tongue is the medium of instruction and the second language is taught as a subject by a specialist teacher, or the mother tongue is taught until about grade 5 and then the second language is gradually introduced, but is used for no
more than half the day.
11. See, for instance, Alidou et al. (2005).
The use of local languages can enrich the content of education for all children.
Grassroots efforts can lead to widespread change in language practices. In Papua New Guinea — the world's most linguistically diverse nation — a village-level, non-formal vernacular language pre-school movement led the central government to launch an ambitious effort to protect indigenous languages throughout the education system. None of the 823 living languages in Papua New Guinea is numerically or politically dominant. English had been the language of instruction since the 1950s even though it is the first language of only 1% of the country's 5.2 million people. In the 1970s, a group of parents worked with local government and NGOs to establish two-year vernacular language pre-schools, known as 'language nests'. The concept soon spread throughout the country. As part of its 1995 education reform, the government encouraged the formal school system to use vernacular language education in the first three years of primary school, followed by a gradual transition to English instruction. Today, the education system supports more than 350 languages. The Papua New Guinea experience shows that children who learn first in their mother tongues can transfer their cognitive, developmental and academic skills to English-language school environments.
Box 7.4: Supporting grassroots efforts: language nests in Papua New Guinea
Early childhood programmes can adopt practices that value local languages, foster bilingualism and counter prejudice towards linguistic and cultural minorities. Two key examples are:

- Developing multilingual practices and resources. Speaking and listening activities, especially bilingual storytelling and reading, can be used in a variety of linguistic environments to give children the opportunity to develop literacy skills, which can be transferred from one language to another. Books and learning materials in other languages or dual-language books (even home-made ones) are important to promote bilingualism and tolerance of linguistic and cultural minorities as well as to raise the status of the languages spoken by children and their families.

- Recruit linguistically diverse staff. To successfully implement bilingual ECCE programmes, trained, multilingual staff are needed (Benson, 2002). Not surprisingly, teachers and students communicate better when both are familiar with the languages of instruction. In primary classroom observations across Africa, researchers found that the use of unfamiliar languages forced teachers to use ineffective and teacher-centred teaching methods, which undermine students’ learning (Alidou et al., 2005). The best language speakers are often not trained as teachers and may need support in bilingual instruction (Johnston and Johnson, 2002). To address shortages of bilingual teachers in Western Europe (e.g. in Denmark, the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom), ‘bilingual assistants’ work in pre-schools with new immigrant pupils and their parents to help strengthen the mother tongue and build familiarity with the official language (OECD, 2001). In addition, there is a critical need to recruit multilingual
candidates more actively for ECCE staff education and training programmes, and to train monolingual teachers in linguistic diversity. Family and community members are rich resources. They can volunteer in ECCE settings and help support language and literacy development in the home. Older children, for instance, can read to their younger siblings (Bloch and Edwards, 1999).

Addressing gender stereotypes early

Gender disparities in access are much less common in early childhood programmes than at other levels, especially primary education. Pre-primary gender disparities at the expense of girls are found mostly in countries with very low gross enrolment ratios, although there are exceptions (Chapters 2 and 6). Reducing such disparities would contribute to closing the gender gap in education in general. In particular, parents whose daughters have attended early childhood programmes are more inclined to enrol them in primary school (Chapter 5).

Even where equal access exists, early childhood programmes often promote genderspecific expectations, a process that also occurs in homes and communities (Chartier and Geneix, 2006; Golombek and Fivush, 1994). Curricula may emphasize gender equality; the practice is frequently different. Teaching materials tend to promote gender-specific roles, for instance portraying male characters as powerful and active and females ones as sweet, weak, frightened and needy. Game playing can often conform to stereotype, with boys playing with blocks and girls in the ‘housekeeping corner’, and with girls in general having less access to the larger and more active toys and playground space (Evans, 1998). More importantly, teachers frequently do not treat boys and girls the same, which can create inequalities. Boys in preprimary school receive more attention from their teachers than do girls, in part because teachers spend more time disciplining boys (Chartier and Geneix, 2006; Lockheed, 1982; Sadker and Sadker, 1994). Teachers also tend to call more on male volunteers and, indeed, non-volunteers.
Teachers are more likely to listen and respond to boys, use more of boys’ ideas in classroom discussions, ask boys more questions and give them more individual instruction, acknowledgement, praise, encouragement, corrective feedback and opportunities to answer questions correctly, in addition to engaging in social interaction more with boys. By contrast, they praise girls for being neat, following instructions exactly and raising their hands (Schau and Tittle, 1985; Vogel et al., 1991). Moreover, teachers discipline boys and girls for different kinds of misconduct, accepting aggression by boys but not by girls. In all these ways stereotypical attitudes and behaviours are inculcated in girls and boys.14

Curricula may emphasize gender equality; the practice is frequently different.

12. For example, the teacher or carer can read a story from beginning to end in one language, then in the other; or can alternate page by page. Monolingual teachers can engage bilingual colleagues and family members in such activities.


14. Teacher behaviour also varies according to children’s education and socio-economic background. Teachers tend to devote more
attention to ‘better’ or more active pupils and to middle-class children who conform to the expectations of the school system. (Sirota, 1998).

PART III. Early childhood care and education
Well-designed early childhood programmes can challenge gender stereotypes (Box 7.5). Such programmes are characterized by gender-neutral curricula. For instance, in France and Sweden, pre-primary schools have relatively gender-neutral toys and games (creative games and construction blocks). Toys that are common in homes are rare: war toys (weapons, guns, military vehicles, tanks and miniature soldiers) are not found in 90% of Swedish pre-primary schools and 70% of French ones, and the corresponding figures for fashion dolls such as Barbie are 96% and 89% (Rayna and Brougère, 2000). Changes to the curriculum are effective only if accompanied by changes in teacher attitudes and behaviour. These in turn require changes to the teacher-training curriculum, including training in gender sensitivity and awareness, and approaches that help teachers become more reflective about their practices and the environments in which they work (Evans, 1998). They also require changes in staffing policies and practices in early childhood programmes. Women are predominant in the early childhood professions (Chapter 6). Taking care of young children has long been identified with motherhood and thus considered a female activity, associated with low pay and low status. It is often assumed that no specific training is needed to work with children. Conversely, men working with young children often evoke suspicion or prejudice, or concern that they will threaten women’s sphere of power within early childhood institutions and even within the family (Murcier, 2005).

Encouraging more men to work in early childhood programmes could challenge prevailing assumptions about gender responsibilities in society more generally (Cameron and Moss, 1998). Male child care workers can provide a role model of carers for boys and girls alike (Cameron, 2001). There are implications for families, too, as early childhood staff often focus on the mother as the main carer (Bloch and Buisson, 1998; Blöss and Odena, 2005).
men worked in this field, closer relationships with fathers might develop. The impact on gender disparities would of course depend on whether men were committed to gender equality and properly trained so as to avoid perpetuating gender-unequal practices. Despite their overall dominance among staff, women are underrepresented in administrative and leadership positions in early childhood institutions. It is important, therefore, not just to increase the male presence among early childhood staff, but also to improve the gender balance in management (Cameron, 2001; Sumision, 2005). Meeting the early education needs of vulnerable groups

Chapter 3 provided a detailed review of policies and programmes to overcome exclusion in formal school settings. As EFA goal 1 makes clear, overcoming exclusion is also important even before young children enter formal schooling and, indeed, can help offset disadvantage and vulnerability. The most common form of disadvantage is poverty and many of the schoollevel measures described in Chapter 3 can also work in early childhood. This section focuses on programmes to provide early childhood education for two vulnerable groups that are often ignored: disabled children and those in emergency contexts.

Inclusive early childhood education for the disabled. Disabilities are common among young children in developing countries. Research in which more than 22,000 children underwent the same type of screening showed high disability prevalence rates in Bangladesh (8.2%), Jamaica (15.6%) and the city of Karachi, Pakistan (14.7%) for impairments such as seizures, cognitive, motor, vision or hearing disabilities. (Durkin et al., 1994). A study in Nigeria reported a prevalence rate for sensory-neural hearing loss of 13% among children entering school (Olusanya, 2001). Screening of 2,000 South African children under age 2 revealed a disability prevalence rate of 60/1000, including mild learning or perceptual disability, cerebral palsy, hearing loss, moderate to severe perceptual disability and epilepsy
15. Nordic countries have actively recruited men to the early childhood field. Denmark has been most successful: almost 20% of its pedagogues are male. They work with young children in kindergartens and older children in after-school programmes (OECD, 2001). Other countries have been less proactive. Changes to the curriculum are effective only if accompanied by changes in teacher attitudes and behaviour.

In 2003 the minister for pre-school education formed a delegation to investigate the question of gender equality in Swedish pre-schools and to (a) promote lifelong learning that incorporates a gender perspective, (b) end stereotyped gender roles and patterns, (c) encourage debate on the promotion of gender equality in pre-schools and (d) encourage practical solutions. The delegation educates teacher trainees and politicians on these issues and distributes funds to pre-schools whose staff wish to develop methods for working with gender equality.


Box 7.5: In Sweden, government drives the effort for gender equality in early childhood
Good-quality early childhood education is important for children with disabilities, as it enables early identification and remediation of impairments and for certain disabled children can aid transition into mainstream schools. Box 7.6 describes how Chile has paved the way for an inclusive approach to ECCE programmes. Sustaining children in emergencies. Provision of relevant, flexible education is critical to the support of the many young children in the world living in emergency contexts (Chapter 3). ECCE is a key part of such efforts, as it can help offset some of the negative consequences of crisis and conflict. A review of experience and literature suggests the following principles are generally applicable (Kamel, 2005):

**Access**
- The right of access to early childhood education, recreation and related activities must be assured even in crisis situations.
- Rapid access to education, recreation and related activities must be assured, followed by steady improvement in quality and coverage.

**Resources**
- ECCE programmes should use a community-based participatory approach, with emphasis on capacity-building.
- They should include a major teacher-training component and provide incentives to avoid teacher turnover.

**Crisis and recovery programmes** should develop and document targets for funding that adequately meet their educational and psychosocial objectives.

**Activities/curriculum**
- Curriculum policy should support long-term development and encourage lasting solutions.
- ECCE programmes should be holistic, incorporating such dimensions as health and nutrition, water and sanitation.
- They should be enriched to promote tolerance,
human rights and citizenship within the context of political disasters and complex emergencies.

Child Friendly Spaces, which UNICEF has established in countries including Angola, Burkina Faso, the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Liberia, are based on these principles (Box 7.7). ECCE can ease the transition to primary schooling.

ECCE of good quality is not only an end in itself; as the EFA goals recognizes, it is also an important foundation for subsequent education. This section examines how ECCE programmes can make children ready for primary school and how primary schools themselves can adapt to young children.

The two main approaches regarding the transition to primary school may be summed up as ‘school readiness’ and ‘ready schools’ (Fabian and Dunlop, 2006). The former stresses the importance of ECCE in promoting children’s development and assuring their school readiness; it seeks to identify the characteristics that children should display if they are ready for school. The consensus from research is that school readiness encompasses development.

PART III. Early childhood care and education

In Chile, 5.8% of children under 16 have physical, psychological, mental or sensory disabilities. A 1994 law on integration of people with special needs, covering all social sectors, requires public and private mainstream education institutions to develop the innovations and curricular adaptations necessary to enable access for people with special needs. The Junta Nacional de Jardines Infantiles (JUNJI), or National Board of Kindergartens, established in 1970, administers ECCE provision for more than 120,500 children. Since 1995 it has been mainstreaming nursery and pre-school programmes targeting the poorest children with special needs. JUNJI centres serve children aged 3 months to 5 years with special needs (including physical, mental, visual and hearing impairments) in mainstream settings. Adapting ECCE programmes to children with special needs has involved sensitizing and training teachers through courses supported by the Special Education Department of the Ministry of Education. The National Fund for Special Education financed equipment such as wheelchairs,
prostheses and hearing aids. Technical guidelines and principles were established to identify children with special needs and adapt structures to accommodate children with physical disabilities. Private organizations working with JUNJI were offered projects for sponsorship. Though coverage levels remain low, the efforts made by JUNJI and other early childhood institutions in Chile provide a good example of how to encourage practices to include children at risk of exclusion or marginalization.

Sources: Chile FONADIS (2005); Larraguibel Quiroz (1997); Umayahara (2006).

Box 7.6: Chile’s first steps towards mainstreaming children with special needs

16. Chile’s First National Study on Disability, published in 2005, identified 129,994 pupils with disabilities in primary and secondary education. Of these, 100,521 attended special schools and 29,473 attended programmes integrated into mainstream schools (De Bonadona, 2005).
in five distinct but interconnected domains (Arnold et al., 2006; Copple, 1997; Offord Center for Child Studies, 2005): 17
physical well-being and motor development (measured in terms of health, growth and disabilities),
social and emotional development (e.g. ability to control one’s own behaviour, or to play and work with other children),
approach to learning (e.g. enthusiasm, curiosity, persistence and temperament),
language development (e.g. vocabulary, grammar and ability to learn and communicate) and
cognitive development and general knowledge (e.g. cognitive and problem-solving skills, such as learning to observe and to note similarities and differences).
Children vary greatly in all these areas.
The concept of ‘ready schools’, on the other hand, focuses on characteristics of the school environment that facilitate or hinder learning. 18
Researchers have identified several factors that can undermine readiness, among them overcrowded classes, the ‘language gap’ (when the language of instruction differs from the child’s mother tongue), an absence of qualified and experienced first grade teachers and inadequate learning materials (Arnold et al., 2006). These factors have been particularly challenging to address in developing countries.
The relative importance of school readiness and ready schools is much debated, and transition strategies are difficult to evaluate, 19 yet it is increasingly clear that the key to effective services for young children is continuity of certain elements that characterize all good early childhood programmes (Fabian and Dunlop, 2002; Kagan and Neuman, 1998). Strategies include the integration of ECCE with primary education, continuity of curriculum, continuity between home and school, and, for disadvantaged children who have not benefited from ECCE programmes, special activities aimed specifically at easing the entry into primary school.

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Continuity through integration of ECCE with primary education
The strategy of integrating ECCE with formal primary education aims to develop a more coherent system of policy, governance, administration and monitoring for ECCE and primary schools. The trend of integration into education systems is most evident in Europe (including in Belgium, the Czech Republic, Denmark, France, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom) but is observed in a few other countries, such as Brazil, Kazakhstan, South Africa and Viet Nam. Implementing this strategy entails creating administrative structures that unite previously separate ECCE and primary education structures. To do so, countries have unified pre-primary and primary education under the governance of the public school system, fully integrating childhood services from birth through compulsory education, and sometimes even holding preschool classes in primary school buildings. In some cases, countries have lowered the entry age for compulsory schooling to include pre-primary children (as in Argentina, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Norway, Peru, Uruguay and Venezuela).

17. School readiness is influenced by the same factors as children’s overall development. In addition to being positively associated with participation in preprimary programmes and exposure to transition activities, it is affected by family income, home language, parents’ education and family size. Differences between public and private pre-schools, and urban and rural residence have also been found, as have variations linked to geographical location and neighbourhood (Kohen et al.,
1998; Magnuson, Meyers et al., 2004; Magnuson, Ruhm et al., 2004; Margetts, 1999; National Center for Human Resources Development, 2005; Ngaruiya, 2006). Some also found adverse effects of pre-kindergarten programmes (Magnuson, Ruhm et al., 2004).
18. This analysis is based on Arnold et al. (2006).
19. Few programmes and schools focus on the transition stage and, at those that do, transition activities are usually part of more comprehensive efforts, making it difficult to assess their impact.
The key to effective services for young children is continuity of certain elements that characterize all good early childhood programmes.
In emergency contexts, UNICEF, often working with local groups, sets up ‘Child Friendly Spaces’ in refugee camps, schools and other sheltered situations. They fulfil several important functions, ensuring that children have access to ECCE services and incorporating several dimensions of care, not least that of creating a sense of security for mothers and children. In Liberia, UNICEF established spaces that provided comfortable places for mothers to breastfeed; early childhood development classes with components on hygiene, nutrition, the importance of play and so on; and services related to health, nutrition, early stimulation and learning, water, hygiene and sanitation, and protection of young children. Similar spaces were set up in the Democratic Republic of the Congo at community-based early childhood development centres. When Angola’s longrunning
civil war ended, national and international NGOs supported the creation of Child Friendly Spaces that served over 30,000 children in seventeen war-affected provinces; with UNICEF support, two international NGOs trained trainers for the spaces who also worked with parents on child development. These trainers in turn trained over 450 volunteers from among the displaced populations to conduct child development activities.
Source: Kamel (2005).
Box 7.7: Child Friendly Spaces: havens for mothers and children in emergencies
While structural integration may yield benefits, it entails a risk of the education component of ECCE overshadowing the welfare, health and care components, resulting in a school-centred view of pre-primary and other ECCE services. Carried to an extreme, this can lead to undue pressure on children for academic achievement at an early age (Shaeffer, 2006; Shore, 1998).

Curriculum continuity
In most countries, ECCE programmes and the primary education system developed for different reasons, with different aims and philosophies, so the important aim of achieving continuity of curriculum is not straightforward. Examples of strategies include:

- Developing and using an integrated curriculum for pre-primary and primary school, with learning cycles organized around the development cycles of the child. This approach is taken in the Pre-Primary to Primary Transitions project in Jamaica, the Transition from Nursery School to Primary School project in Guyana and the integrated curriculum cycle used in France. Sweden has developed two curricula that are conceptually linked.
- Making an intentional connection between – or overlapping – teaching and learning styles and materials between the pre-primary and primary levels. The Releasing Confidence and Creativity programme in Pakistan provides similar instructional materials at both levels.
- Ensuring that classmates from a given preschool classroom are transferred together to the same primary classroom, as with the Step by Step programme of transition to primary school in thirty countries of Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia.
- Grouping learners not by age but rather by level of development. Bodh Shiksha Samiti in India and Escuela Nueva in Colombia involve multigrade classrooms using an active curriculum, methods and lesson plans that respond to differing abilities and interests (as
does the Step by Step curriculum cited above). Less integrated strategies have also contributed to pedagogical continuity and integrated learning experiences. Portugal allows children to be ‘followed’ over the years by the same teacher or group of teachers (a practice commonly referred as ‘looping’); ‘buddy programmes’ in Sydney, Australia, which pair older students with those just starting, recognize the importance of early peer support (Docket and Perry, 2005).

Home-to-school continuity and parental involvement

Language and communication barriers between teachers and parents are challenging. They can be overcome, and children’s transition eased, by sharing information and involving parents, taking into account their preferences and values, and respecting ethnic, cultural, linguistic, religious and other forms of diversity (Docket et al., 2000; Margetts, 1999).

Approaches include providing bilingual ECCE and primary school programmes, establishing good communication and participation networks between schools and parents, involving parents in class activities and suggesting home activities that may help prepare children for school. In the Step by Step programme in transition countries, parents and pre-school teachers review the primary school curriculum together and discuss the child’s readiness. In Pakistan, parents in poor rural communities become resource people, teaching local songs and stories and demonstrating skills such as construction. The adulte-relais or ‘resource adult’ initiative in France uses community mediators to link schools with low-income neighbourhoods so as to break down communication barriers (Neuman and Peer, 2002).

In Kazakhstan, pre-primary education classes prepare 5- or 6-year-olds who have never attended pre-school (especially in rural areas) for formal schooling through a 32-week crash course in school readiness. There is some concern that such classes focus too narrowly on academic skills; it is important to focus as well on children’s emotional well-being, which is vital to their
adjustment to primary schooling (Choi, 2006). France's lieux passerelles, 'crossing places' for children with no experience of early childhood activities outside the home, are designed to foster socialization with peers and transition from home to pre-school through structured activities and free play. Parents, often from poor, immigrant backgrounds, get staff support in separating from their children, meeting other parents and taking a role in their children's education (Neuman and Peer, 2002). Though the focus is on transition from home to the école maternelle (pre-school) – the first contact with the school system for many immigrant families – similar activities can be adapted to transition to primary school. Where television is widely available, either at home or community centres, television and radio programmes such as those produced through the France uses community mediators to link schools with low-income neighbourhoods.

PART III. Early childhood care and education
Sesame Workshop (Box 7.8) have proved helpful in getting children ready for school and easing the transition.

Improving transition opportunities for the disadvantaged

So far this section has been about children with access to some form of pre-school education and care. The reality for most children in the world, particularly the most disadvantaged, is that the first school experience is the start of primary school, usually around the age of 6 (see annex, Statistical Table 4). In contexts where pre-primary school is not compulsory or has low coverage, various measures can help prepare children for primary school even without formal ECCE programmes. They include visits to primary schools to familiarize children with the school environment (as in Nepal), visits by first-grade teachers to home- or centre-based ECCE settings; low pupil/teacher ratios in the early primary grades; and readiness programmes or tutorials before primary school entry or during the first few months (as in Cambodia).

In Guatemala the Centros de Aprendizaje Comunitario en Educación Preescolar (CENACEP), or Centres for Community Learning in Pre-school Education, is an accelerated thirty-five-day course of preparation for children from various ethnic backgrounds who have not had access to preschool. Sponsored by the Ministry of Education and UNICEF, and involving community volunteers, the programme is provided to groups of thirty-five to forty children under age 6 in the three months before the beginning of the school year.

Participants are better prepared socially and academically for primary school, and repetition and dropout rates have fallen in places where they were formerly a problem (Elvir and Asensio, 2006).

Conclusion

While successful ECCE programmes are extremely diverse, both within countries and around the world, certain general lessons emerge. First, early childhood programmes need
to be rooted in the young children’s cultural environment and care must be taken not simply to import models from abroad without appropriate adaptation. Second, parenting programmes can support positive child-rearing practices, which again need to be understood in their social and cultural contexts. Third, good relations between pupils and ECCE teachers and staff are crucial to programme quality, and much more important than material inputs. Fourth, inclusive ECCE programmes can help offset disadvantage, whether poverty, emergency situations or special needs. They can also promote gender equality and other forms of inclusion through appropriate role models and linguistic diversity. Fifth, maintaining continuity is key in easing the transition from pre-primary to primary school and effective approaches are available even for those who have not been able to attend ECCE institutions such as pre-schools. Chapter 8 now examines policy issues raised by the expansion and improvement of ECCE as envisaged in EFA goal 1.

The Sesame Workshop illustrates the potential of the broadcast media for promoting school readiness in young children, including those without access to formal early childhood programmes. Founded in 1968, the Sesame Workshop created the legendary Sesame Street children’s television series in the United States. Now in 120 countries, the Sesame Workshop partners with local writers, artists, researchers and educators to create culture-specific television and radio programmes with characters, sets and content designed to address local children’s educational needs. Storybooks and other materials are distributed to children of pre-school age, and teachers and parents are trained to use the materials to support the children’s learning. Examples of television and radio programmes from selected countries:

In Egypt, Alam Simsims includes special emphasis on girls’ education. Khokha, a female Muppet, encourages young girls to have a limitless sense of possibility. In South Africa, on Takalani Sesame, Kami, a vibrant and affectionate HIV-positive Muppet, helps children and their carers overcome the stigma of the disease.

In Bangladesh, Sisimpur features the Muppet Halum, a Bangla-speaking vegetarian Bengal tiger. Once a week, flatbed cycle rickshaws carry televisions, DVD players and generators to villages with limited or no electricity so children can see the programme.

In Israel and the Palestinian Autonomous Territories, the Rechov Sumsum/Shara’a Simsims promotes cross-cultural respect and understanding among Arab and Jewish pre-schoolers, countering negative stereotypes by introducing children to the everyday lives of people from different cultures.
Children around the world appreciate the Sesame characters, develop academic skills that promote their school readiness and learn from the programmes’ health and social messages. Evaluations in Mexico, Portugal, the Russian Federation and Turkey have found significant differences in cognitive skills, especially literacy and mathematics, between viewers and non-viewers. Consistent though weaker findings have been found for social attitudes and behaviour.

Sources: Cole et al. (2003); Cole, Richman and McCann Brown (2001); de los Angeles-Bautista (2006); Fisch (2005).

Box 7.8: Using television to promote school readiness around the world
A kindergarten teacher holds children's attention in Toubab Dialao, Senegal, a fishing village where most inhabitants live below the poverty line.

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Fostering strong ECCE policies
Although countries still face many difficulties in expanding and improving their ECCE programmes, a more favourable policy environment is emerging. Governments can help shape this environment by ensuring that there are adequate resources, including public funding. They also play an important role by designing strong national policies, fostering coordination among sectors and stakeholders, regulating and monitoring quality, and making a concerted effort to reach disadvantaged children and others with limited access to ECCE. This chapter draws on examples from national experience to highlight promising policy practices in the areas of governance, quality and financing. Because of competing demands on public resources, it is especially important to set clear targets and priorities.
Why the need for national ECCE policies?
Existing policy and legislative action
A national ECCE policy embodies a country’s commitment to young children. To date, however, national governments have accorded limited policy attention to ECCE relative to two other EFA goals: universal access to primary education and gender parity. A review of major policy documents (UNESCO-IIEP, 2006) reveals that, although all education plans give some attention to early childhood, most do not take the holistic approach to ECCE promoted by the Dakar Framework for Action. UNESCO, UNICEF, the Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA) and various early childhood networks have encouraged countries to develop holistic ECCE policies that address every aspect of care, education, health and nutrition for all children under 8. In practice, however, most countries focus mainly on pre-primary education, from age 3 until the start of primary school, and pay much less attention to the non-education aspects of ECCE or the needs of children under 3. While health and education sector plans and Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) may cover immunization, maternal health and pre-school, they are often fragmented and tend not address the child’s well-being and development as part of an integrated whole (Aidoo, 2005). Yet, there are signs that the holistic approach is gaining ground. To create links among different policy areas affecting the lives of young children, several governments, often in partnership with UNICEF, have begun recently to elaborate national early childhood policies that cover health, nutrition, education, water, hygiene, sanitation and legal protection for young children. Comprehensive early childhood policies provide governments with the authority and guidance needed to implement programmes for young children. The development of an explicit early childhood policy is not without risks: it can isolate
ECCE from related sectors, including health and education; and it can result in insufficient funding or attention to implementation. An explicit ECCE policy may be ineffective, therefore, unless accompanied by a broader strategy engaging other sectors with responsibility related to early childhood. Drawing up a national vision statement of goals can help countries address the rights and needs of young children. This vision should clarify the work of the education, health and social sectors, and require the relevant ministries or agencies to make the needed funding allocations within their current budget.

Also useful is legislation that defines what must be done to enact the early childhood policies. At least eighty countries have legislation covering some aspect of ECCE. Many of these countries refer to ECCE as the first stage of the education system, thus recognizing, at least rhetorically, its place within broader education policy (UNESCO-IBE, 2006). Thirty countries have at least one year of compulsory pre-primary education; in two-thirds of these the legislation was enacted since 1990 (Table 6.8). In 2002, for example, Mexico made three years of compulsory pre-school a constitutional right, with provision to be completed by 2008 (UNESCO-IBE, 2006). Even where legislation confers entitlement to several years of ECCE, though, enrolment tends to concentrate on the year or two prior to primary education (UNESCO-OREALC, 2004b). Nine transition countries have legislated a year of free pre-primary education, usually as a means of rebuilding the extensive systems that existed during the communist era (Agranovitch, 2005). Enrolment of younger children remains low.

Many of these policies and supporting legislation are more declarations of intent than realities: national legislation enshrining provisions of international law on children is too seldom backed by strong enforcement (Vargas-Barón, 2005). Similarly, formal national commitments, made through declarations and policies, are often not matched by detailed strategies and adequate public funding. Certain conditions can facilitate or hinder successful policy development for young
children, however, and these are explored below. Building a supportive policy environment For governments to develop strong policies for young children, the political, social and economic conditions need to be supportive. Several developments over the past ten years indicate movement in this direction: Research showing the benefits of ECCE. A growing body of research underlines the benefits of good-quality ECCE, especially for the disadvantaged. Although the bulk of the research comes from OECD countries, the number of studies from Asia, Africa and Latin America is increasing (see Chapter 5). This evidence has informed policy-makers’ decisions and can help build the political will to support ECCE. Most plans do not take a holistic approach to ECCE 1. Chapter 3 describes the methodology of the review. 2. Countries with early childhood policy documents include Burkina Faso, Cambodia, Chile, Djibouti, the Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Indonesia, Jamaica, Jordan, Malawi, Mauritania, Mongolia, Papua New Guinea, the Philippines, Senegal, Syrian Arab Republic, Thailand and Viet Nam. Cameroon, Cape Verde, Chad and the Niger are developing such documents (Diawara, 2006; Pressoir, 2006; UNESCO-IBE, 2006). 3. The issue of integrated approach vs separate
focus has a parallel in early work on gender. Some countries at first created a Ministry of Gender or Women’s Affairs, but without enough funding to be effective. Other sectors would drop gender issues since a separate policy and ministry were devoted to them. Gender would end up being marginalized as a government priority. The focus has now shifted to assessing gender within all the relevant sectors so as to keep the issue on the agenda.

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Labour market trends. The rising participation of mothers with young children in the labour force, coupled with the decline of traditional family child care (see Chapter 6), has made some governments more receptive to policies to expand and improve ECCE.

Emerging attention to ECCE in national development reforms. Though the evidence is limited, attention to ECCE within instruments such as EFA plans, education and health sector plans, PRSPs and legislation appears to be on the rise.

International support. Aid agencies, United Nations organizations, foundations and international NGOs have supported capacity building and funded ECCE projects that could be taken to scale. UNESCO, for instance, has supported national ECCE policy development through country reviews, policy briefs on current issues and regional, field-based capacity-building seminars.

Strong ECCE networks. At grassroots level, representatives of international agencies, NGOs, researchers and providers of services for children and families have formed networks to share information and experiences within and across borders (Box 8.1). These partners can use their expertise in programme development, capacity-building, training, research and evaluation to support national policy and planning efforts.

Despite these positive factors, a review of country experiences suggests that the following barriers need to be addressed to foster a policy environment to expand and improve ECCE:

Ambivalence about the role of government in the lives of families. The boundaries between the public and private spheres are often unclear. Public policy tends to be limited for children under 3 except as regards extreme abuse and neglect, even though public investment has strong potential to promote long-term benefits (and cost savings).

Insufficient public awareness of the benefits
of ECCE. Increased public recognition of the potential contribution of ECCE to EFA and the Millennium Development Goals could foster greater national commitment to young children. Research findings need to be disseminated to key stakeholders – especially parents, who are potential advocates for increasing public policy attention to ECCE. Limited financial and human resources. Most governments allocate the bulk of their education funding to compulsory schooling and most bilateral donors focus heavily on tertiary education (see Chapter 4). A lack of trained early childhood staff, linked to low pay and status, also impedes the expansion of good-quality ECCE. Even when national ECCE policies exist, successful implementation depends greatly on the capacity of local officials and partners.

Competing policy priorities. In low-income countries, policy choices have immediate consequences for child survival. Much attention, understandably, is directed to HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases. Within education, governments face tough choices whether, for example, to expand education systems from primary down to ECCE or up towards lower-secondary education. Supporting the policy development process ECCE is well established in the developed countries and a more favourable policy climate is emerging in the developing world despite the many barriers. To help countries build on this among the many examples are the ADEA Working Group on Early Childhood Development, the International Step by Step Association (and the related Open Society Network) and networks involving groups such as UNICEF, UNESCO, Plan International, the Aga Khan Foundation and the Bernard van Leer.
Foundation. Founded in 1984, the Consultative Group on Early Childhood Care and Development (CGECCD) is a global network of international agencies, foundations, researchers and service providers interested in early childhood issues in more than 100 countries. The group regularly produces the Coordinators’ Notebook, which includes a lead article analysing key early childhood issues (e.g. quality, children and HIV/AIDS, transitions and links, children in emergencies and 0-3s) and case studies of initiatives in developing countries. The publication reaches about 3,000 individuals, networks and organizations. The CGECCD has also produced a programming manual, Early Childhood Counts (Evans, Myers and Ilfeld, 2000) for use by development professionals, programme planners, trainers, policymakers and child advocates. At annual meetings, members exchange information and discuss issues related to early childhood development and children’s rights. The group’s secretariat maintains an active electronic mailing list and a website. The CGECCD acts as an advocate globally and locally for more attention to EFA goal 1 and serves as a resource to UNESCO and other international agencies committed to EFA.


Box 8.1: Consultative Group on Early Childhood Care and Development
In low-income countries, policy choices have immediate consequences for child survival
momentum, it is useful to learn from those that have managed to generate the political will and develop national ECCE policies. Although policy strategies must necessarily be tailored to the relevant cultural, political and economic contexts, there are several key elements they seem to share:

High-level political endorsement can put ECCE on the agenda. Abdoulaye Wade, now president of Senegal, has made early childhood a priority since the 1980s, long before his election in 2000, viewing it as a lever for improving the environment and conditions in which children live as well as for developing a highly skilled and educated population (Hyde and Kabiru, 2006). As president he introduced les cases des tous petits – flexible, community-based centres for 0- to 6-year-olds that integrate health, education and nutrition – as an alternative to the more expensive and less culturally appropriate French pre-schools (Kamerman, 2005, Rayna, 2002). Chile, to take another example, has a long tradition of ECCE that has also benefited recently from political support at the highest level. Since her election in early 2006, President Michelle Bachelet has made a series of commitments to strengthen ECCE: to start a pre-school voucher programme for children from birth to age 3 from the poorest 40% of households, to increase enrolment in kindergarten to 60% and to expand coverage of child care centres to support women’s employment (Umayahara, 2006).

Broad stakeholder involvement helps promote public support. Efforts to include stakeholders increase the potential for successful implementation and bring children’s issues to the fore of public debates (Addison, 2006). Engaging parents as advocates is a particularly effective way to promote sustainable programmes. Such consultations can draw out the policy development process: in Ghana, for example, it took more than ten years to develop and pass a national early childhood policy. The
lengthy consultations ensured that the process of policy development was as participatory as possible. Partnerships with international organizations or aid agencies can generate seed money for projects that can then be taken to scale, and also provide technical assistance for national planning. A decade of investment and technical support (1972-1982) from the Bernard van Leer Foundation led to Kenya’s Preschool Education Project, which focused on quality issues and community-based programmes for 3- to 5-year-olds. The World Bank has supported policy development and implementation in Egypt and Eritrea. UNICEF has formed partnerships with many countries around the world. Aligning ECCE policies with other national and sectoral development policies is a strategic means of leveraging resources for early childhood and promoting a more holistic and intersectoral approach. Increasingly, in the poorest countries, development funding is focused on broad poverty reduction strategies and on sector-wide programmes. Ghana, Uganda and Zambia are integrating early childhood into revised PRSPs, for example (Aidoo, 2005). Detailed action plans facilitate the implementation of ECCE policies by identifying the division of responsibilities, the allocation of resources and the time-frame for implementation. An action plan was key to assuring implementation of the national early childhood policy in Malawi. Jordan’s National Plan of Action for Children (2004–13) focuses on five components: securing a healthy life; developing and strengthening capabilities of children; protecting children in difficult circumstances; expanding the role of the media; and monitoring and evaluation (UNESCO-IBE, 2006).6 Action plans benefit from being monitored and updated as new challenges and opportunities arise. Strategic use of public campaigns draws attention to ECCE and provides information to carers. UNICEF in the Maldives developed a fifty-two-week radio and television campaign to raise awareness about child care practices and
improve the quality of child-rearing. An evaluation of the campaign found an increase in public knowledge of child development issues (e.g. the capabilities of the newborn, the importance of breastfeeding and of reading to children, and the role of fathers), and the increase was substantial where the campaign was followed by parent workshops (UNICEF, 2004). Media campaigns can also raise parental awareness of existing ECCE programmes and projects. Components of a national ECCE policy National policies for ECCE need to be countryspecific, but all countries face similar sets of questions. These largely fall into three categories: Governance What is the starting age for compulsory schooling? Senegal, has made early childhood a priority since the 1980s 5. President Bachelet set up a technical advisory council made up of fourteen experts from various fields, along with an interministerial committee representing seven ministries, to develop a proposal for reforming Chile’s ECCE policies (Chile Presidency, 2006). 6. Each component has objectives, along with activities aimed at meeting them. Each activity is linked to main and cooperating implementing partners, indicators, sources of verification for the indicators, costs and time frame. PART III. Early childhood care and education
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What ages does ECCE cover?
What organization is responsible for policymaking, coordination and oversight of ECCE?
Do separate organizations deal with 0- to 2-year-olds and 3- to 6-year-olds?
What are the powers and responsibilities of each level of government regarding ECCE?
What groups are authorized to provide ECCE programmes (e.g. government, public schools, private schools, parents, registered or accredited NGOs, religious groups)?
What do activities in the programmes address (e.g. care, education, nutrition and health)?
To what extent do the activities differ by age?
Quality
Which programmes are subject to quality regulations and control?
What are the standards regarding child/staff ratios and group sizes; physical space per child; services such as water and sanitation; feeding programmes; staff qualifications and training; and programme length?
Are these standards set at national or local level?
What early learning and development outcomes are expected of children?
Is there a national curriculum framework?
What themes and content does it address?
Which pedagogical approaches are encouraged?
Is quality assurance based on inspections or accreditation?
What are the strategies to link ECCE and primary school?
Financing
What are the short- and longer-term targets for expanding coverage of ECCE overall, for children under 3 and for older children?
Which services are compulsory (e.g. vaccinations) and which are voluntary (e.g. pre-school)?
What are the appropriate shares of public and private (household) funding?
How will parent fees be determined?
What is the target for the share of ECCE within total public expenditure on education? How is public funding allocated among government levels (block grants, categorical funding), providers (contracts, subsidies) and/or parents (vouchers, tax breaks)? Who is eligible for public services that are not yet universal? Which children are deemed vulnerable and disadvantaged? To what extent are children with special needs mainstreamed into regular ECCE? How are targeted programmes administered? Is international aid to be sought for ECCE programmes and, if so, within what framework? These questions, at a minimum, need to be resolved to develop strong national policies on ECCE. Table 8.1 illustrates how six developing countries with well-developed ECCE policies approached many of the questions. The following sections discuss ECCE governance, quality and financing (including targeting the disadvantaged and the role of aid). To some extent these are the public policy dimensions of the programme characteristics discussed in Chapter 7.

Institutionalizing good governance
Governance – the allocation of responsibility within and across levels of government and between public and non-public actors – can determine whether ECCE services meet quality standards, are affordable, meet local demand, promote cost-effectiveness and achieve equity goals (Hodgkin and Newell, 1996; Kagan and Cohen, 1997). Countries tend to vary on three dimensions of governance (Kamerman, 2000a; Neuman, 2005):

- administrative organization – the agencies responsible for ECCE at national level, and the extent to which care and education are integrated;
- decentralization – the extent to which the authority for ECCE is vested in subnational levels of government;
- role of private actors – the extent to which
early childhood policy-making and service delivery are shared with non-public actors. This section discusses these dimensions, with special attention to the challenges of intersectoral and intergovernmental coordination. Administrative organization: who should take the lead? By definition, ECCE involves multiple sectors, programmes and actors. At national level, in most countries, ECCE policies and programmes are divided between two or more administrative departments or ministries. Most countries – but By definition, ECCE involves multiple sectors, programmes and actors
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Table 8.1: ECCE policy exemplars in six developing countries

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<th>Country</th>
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1. Also see Chapter 6 for a review of parental leave policies in developing countries.

Sources: de los Angeles-Bautista (2004); Charles and Williams (2006); Umayahara (2006); UNESCO-IBE (2006); UNESCO-OREALC (2004b).

ECCE dates from early 1970s.

High coverage for 4- to 6-year-olds, low coverage for under-4s.

1996 education reform: pedagogical improvement, innovation through curricular reform and professional development.

Policies since 2001 include:
1) expanded coverage, particularly for children from the poorest households;
2) improved quality and use of work with children, families, communities and educators;
3) strengthened management system.

President created Technical Advisory Council in 2006 to guide early childhood policies.

Despite rapid expansion in ECCE and preschool services, quality is inadequate.

Relatively few children benefit from ECCE.

ECCE policy document (2004), developed through extensive consultation, addresses access and quality. The document is now being disseminated via district multisectoral teams.


ECCE dates to the 1970s, when Jamaica adopted and expanded a successful Bernard van Leer Foundation project.

Recent policy efforts focus on integrated approach and improved staff quality for 0- to 6-year-olds.

National team of public/private stakeholders developed the National Strategy for Early Childhood Development, from pregnancy to early elementary school.

The Strategy calls for the holistic development of the child and expanding the kindergarten sector.

The National Plan of Action for Children,
includes early childhood and builds on the above strategy. 

Strong tradition of parent education, high participation and expanded access to ECCE. 

1997 Constitution states that government must provide basic services, including care and development, for young children and families. 


Inadequate supply of ECCE programmes. Local communities and rural areas have limited resources to establish quality programmes. Public information campaign needed on the importance of the early years. 

Targeted at 3- to 5-year-olds but inadequate in rural areas, among the poor and for under-3s. 

Access and quality vary dramatically between urban and rural areas. 

Prime Minister decided in 2002 to increase investment, expand crèches and kindergartens, give priority to the disadvantaged and disseminate child care information to families. National Project on ECCE (2006-13) builds on this earlier decision. 

Ministry of Education (MoE) is responsible for policy, planning, supervision, coordination and evaluation. Focuses on 4- to 6-year olds. 

Municipalities finance and administer public and subsidized private centres. 

National Board of Kindergartens (JUNJI), an autonomous public body responsible for kindergartens for poor children, supervises fee-charging private centres. 

INTEGRA, a non-profit private foundation, also serves poor children (mostly under age 4). 

In 1990, a National Commission for Early Childhood was set up to improve coordination among institutions serving children under 6. 

Department of Social Welfare is responsible for registration and standards in crèches and other centres for children aged 0 to 2. 

Ghana Education Service implements MoE policies for curriculum development for 3- to 5-year-olds
Difficulties in coordinating these two agencies have occurred. The National Commission on Children, under the Ministry of Women’s and Children’s Affairs, is now in charge of coordinating ECCE. The Ministry of Education, Youth & Culture (MoEYC) assumed responsibility for the Day Care Unit (formerly part of Ministry of Health) in addition to its own Early Childhood Unit in 1998. After a strategic review, the Early Childhood Commission was set up in 2002 to coordinate and monitor ECCE services. Ministry of Social Development is responsible for parenting education programmes and supervises centre-based child care programmes. The Ministry of Health is a partner. The MoE supervises all pre-schools and provides kindergartens. In 1999, MoE transferred responsibility for pre-school to subdistrict administrative organizations and local communities. Department of Local Administration supports subdistricts in extending access to quality ECCE in rural and urban settings. Department of Health, Ministry of Public Health and Ministry of Social Development and Human Security are also partners. Draft national policy and strategy propose a coordination committee of government and private sector stakeholders. Since 1999, Ministry of Education and Training responsible for programmes for 0- to 6-year-olds. Ministry of Health and Committee of Population, Family and Children are partners. 2005 Education Law defines early childhood education as part of national education system. Decentralized delivery with nurseries for children aged 3 months to 3 years and kindergartens for 3- to 6-year-olds. About 93% of 5-year-olds; 51% of 4-year-olds, 26% of 3-year-olds and 18% of 2-year-olds participate in ECCE. JUNJI has set up kindergartens in povertystricken areas.
Presidential commitments in 2006 for immediate action: pre-school vouchers for children 0 to 3 years old from the poorest 40% of households, expansion of kindergartens for 20,000 4- and 5-year olds, and 800 new day care centres for 20,000 children. About 40% of 5-year-olds and 35% of 4-year-olds participate in ECCE. A Recent white paper on education stated that kindergarten should become part of universal, free compulsory basic education. The government’s goal by the end of 2010 is to achieve 100% GER and gender equity in basic education, including kindergarten in the most deprived districts. About 60% of 3-year-olds and more than 95% of 4- and 5-year-olds participate in ECCE. Better access needed for under 4s, those from the poorest families and those living in the most rural areas. Goals: to increase enrolment of 4-year-olds from 28% to 35% by 2008 and to 50% by 2013; and of 5-year-olds from 47% to 52% by 2008 and to 70% by 2013. MoE policy focuses on opening kindergartens in remote and disadvantaged areas. Plans call for fifty new kindergarten classes annually, and a daily meal and warm clothes for disadvantaged children. Almost 100% of 5-year-olds, about 90% of 4-year-olds and 22% of 3-year-olds participate in ECCE: pre-schools, kindergartens and child care centres. Current trend is to expand one-year preschool classes to two-year kindergartens nationwide. In recent years, Office of National Primary Education Commission (ONPEC) of MoE has expanded access for children in rural areas, establishing 67,200 pre-school classes in 29,410 rural primary schools for more than 1.4 million children each year. About 92% of 5-year-olds, 63% of 3- and 4-year-olds, and 16% of under-3s
participate in ECCE.
National Project on ECCE (2006-15) prioritizes the construction of kindergartens in poor and minority areas. Current policies: increase supply and coverage rate in kindergarten to between 70% and 80%, develop family day care for under 3s, and stimulate both public and private investment.
Chile
Ghana
Jamaica
Jordan
Thailand
Viet Nam
Quality Financing Focus on under-3s

Curriculum:
Basic curriculum framework for 0- to 6-year-olds (2001) defines expected multidimensional learning outcomes and provides pedagogical orientation to indigenous children or those with special education needs.

Teacher training:
Undergraduate and graduate courses for early childhood educators created in mid-1990s. Requires five-year university degree in education.

ECCE staff are gradually being trained to use the curriculum with children.

Standards:
With UNICEF, government has created early development and learning standards.

Curriculum:
Covers psychosocial skills, language and literacy, mathematics, environmental studies, creative activities, health, nutrition and safety.

Emphasizes learning through play, encourages use of local languages.

Teacher training:
National Association of Teachers offers workshops to promote the professional status of ECCE educators and improve awareness among policy-makers.

Curriculum:
Eclectic approach focusing on affective, psychomotor and cognitive domains.

Teacher training:
MoEYC places one trained teacher in each basic school with enrolment of 100+. The Child Focus project and the National Council on Technical and Vocational Education and Training developed ECCE certification standards.

Assessment:
Readiness Inventory of the National Assessment Programme to inform teachers about the skills of children entering grade 1.

Standards:
Participates in the UNICEF standards project.

Assessment:
Has applied the Early Years Evaluation instrument to measure children’s school readiness.

Curriculum:
ONPEC has prepared the core early childhood curriculum and disseminated it to all Educational Service Area Offices to give to parents and teachers so they can work together to improve quality.

Demonstration kindergartens in every province are ‘learning laboratories for ECCE’.

Continuing support is given to test and promote innovative practices.

Teacher training:
MoE has organized workshops to train ECCE technical leaders.
Curriculum:
Revised national curriculum being piloted to help children develop physically, emotionally, intellectually and artistically, and prepare them for grade 1.

Teacher training
Teacher income and living standards improved. More than 70% of non-formal teachers now have social welfare and health insurance. Proportion of teachers and managers with at least minimum training doubled since 2000.

Pilage of teachers in remote areas remains a challenge.

Teacher training
Teacher income and living standards improved. More than 70% of non-formal teachers now have social welfare and health insurance. Proportion of teachers and managers with at least minimum training doubled since 2000.

Shortage of teachers in remote areas remains a challenge.

Government funding for ECCE is long-standing priority.

Total pre-primary expenditure per student is higher than in other countries in Latin America, although much of this is private expenditure.

Government committed to supporting the expansion of kindergartens by district assemblies, NGOs, faith-based organizations and communities.

Over 80% of pre-schoolers attend community-operated basic schools; about 20% are in public infant departments and private centres receiving government subsidies for teacher salaries, class materials and school meals. Parents pay fees for teachers’ salaries and school maintenance.

Government has pledged to allocate sufficient human and financial resources to achieve its objectives and seek extra funds needed.

Education Reform for the Knowledge Economy Project (2003-2008) helps MoE expand and improve early childhood services, in partnership with international and local funding organizations, NGOs and the private sector.

ONPEC pre-primary classes are financed with US$9.41 million annual budget. Government-supported public school kindergartens are more affordable and accessible than private ones for most families.

Since 2002, government requires 10% of education budgets to be allocated for
ECCE; only 18 out of 64 provinces and cities have done so, however; 17 provinces provide 5% to 7% and many do not finance ECCE at all. Programmes are overwhelmingly public or publicly subsidized; only 1% are private. Reduced fees for poor children are still too high. New effort made to increase private sector involvement.

To diversify provision and reach children in poor and rural areas, MoE, JUNJI and INTEGRA support non-formal programmes. ‘Know Your Child’ trains mothers and other community members as educators.

Parent-and-Child Programme increases understanding of child development, the purpose of stimulation at each age and the importance of family.

Birth registration has increased to 65% due to advertising and training of 1,000 health nurses from ten regions. Roving Caregivers provide neighbourhood and home visits to mothers with children under 4, particularly in rural areas without day care centres. Goal is to equip parents with skills to support their children’s early development and learning, as well as develop a group of carers that can expand the programme.

Recent survey revealed gaps in parents’ child-rearing knowledge. Jordan developed and adopted an ECCE/parenting programme that provides parents and carers with skills and information to support the development of children aged 0 to 8. More than 200 centres reach 70,000 families.

Department of Health runs the Parenting Education Project, the Safe Delivery Ward Project, the Nutrition and Mental Development Corner, and the Healthy Child Development
Corner.
Parents of each newborn receive a gift box containing a guide to breastfeeding, toys, books and a colourful blanket. Government has tried to create demand through parent education programmes and media campaigns.
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especially in Europe and Latin America – offer one or two years of pre-primary within the education system to help prepare children for the transition to primary school. Other forms of ECCE (especially for children under age 3) fall under the auspices of ministries of health, social welfare or children and women’s affairs (Kamerman, 2005). This multisectoral distribution of responsibility is positive in that it can bring together agencies with differing areas of expertise (health, nutrition, education) and help pool resources. In other ways, however, this form of organization is problematic, as it can lead to conflict between ministries or departments.7 On the ground, fragmented responsibility may lead to disparities in access and quality. Generally, services within education systems tend to be more universally accessible, are often free and open part of the day, whereas ECCE services within the social or health sector tend to have stricter eligibility requirements (e.g. working parents, vulnerable and disadvantaged), are less widespread and often charge fees. If multiple ministries are involved, responsibilities need to be clearly delineated. In the United States, where nine federal agencies have responsibility at national level, overlap, duplication and inefficient allocation of resources are common (US General Accounting Office, 2000). In some countries, no one administrative body has the principal responsibility and in such cases the government may neglect ECCE. For example, when the Romanian Ministry of Health relinquished responsibility for funding and overseeing nurseries during the transition to a market economy in the 1990s, the public child care system basically collapsed (McLean, 2006). Recognizing these challenges, a small but growing number of countries have consolidated responsibility for all forms of ECCE under one ministry to increase policy coherence. The Nordic countries pioneered this ‘educare’ approach in the 1970s when their systems were expanding in
response to rising maternal employment. In Denmark, for example, the Ministry of Social Affairs takes the lead on ECCE for children under 6, and in Finland it is the Ministry of Social Affairs and Health. (In both countries, a pre-primary year is the responsibility of the Ministry of Education). In the Nordic countries and several others that have consolidated responsibility, quality standards such as child/staff ratios and teacher training requirements tend to be uniform throughout ECCE (OECD, 2001).

Since the late 1980s the trend has been towards designating education as the lead ministry for children from birth. Countries taking this approach include Brazil, Jamaica, Kenya, New Zealand, South Africa, Spain, Sweden and, most recently, Norway. In Viet Nam, where the Ministry of Education and Training has been responsible for early childhood since 1986, officials have found that having a single lead ministry makes it easier to develop and implement policies and monitor progress, while reducing the time spent on coordinating initiatives in different sectors (Choi, 2005). Sweden shifted responsibility for ECCE from the Ministry of Social Affairs to the Ministry of Education in 1996 to promote lifelong learning from ages 1 to 18. The government later introduced an early childhood curriculum that builds on the core principles guiding primary and secondary school, and expanded free part-time pre-school to all 4- and 5-year-olds (Lenz Taguchi and Munkammar, 2003).

Selecting education as the lead ministry tends to increase attention to children’s learning as well as to the transition to primary school. As in the case of Sweden, once early education becomes part of the school system, it is more likely to be seen as a public good – which can lead to increased resources and greater access. Greater involvement of the education sector in the early childhood years carries risks, however. As it is not usually compulsory, ECCE often struggles for attention and resources within the education bureaucracy. Another concern, based on recent experiences in Belgium, France and Sweden, is that ECCE will be under pressure from primary
education to become more formal and school-like (OECD, 2001; Lenz Taguchi and Munkammar, 2003).
Regardless of which agency takes the lead, coordination is needed across all institutions and sectors involved in early childhood and family issues. Experiences in several countries suggest that an interministerial body can help promote national coordination of policies and actions (Box 8.2). In South Africa, for example, the Ministry of Education houses a National Coordinating Committee composed of representatives from the ministries of health, education, welfare and population development; other government departments; resource and training institutions; universities; and NGOs. The committee was instrumental in creating the preprimary Grade R for 5- and 6-year-olds (Hyde and Kabiru, 2006).
Fragmented responsibility may lead to disparities in access and quality.
7. In Ghana, for example, both the Ministry of Education and Sports and that of Manpower Development, Youth and Employment sought the national coordination responsibility for ECCE. As a compromise, the National Commission on Children, under the Ministry of Women’s and Children’s Affairs, was given the coordinating role, but interagency tension persists.
8. In Africa, such mechanisms exist in Kenya, Mali, Namibia, Senegal and South Africa (Hyde and Kabiru, 2006).
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In general, coordinating bodies (often called councils, committees or commissions) provide a forum in which stakeholders can contribute their knowledge and perspectives to achieve a common vision – that of providing resources and developing standards, regulations, training and staffing for an integrated early childhood system. In sub-Saharan Africa, such bodies have achieved some success in coordinating pilot projects, formulating policy or conducting situational analyses. Yet, existing African structures face several challenges: they often have limited or undertrained staff, are more advisory than decision-making bodies and often fail to engage all stakeholders (Hyde and Kabiru, 2006).

In Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba and Mexico, intersectoral coordinating bodies have improved public awareness of ECCE, increased coverage of comprehensive ECCE and developed both a shared vision of comprehensive ECCE and a collective process of policy formulation. What were the elements that made these mechanisms successful? Among them were: recognition of children’s rights, needs and potential; a shared vision of comprehensive ECCE; sustained political will and technical leadership; conscious and joint national decision-making; full civil society participation and involvement of families and communities (UNESCO-OREALC, 2004b).

The effectiveness of intersectoral collaboration is also determined by which ministry takes the lead and whether the coordinating body has decisionmaking power. The lead ministry needs to be perceived by the others involved as having the authority to convene and to act. Other ministries and departments tend to respond when, for example, the finance ministry or prime minister’s office takes the lead. The efforts of advisory-only commissions are unlikely to move the agenda for young children forward, while those with authority to make decisions about expenditure, for
example, tend to have much more active and effective participation.

Decentralization — an approach to be used with caution

Decentralization of ECCE is often adopted as a strategy to increase local transparency and adapt services and resources to community needs and circumstances. Yet with ECCE as with other public services, decentralization can lead to broader inequalities in access and quality if implementation of national policies is uneven or central governments relinquish their former responsibilities. Justifications for decentralization in transition countries, for example, often concealed cutbacks in central government spending on ECCE in general, and the financial and administrative abandonment of state responsibility for pre-schools in particular (McLean, 2006).

Indeed, during the 1990s, decentralization in transition countries led to rapid deterioration in the quality, access, supply and coverage of kindergartens and nurseries. The number of facilities decreased as some merged, others shut down and still others began operating seasonally or for shorter hours as funding and enrolment dropped (see Chapter 6). Absence of monitoring by regional authorities, loss of pedagogical assistance and shortages of teaching materials exacerbated these problems and contributed to rising numbers of children deemed unprepared for school in Armenia, Kyrgyzstan, Ukraine and other countries (McLean, 2006).

If central funds do not accompany the transfer of power to lower levels of government, poorer municipalities often cannot maintain the supply of good-quality ECCE. The loss of good teachers, inadequate in-service teacher training and lack of maintenance capacity can exacerbate the 9.

Decentralization of responsibilities such as administration, regulation, quality assurance and provision in ECCE, from higher to lower levels of government, falls
on a continuum from
deconcentration (low)
to delegation (medium)
to devolution (high).
Privatization – shifting
responsibility from the
public to the private sector –
can also be considered a
form of decentralization; it is
discussed in the next section.
During the 1990s,
decentralization
in transition
countries led to
rapid deterioration
of kindergartens
and nurseries
Jamaica’s approach to creating a long-term vision for
comprehensive, integrated delivery of early childhood
programmes and services is instructive. First, in 1998
the Ministry of Education, Youth and Culture assumed
responsibility for the Day Care Unit from the Ministry
of Health in addition to its own Early Childhood Unit.
An interagency group representing health, education,
community development, planning, NGOs, service clubs
and the University of the West Indies was formed to guide
the integration process. In 2002, legislation established
the Early Childhood Commission, which brings together all
policies, standards and regulations pertaining to day care
and early childhood development under one institutional
umbrella. Comprehensive regulations now cover health,
safety and nutritional requirements, and there are
guidelines for fostering both children’s social development
and a positive learning climate. Overall, Jamaica’s
integrated approach maximizes limited resources by
reducing duplication and fragmentation.
Box 8.2: Streamlining ECCE policy in Jamaica
problem. In Armenia, China, Romania, the Russian Federation and Ukraine, decentralization aggravated inequalities between wealthier urban and poorer rural communities, as well as between socio-economic classes (McLean, 2006; Corter et al., 2006; Taratukhina et al., 2006). In India, limited local capacity and uneven resources led to inefficient targeting of services and thus to geographic and socioeconomic inequalities in access and quality (World Bank, 2004). Difficulties in achieving equity within decentralized structures have led to greater central government attention to ECCE (McLean, 2006). In Slovakia, local education authorities were responsible for ECCE in 1990–96, then regional and district authorities took over (UNESCO-IBE, 2006). In Sweden, after deregulation in the 1990s led to widespread disparities in fees and quality standards, the government introduced a maximum fee for all pre-schools and a curriculum framework to establish quality guidelines (Skolverket, 2004). These examples suggest better coordination is often needed not only horizontally, among ministries, but also vertically, among levels of government.

Private actors as potential partners
Community-based organizations, NGOs, religious groups and for-profit entities – the whole range of non-public actors – can support government efforts to expand, improve and coordinate ECCE provision. As Chapter 6 showed, the private sector plays a large role in many countries. In parts of Europe, North America and Latin America, religious institutions continue to provide ECCE and often allow others to use their buildings for this purpose. The private sector is particularly prominent in sub-Saharan Africa, the Arab States, the Caribbean and East Asia. Muslim communities in the Gambia, Indonesia, Kenya, Morocco, Tunisia, Uganda and the United Republic of Tanzania
have created pre-schools in recent years to ensure that children learn the national curriculum within a context that supports Islamic faith, values and practices. In some countries, religious providers contribute dramatically to the availability of ECCE. In Zanzibar (United Republic of Tanzania), the pre-school GER is 87% overall, but only 9% when Koranic schools are not included. To promote quality and sustainability of religious-based provision, the Aga Khan Foundation has established Madrasa Resource Centres (Box 8.3) (Hyde and Kabiru, 2006; Issa, 2006).

In many countries in transition, private providers (both non-profit and for-profit) have flourished in a situation of decreased government support, financial constraints and decentralization. The diversification of providers has both encouraged innovative practices and increased inequalities in access. Whereas the government system had mostly been closed to non-professionals, some private providers encourage parent and community involvement. Families often welcome the alternatives to traditional public-sector pedagogy that non-public ECCE programmes offer. The Step by Step programme established by the Open Society Institute, for example, has influenced curricular reform throughout Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia by encouraging a child-centred approach that can be adapted to children’s diverse learning styles (see Chapter 7). At the same time, the entrance requirements and, especially, high fees imposed by many non-public providers in the transition countries have excluded many vulnerable and disadvantaged children (McLean, 2006).

The role of the for-profit sector, in particular, is somewhat controversial. As with other levels of education, proponents of for-profit ECCE argue that market-based approaches encourage competition, increase efficiency and promote parental choice. The Netherlands’ 2005 child care law, for instance, transformed the previously supply-driven system to a demand-side approach. Instead of directly subsidizing providers, the
government grants families subsidies to purchase market-provided services.10 In such cases, however, if these vouchers do not cover the full cost of good-quality ECCE, low-income parents’ choices can be limited to less adequate provision. In 2002, Morocco separated pre-school for 4- and 5-year-olds from the national education system and left it in the hands of the private sector, without regulating fees. The government now focuses on regulations, training and pedagogical innovations (e.g. the curriculum). Families with fewer resources are excluded from more expensive services (Choi, 2004). Another concern is the distribution of services: when demand-side approaches predominate, service gaps tend to occur in rural and low-income areas, which are less profitable and more challenging for providers (OECD, 2001). To offset adverse effects of deregulation, Sweden introduced quality guidelines 10. For more information, see http://internationalezaken.szw.nl/index.cfm.

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In sum, countries vary with regard to the extent to which the state regulates private providers, a fact with important implications for access and quality. Private providers operating outside the public system often are free to determine eligibility requirements, quality standards and fees. There is a risk of a two-track system developing, with children from more advantaged families attending more expensive and higher quality private programmes and less fortunate families resorting to low-cost, lowerquality public alternatives. To promote equity, governments should ensure that regulations exist and are applied equally to public and private settings, and, where possible, that the system does not segregate children by socio-economic background (McLean, 2006; Corter et al., 2006; Taratukhina et al., 2006).

Improving quality: regulation, accountability and staffing
The issue of quality is not explicitly noted in EFA goal 1, but the Dakar Framework for Action (Expanded Commentary, para. 30) underlines the ‘positive impact’ that ‘good quality early childhood care and education, both in families and in more structured programmes, have … on the survival, growth, development and learning potential of children’. A consistent research finding is that the quality of children’s early experiences is related to virtually every facet of their development (OECD-CERI, 1999; Shonkoff and Phillips, 2000). Young children who receive good care, attention and stimulation in their first three years are likely to demonstrate better cognitive and language abilities, and experience more positive social interaction than children who have experienced lower-quality arrangements (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2001). The benefits of well-designed, intensive forms of ECCE are less likely to ‘fade out’ than those of more custodial programmes (Barnett, 1995).

Some scholars reject a normative approach to defining and monitoring quality, arguing that
quality is socially constructed and cannot be measured by ‘objective’ criteria such as standardized scales or child/staff ratios (Dahlberg et al., 1999). Although quality is relative to one’s perspective, this does not mean that quality is arbitrary or that ‘anything goes’ (Woodhead, 1996). Rather, the critique of normative definitions of quality has encouraged researchers and some policy-makers to favour a more participatory approach to quality assurance within early childhood settings, whereby administrators, staff, parents and sometimes children jointly determine what their goals are and how to achieve them. Indeed, Myers (2006) urges early childhood stakeholders to accommodate multiple perspectives.

Regulating programme quality

Most governments regulate ECCE programmes in order to monitor the quality of the environment and the practices that promote children’s development and learning. Regulations usually focus on easy-to-measure indicators of structural quality, such as class size, child/staff ratios, availability of materials and staff training. Equally important, if not more so, are indicators of process quality, which include warm, interactive relationships between carers and children, inclusion of families, and responsiveness to cultural diversity and children with special needs. Indeed, some research indicates that interaction with children is crucial for their development.

Some scholars reject a normative approach to defining and monitoring quality

With support from the Aga Khan Foundation, Madrasa Resource Centres work with disadvantaged urban, peri-urban and rural Muslim communities to establish community-owned and — managed pre-schools that are culturally appropriate, affordable and sustainable. The programme supports 203 pre-schools in East Africa (66 in Kenya, 53 in Uganda and 84 in Zanzibar, United Republic of Tanzania) and has served approximately 30,000 children and trained over 4,000 community-based teachers since 1986. To date, 153 communities have pre-schools up and running; 50 more are receiving intensive support as they complete the programme.
Madrasa pre-schools perform significantly better than other pre-schools on adult-child interaction and on three-quarters of the environmental dimensions assessed by the Early Childhood Environment Rating Scale. The mean performance scores of Madrasa pre-school children were 42% higher than those of children who did not attend pre-schools. The programme has increased empowerment and self-reliance among teachers and community members. Women’s participation in community life and decision-making outside the home has improved, even in the most traditional communities. The direct costs of the programme are modest — about US$15 per child per year — of which the Madrasa Resource Centres programme pays two-thirds and the community the remainder.

Sources: Issa (2006); Mwaura (2005, 2006).

Box 8.3: Resource centres enrich Madrasa pre-schools in East Africa
between adults and children is associated more strongly with enhanced well-being of children than are structural features (see Chapter 7) (Love et al., 1996). The importance of adult-child dynamics is an encouraging finding for those working in situations where resource constraints make many structural features hard to address (Arnold et al., 2006).

Among developing countries, five in Latin America (Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador and Mexico) have developed national quality standards for ECCE programmes, and seven Caribbean countries have assessed programme quality using a standardized instrument. Various quality assessment projects have also been conducted in India, Kenya, Pakistan, Singapore and Viet Nam (Myers, 2006). Many of these national instruments have been developed with the assistance of multilateral organizations, NGOs and foundations, often to provide a basis for evaluating externally funded ECCE programmes. This was the case, for instance, in Bangladesh and Viet Nam (Plan International), Kenya (Aga Khan Foundation), Pakistan (USAID and Aga Khan Foundation), Ecuador (World Bank), and parts of Latin America (Christian Children’s Fund) and Eastern Europe (International Step by Step Association).

In recent years various international (Table 8.2) and national instruments have been developed to assess process quality in ECCE programmes. Their aims differ, but both often involve evaluating the quality of the environment in which child care and/or learning activities are provided, the quality of adult-child interactions and the extent of parental participation. Given the diverse nature of ECCE programmes, international comparability is particularly difficult. Nevertheless, the instruments are useful for assessing programme quality within a particular country over time. An important policy decision is the extent to which various forms of provision are to be subject to regulation. In most countries, for instance,
publicly funded services are required to follow programme quality standards, whereas informal care by family, friends and neighbours is not. As has been noted, private provision is often exempt from regulation except when publicly subsidized. The rationale for these exemptions is to limit government intervention in private spheres such as the family. From an equity perspective, however, it is harder to justify selectively monitoring the quality of some forms of ECCE but not others. Governments need to enforce, not just develop, regulations that promote quality. Yet, many countries do not have the resources to assure sufficient inspection and monitoring. An alternative approach, accreditation, is used in some countries, including Australia, the United Kingdom, and the United States. Accreditation encourages programme staff to reflect on their practice and to address any limitations before having their work validated by an external expert. In Australia the National Childcare Accreditation Council has established a quality evaluation system for accreditation, self-evaluation and programme improvement. Public funding of programmes is contingent on their participation (Press and Hayes, 2000). Moving towards a stronger focus on child outcomes In a trend encouraged by some international organizations, governments increasingly have been assessing programme quality by focusing on child outcomes – agreed standards or expectations of children’s performance and behaviour (Box 8.4). An outcomes approach focuses on children’s learning and development rather than on the features of the early childhood programme. The process encourages stakeholders at national and subnational level to identify early learning standards in various domains, usually related to school readiness, broadly defined. These standards are based on direct observation of children. They can be used to report on children’s competence at a given time, and they are often used to guide
pedagogy and instruction, to help families understand and support children’s development, and to inform teacher training. Recently efforts have been made to align early learning standards with the curriculum and with childfocused assessments, as part of a broader strategy of holding providers accountable to policy-makers (Kagan and Britto, 2005). The standards-based approach is not without risks. One concern is that ‘global’ standards impose a Western view on the rest of the world and do not take cultural, linguistic and other forms of diversity into account. ECCE outcomes need to be viewed in context, especially in relation to the values set forth in national texts and curricula. Further, it is difficult to develop standards that reflect children’s differing rates and approaches to learning. In addition, given the diverse nature of ECCE programmes, international comparability is particularly difficult.

11. Standardized testing to measure children’s school readiness was previously common in North America and Europe, but the trend is now to use direct observation and other types of continuous assessment, which better address young children’s episodic development (Neuman, 2001; Shepard et al., 1996). For a summary of readiness assessment instruments in the United States, see Mehaffie and McCall (2002).

12. The World Bank has promoted the use of first
grade readiness testing in countries including India, Jordan and Turkey (National Center for Human Resources Development, 2005). The Offord Center for Child Studies (2005) in Canada has developed the Early Development Instrument, which reports on populations of children in different communities, assesses children’s strengths and deficits, and predicts how they will do in elementary school. It has been used in Canada with more than 290,000 students and, on a pilot basis, in Australia, Chile, Jamaica, Kosovo and the United States. A pilot project in Colombia uses a test that measures skills and knowledge in children starting kindergarten. Viet Nam is validating early learning and developing standards for monitoring school readiness (UNESCO-IBE, 2006).

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standards have the potential for misuse. While the intent is to support learning and identify any difficulties, standards might be used to stigmatize children, labelling them as ‘failures’. Standards are sometimes inappropriately used to screen children to determine whether they can start school. Furthermore, ‘quality’ has little meaning if used to characterize an ECCE programme that achieves the desired outcomes through undesirable methods (e.g. fear or punishment) (Myers, 2006).

Promoting quality through staffing policy
Given the importance of positive staff-child interaction for early childhood experiences, several recent staffing trends and issues are notable. The first involves the move, already discussed, towards an integrated system of ECCE provision and regulation from birth to school entry. This trend, so far mostly in developed countries, has encouraged countries to restructure staff qualification requirements and training. It has also led them to bridge the divide.

Planning and Improvement tool.
Accreditation for
Step by Step programme
Self-assessment by centres
Research
Planning and improvement tool (staff development, assessment, monitoring)
Advocacy and policy development
Research and programme improvement.
Now used as qualification criteria for some programmes.
Table 8.2: International instruments for assessing ECCE quality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of assessment tool</th>
<th>Major categories (number of indicators)</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>International Step by Step Association, programme and teacher standards Association for Childhood Education International Self-Assessment Tool IEA Pre-Primary Project Assessment scale proposed by Save the Children, United Kingdom Early Childhood Environment Rating Scale, Revised Edition, developed in United States. Similar instruments exist for infant/toddler programmes and family day care.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: In addition to these instruments, based on international projects and studies, some countries have developed national assessments of quality, discussed in Appendix 1 of the source document.


Programme standards:
- Teacher-child interactions (4)
- Family participation (9)
- Planning a child-centred programme (5)
- Strategies for meaningful learning (4)
- Learning environment (3)
- Health and safety (4)

Teacher standards:
- Individualization (4)
- Learning environment (3)
- Family participation (6)
- Teaching strategies for meaningful learning (5)
- Planning and assessment (7)
- Professional development (4)
- Environment and physical space (17)
- Curriculum content and pedagogy (39)
- Educators and caregivers (13)
- Young children with special needs (24)
- Partnership with families and communities (5)

Observation system focuses on process using three dimensions:
- Management of time (e.g. time in three categories of proposed activities, group structure, pacing of activities)
- Child activities (e.g. children’s verbalization, child-child interactions)
interaction, adult-child interaction, children’s non-active engagement, time on task)
Adult behaviour (e.g. behaviour in major categories, directive teaching, degree of involvement, listening behaviour, child management)
Professional practice (clear aims, protection policy, good practice, referral, care plan, periodic review, continuum of care) (7)
Personal care (health and nutrition, recreation, privacy, informed choices, respect, + relationships, sense of identity, control and sanctions, voice opinions, education according to needs) (12)
Caregivers (4)
Resources (accessible/adequate; promotes health/development) (2)
Administration (records, confidentiality, accountability) (3)
Space and furnishings (8)
Personal care routines (6)
Language-reasoning (4)
Activities (10)
Interaction (5)
Programme structure (4)
Parents and staff (6)
29 countries: Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Estonia, Georgia, Haiti, Hungary, Kazakhstan, Kosovo, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Lithuania, TFYR Macedonia, Mongolia, Montenegro, Rep. Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia, Tajikistan, Ukraine, Uzbekistan
26 countries helped construct this tool, including
Botswana, Chile, China, Ecuador, Japan, Kenya, Mexico, Nigeria, United States
17 countries/territories:
Belgium (French-speaking), China, Finland, Germany (former Federal Republic), Greece, Hong Kong (China), Indonesia, Ireland, Italy, Nigeria,
Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia, Spain, Thailand, United States
7 countries: Ethiopia, Kenya, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Rwanda, Somalia, Sudan (northern part), United Republic of Tanzania
7 Caribbean countries: Bahamas, Dominica, Grenada, Jamaica, Montserrat, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and Grenadines
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between the education and care components. In Singapore, for example, all child care and pre-school personnel now undergo the same training and accreditation, which has increased the pool of trained staff (Choo, 2004). In the United Kingdom, where child care staff used to be paid less than early education personnel, the government introduced a national minimum wage for ECCE employment.

Second, some countries are making the entry routes into higher education and teacher training more flexible so as to attract more candidates (Oberhuemer and Ulich, 1997). For example, in Grenada, Jamaica, and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, credit is given for competency-based skills (Charles and Williams, 2006). In India and the Syrian Arab Republic, students can take early childhood training courses over the Internet (Faour, 2006; NIPCCD, 2006). The Early Child Development Virtual University (Box 8.5) promotes ECCE leadership development and builds capacity through both online and in-person training. In Pakistan, the Teachers Resource Centre has partnered with the Ministry of Education to expand the trained workforce by creating the Early Childhood Education Certificate Programme, the country’s first teacher-training and classroom support programme for pre-primary teachers, and by offering in-service training workshops (Teachers Resource Centre Online, 2006a, 2006b).

Third, to ease children’s transition from ECCE to primary schooling, several countries have implemented strategies for professional continuity. For example: France, Ireland, Jamaica and the United Kingdom have joint training of ECCE and primary teachers, with graduates qualified to work in pre-primary and primary schools with children aged from 2 to 12. China provides general child-friendly, active learning approaches to all teachers, with particular attention to those working in the first grades of primary school (Box 8.6).
In the madrasa early childhood programme, early grade primary school teachers communicate with teachers from their feeder pre-schools. In Guyana, ECCE and primary school teachers work together in school, home visits and other after-school programmes. Such strategies encourage connections and coherence in teaching styles between two normally distinct levels. In Portugal, early childhood specialists are trained separately from primary school teachers but receive the same level of training, qualifications and professional status. Despite these positive trends, around the world several areas require further attention in relation to both initial training and ongoing professional development. They include engaging parents and other carers more actively in children’s development and learning; adopting inclusive practices for children with disabilities and other special education needs; working with linguistically and culturally diverse children; and meeting the needs of orphans and vulnerable children (particularly those affected by HIV/AIDS) and of children in emergency and crisis situations.

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Since 2003, the Going Global project, a partnership of UNICEF and Columbia and Yale universities, has helped countries prepare national early learning and development standards in domains including language and literacy development, social and emotional development, motor development, logic and reasoning, and approaches to learning. Table 8.3 gives an example. Going Global supports a participatory process involving countries’ early childhood development experts, policy-makers, planners, parents and children in shaping early learning standards that reflect local cultural and social concepts of what children of a given age should know and be able to do. The standards are based on research and scientific knowledge on early learning, taking into consideration cultural, linguistic and socio-economic differences, as well as children with special needs. After pilot projects in Brazil, Ghana, Jordan, Paraguay, the Philippines and South Africa, Going Global is expanding to other countries in Latin America and the Caribbean, East Asia and Central Europe. Countries have used the standards to revise pre-school curricula, teacher-training models and national monitoring.

Box 8.4: A standards-based approach to monitoring early learning
Ask the child to get an article of clothing; put it on/wear it; and
proceed to a certain location, like the entrance to the room (if outdoors, to a tree).
Sing a nursery rhyme to the child that entails doing activities, like pointing to body parts. Ask the child to respond to your rhyme by acting/doing the activities. Engage the child in a conversation. See if the child is able to extend an idea expressed by you. Give oral directions and play a game like ‘carer says’. Make the children give simple directions to each other. Guide the child to listen for specific information in conversations with others. While listening to the radio, discuss the content with child. While telling a story or reading a book, guide the child through the development of the idea of the story.
Table 8.3: A sample standard from the Going Global project: language and literacy development
Child can follow directions that involve a two or three-step sequence of actions. Child demonstrates an understanding of the message in a conversation. Child demonstrates a gain in information by listening.
Indicator How to measure/benchmark Preparatory learning activities
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Costing and financing

ECCE programmes

Previous chapters have described how ECCE programmes vary within and across countries, are offered by a broad mix of public and private providers, and are financed to varying degrees by households, governments and others. The complexity of the situation makes it difficult to calculate total national expenditure on ECCE, or even the costs of specific programmes, and harder still to make cross-national comparisons. As a result, not only is there no quantitative target for EFA goal 1, but it is not possible even to estimate the global cost of ‘expanding and improving comprehensive ECCE’. This section, therefore, presents cross-country data on total public expenditure on pre-primary education, the only component of ECCE for which some comparisons are possible, and provides some country examples of programmes’ unit costs. It also discusses various sources of and approaches to financing for ECCE, including the issue of targeting and the role of external donors.

Public expenditure on pre-primary education

In general, countries accord relatively low priority to pre-primary education in their public spending. Less than 10% of total public education expenditure was allocated to it in sixty-five of the seventy-nine countries with data available (Figure 8.1). Over half allocated less than 5%. Most of the fourteen countries allocating more than 10% are in Europe. As a share of GNP, public expenditure on pre-primary education was greatest in Central and Eastern Europe, at 0.5%, compared with 0.4% in North America and Western Europe and 0.2% in Latin America (see annex, Statistical Table 11). Data on these shares over time are available for only a few countries. No strong trends are observable. There is some indication that the share has fallen (from relatively high levels) in Central and Eastern Europe since 1999. Not surprisingly, the same regional patterns
hold when comparing public spending on preprimary education with that on primary education. 
In Central and Eastern Europe, for the equivalent of every US$100 spent on primary education, US$67 was spent on pre-primary programmes, and some countries, including the Republic of Moldova, spent the same on each of the two levels. For North America and Western Europe, 
The Early Childhood Development Virtual University (ECDVU) is a training and capacity-building initiative designed to help meet the need for early childhood leadership and development in Africa and the Middle East. It uses both face-to-face seminars and distance learning, allowing students to continue working in their own countries while they are studying, so that they can apply what they are learning in their daily work. Each ECDVU participant also organizes a national intersectoral network of early childhood advocates and practitioners. Students are taught by faculty from around the world and work with a mentor in each country or region. In 2004, twenty-seven out of the initial thirty students from ten countries in sub-Saharan Africa graduated with master of arts degrees from Victoria University in Canada. Five countries in the Middle East and North Africa participated in a one-year graduate programme in 2003. The ECDVU is supported by the World Bank, UNICEF and UNESCO, and by NGOs and development agencies. 
Box 8.5: The Early Childhood Development 
Virtual University: work and study 
In 1989 the government of China developed a policy to build the public and political profile of ECCE and boost levels of participation. The policy promoted progressive principles for kindergartens, notably a focus on child development, active learning, attention to individual differences and group functioning, respectful relationships between staff and children, and holistic evaluation of children. These challenged traditional teaching practices, making implementation difficult. The government responded by proposing new qualification requirements especially for early childhood teachers, principals and other staff, which were adopted in 1996. In 2001, the government issued guidelines on gradually putting progressive ideas into practice, emphasizing holistic evaluation of children through interviews and direct observations, and further improvement of teacher education and training. 
The country established an integrated professional training system with multiple forms and levels (e.g. pre- and in-service training, degree and nondegree, short- and long-term). Kindergarten teachers must now graduate from secondary schools and pass an examination that leads to a required early childhood teaching certificate. Pre-service training for graduates of uppersecondary schools is also offered at colleges and universities. Kindergarten principals must have, in addition, extensive work experience and in-service training in kindergarten administration. Challenges remain despite these advances. Recent surveys in major cities
such as Beijing and Shanghai show that many upper secondary graduates lack the professional knowledge and skills to observe and evaluate children as the progressive kindergarten guidelines stipulate. Faculty supervisors have limited kindergarten experience, there is insufficient access to training in rural areas and in-service training is often not aligned with the new curricular guidelines. To further enhance teacher education, the government is designing curriculum frameworks for pre-service training, preparing textbooks and encouraging local education departments to regulate teacher education institutions.

Sources: Corter et al. (2006); China Ministry of Education (2003); Wong and Pang (2002).
Box 8.6: Teacher education reform to strengthen progressive kindergarten practices in China
by contrast, expenditure on pre-primary programmes is equivalent to about 26% of that on primary education, though the share is as high as 60% in France and Germany. In Latin America and the Caribbean, the average expenditure on pre-primary equals 14% of that on primary, but the variation by country is wide, ranging from 1% in Bolivia to 37% in Guyana. In the few countries with data in sub-Saharan Africa, South and West Asia, and the Arab States, spending on preprimary education is very low as a percentage of that for primary (see annex, Statistical Table 11).

The costs of ECCE programmes13 The small share of total public education spending allocated to pre-primary education reflects low enrolment ratios rather than low spending per child. The average public expenditure per child for all countries with data is 85% of that at primary level (see annex, Statistical Table 11). Indeed, when the state meets the full costs of pre-primary education, as tends to be the case still in the former socialist countries of Central and Eastern Europe, unit costs are almost 25% higher in pre-primary than in primary education, mainly because of the lower pupil/staff ratios (see Chapter 6). In North America and Western Europe, and in Latin America and the Caribbean, public expenditure per child in preprimary education averages closer to 70% of that in primary education, though the share reaches about 90% in France, Germany and Greece (see annex, Statistical Table 11).

Per-pupil expenditure in pre-primary education referred to above is arrived at by dividing total public expenditure on pre-primary by the number of children at that level in government schools.14 Another approach to costing is to focus on the programmes themselves. In principle, this is straightforward: programmes are identified, the inputs for each listed and costed, total and unit costs estimated, and the contributions to the costs from government, households, employers and others
The average public expenditure per pre-primary child is 85% of that at primary level. This subsection is based in part on Levin and Schwartz (2006).

Figure 8.1: Share of pre-primary education in total current public spending on education, 2004

Source: UIS database.

Sub-Saharan Africa
Arab States
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
0 5 10 15 20
Current educational expenditure on pre-primary as % of total current educational expenditure
Burundi
Swaziland
South Africa
Senegal
Congo
Kenya
Mauritius
Seychelles
U. A. Emirates
Kuwait
Tajikistan
Kyrgyzstan
Azerbaijan
Mongolia
Indonesia
Philippines
Fiji
Malaysia
Rep. of Korea
Australia
New Zealand
Lao PDR
North America and Western Europe
Central and Eastern Europe
0 5 10 15 20
Current educational expenditure on pre-primary
as % of total current educational expenditure
Ireland
Switzerland
Norway
Canada
Monaco
Greece
Finland
Portugal
Cyprus
Iceland
Malta
Netherlands
Austria
Italy
Germany
Denmark
Israel
Spain
France
Andorra
Estonia
Poland
Romania
Slovenia
Czech Rep.
Croatia
Slovakia
Hungary
Bulgaria
Belarus
Rep. Moldova
South and West Asia
Latin America and the Caribbean

0 5 10 15 20
Current educational expenditure on pre-primary
as % of total current educational expenditure
Iran, Isl. Rep.
Nepal
British Virgin Is
St Vincent/Grenad.
Dominican Rep.
Saint Lucia
Belize
Antigua/Barbuda
Colombia
Bolivia
Anguilla
Jamaica
Grenada
Barbados
Aruba
Argentina
El Salvador
Paraguay
Peru
Saint Kitts/Nevis
Cuba
Chile
Costa Rica
Mexico
Turks/Caicos Is
Guyana

These countries allocate more than 10% of total public spending on education to pre-primary education.
separated out. In practice, however, there are several data-related problems, such as the great variety of ECCE programme types and the difficulty of obtaining information about spending on private programmes.

While it is difficult to generalize about the costs of ECCE programmes, it is possible to indicate their most important determinants and to clarify the areas where choices affecting costs can be made. Determining factors for per-pupil cost include:

- the nature and range of the service being provided (e.g. pre-school; pre-school and basic health care; pre-school, basic health care and feeding programmes);
- facilities (e.g. purpose-built structure, community building, provider’s home);
- length of sessions (e.g. full day, half day, number of days per year);
- child/staff ratios;
- staff qualifications and salary levels.

The total cost depends on the number of children participating, which in turn is influenced by the demographic composition of the population, by parental demand, and by the public and private availability of programmes.

While it is not possible to provide a realistic estimate of the global cost of meeting the ECCE goal, a few country-specific exercises have been carried out, using a range of assumptions about coverage and content. For instance, the budgetary requirements for five scenarios have been estimated for Burkina Faso (Mingat, 2006), a country characterized by very low coverage of children from birth to age 6 (1.2% in 2005). Existing facilities are mainly private and concentrated in two urban centres, with parents and communities bearing most of the costs. The five alternatives differ in terms of quality and coverage. The most ambitious scenario covers 40% of children aged 0 to 6 by 2015 through parenting and centre-based programmes, and includes provision of nutritional support and educational materials. Three-quarters of the 4-
to 6-year-olds are assumed to attend community-based facilities and the rest more formal preschools. It is estimated that the resources needed to realize this scenario exceed those expected to be available by 2015 by almost 60%. This type of exercise is useful for clarifying the financial implications of specific choices and for exploring trade-offs between, for instance, increasing coverage, reducing quality and increasing or decreasing household payments.

Key issues in financing ECCE programmes
Four key issues need to be considered when financing ECCE programmes: the sources available, the channels to be used to raise and allocate funds, the extent of targeting, and ways to partner with international aid agencies and NGOs.

Public and private funding
The relative shares of public and private funding of ECCE vary considerably by country. Among OECD countries, for instance, the parents’ share runs as high as 60% of the total in the United States but closer to 20% in France and Sweden. Among developing countries the variation is even greater. In Indonesia, ECCE is mainly regarded as a family responsibility and public funding represents no more than 5% of the total, usually as subsidies to privately operated urban child care centres. In Cuba, by contrast, the provision and funding of ECCE services are entirely up to the government. Private funding often supplements public funding to expand the level of services; for instance, families may pay for more hours or longer days than are publicly funded. Other private sources may also be available to fund ECCE programmes, including religious institutions, charities, NGOs and companies. Public funds are often provided by more than one level of government, either directly or though subventions from one level to another. In France, the national government finances teacher salaries while local governments provide the facilities, administration and other services for the écoles maternelles for children from ages 3 to 5 (Neuman and Peer, 2002). For child care centres
(crèches), public funding is shared among the national government (36%), départements (47%) and local governments (17%). In Sweden, public funding for ECCE is primarily the responsibility of the municipality (60%) and is funded through local income taxes. Local authorities receive block and equalization grants from the national government to cover the remainder (Gunnarsson et al., 1999). In the United States, the federal government provides around 60% of the public funding for ECCE programmes, and state and local governments contribute the rest (Belfield, 2006).

Financing mechanisms

Higher-level governments (national, regional, state) may either finance and provide ECCE

14. This method underestimates unit costs because households typically also pay fees and other charges, and because some of the public funds may subsidize privately provided programmes whose participants are not included in the total numbers of children.

15. This section is based largely on Belfield (2006).

16. ECCE is also supported financially in several countries by international aid agencies and NGOs, as discussed below.

17. These estimates are for fee-charging child care programmes, primarily for infants and toddlers. Partday pre-schools for 3- to 5-year-olds in France and 4- to 6-year-olds in Sweden do not charge fees. In Indonesia, ECCE is mainly regarded as a family responsibility and public funding
represents no more than 5% of the total
programmes directly or they may allocate grants to local authorities for these programmes. The contribution of matching grants may be a condition for receiving this support. In turn, local governments may raise funds directly from the local community through donations by interest groups or social clubs. An alternative to funding the provision of ECCE programmes directly is for governments to provide resources to parents to enable them to purchase services from a variety of providers. In Taiwan (China), for instance, child care vouchers are distributed to families and can be used to pay the fees at any eligible pre-school (Ho, 2006). In the United States, states have the option of distributing federal subsidies for child care to eligible families in the form of vouchers. Families may also receive subsidies to provide home-based care (Waiser, 1999), or be compensated after purchasing private care. In France, for instance, employed parents benefit from a range of direct subsidies and tax reductions to offset the costs of centre-based and home-based forms of child care. In addition, businesses are required to finance the system through compulsory payments into the Caisse nationale des allocations familiales (Family Allowance Fund) (Belfield, 2006).

In addition to the variety of direct mechanisms for funding ECCE activities, government policies affect households’ expenditure on ECCE through eligibility rules for publicly provided ECCE, through the level of fees and charges for public programmes and through the structuring of parental leave policies (Waldfogel, 2001). Corporations and other employers may contribute to the provision of ECCE, either directly by financing a company ECCE centre, or indirectly by including child care in employees’ wage and benefits package and allowing parents paid leave for child care. Governments can encourage employers to contribute in this way by offering tax incentives. In Colombia, for instance, for over
thirty years all private and public employers have had to deposit the equivalent of 3% of their total payroll into an earmarked account that allows the semi-autonomous Institute for Family Welfare to provide direct services and to contract with NGOs and others to provide services, including community child care, parent education, nutritional supplements, school meals and child protection. This financing strategy has given access to children’s services to 21% of the population (Vargas-Barón, Forthcoming). Other options that may be appropriate where public funds are insufficient to offer the required level of formal ECCE include microenterprise loans to child carers to establish home-based day care (Blumberg, 2006) and the bundling of day care with services such as primary schooling or health centres. Figure 8.2 summarizes the main sources and financing mechanisms for ECCE.

Targeting the disadvantaged
The ECCE goal focuses on vulnerable and disadvantaged young children. When resources are limited, how should they be allocated to those most in need? Two types of targeting are common: geographical and by income. Some governments also target particular groups such as the disabled and those in emergency situations, or they may promote inclusion by using non-financial instruments such as the provision and encouragement of multilingual education (Chapter 7). India offers an example of geographical targeting. Its Integrated Child Development Services concentrates on urban slums, tribal areas and remote rural regions (Box 8.7). Since 2002, Viet Nam has targeted spending on disadvantaged, remote and mountainous areas, teacher training for children with special needs In Colombia 3% of total private and public payroll is used for ECCE 18. Most countries mandate the provision of paid parental leave after
childbirth, although in developing countries this may cover only employees in the formal or public sector. Paid leave allows parents to provide care themselves for their infants (see Chapter 6).

PART III. Early child care and education Figure 8.2: Examples of funding sources and financing mechanisms for ECCE


Funding sources Financing mechanisms
Direct:
• Payments to providers
Indirect:
• Lower wages
• Donations to church
• Time
Private:
Families
Community groups
Churches/employers
Direct:
• Block grant
• Earmarked on specific revenue stream
• Matching funds from public/private agencies
• Vouchers to providers or families
• Direct subsidy of capital facilities; curriculum development; or quality assurance systems
Indirect:
• Sliding scale subsidies to parents
• Top-up fee eligibility
• Tax credits
• Parental leave policies
Public:
International
National
State/local
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and school meal programmes, arguing that state investment is necessary for the equity issue to be efficiently addressed (Choi, 2005). Income targeting is more common and can include restricting eligibility, subsidizing the enrolment of the poor and providing vouchers. With ECCE, as with other public services, targeting carries some risks. Targeted approaches may not attract enough political support, particularly among middle-class voters, to ensure that all eligible children are served in good-quality programmes. Targeting can segregate children, leading to a concentration of disadvantage in certain programmes, which may have a negative effect on children’s learning. Finally, precise targeting is difficult. European countries tend to combine universal coverage with additional, more intensive support to vulnerable and disadvantaged children. Belgium, France and the Netherlands, for example, fund pre-school programmes serving all children, but also provide extra resources to communities with the highest concentration of disadvantage (OECD, 2001). This approach is less applicable in many developing countries, where most children are excluded from ECCE anyway. A phase-in approach may be most feasible, whereby countries develop a national ECCE policy that is applicable to all children and settings, but begin by focusing public resources on the most disadvantaged.

International partnerships
Limits to the resources available to many developing country governments for ECCE programmes have led to partnerships with international NGOs and development agencies, which may provide both funding and technical advice (Hyde and Kabiru, 2006). This support can play an important role in establishing ECCE pilot projects that can later be taken to scale, and in technical assistance and capacity-building. A survey for this Report of sixty-eight bilateral donors and multilateral agencies, to which only seventeen responded, as well as analysis of
aid data reported by donors to the OECD Development Assistance Committee (DAC), show, however, that ECCE is not high on the international education development agenda. Agencies prioritize aid to centre-based preschools. The results of the donor survey suggest that few agencies have identified ECCE as a specific component of their overall aid strategy (four of the respondents had done so), though seven include ECCE as a component of their education strategy and eight identify it within their health strategy. As part of these broader strategies, international support for ECCE tends to be targeted for particular groups of marginalized and vulnerable children, including those with special educational needs, those most affected by hunger and poverty, those disadvantaged by gender or social status and those most affected by the HIV/AIDS pandemic. Bilateral donors tend to give priority to centre-based ECCE programmes covering children from age 3 to primary school age. They provide less support to home-based ECCE arrangements and generally limit this to programmes serving children from age 3.


20. More detailed discussion of the survey methodology and findings can be found at www.efareport.unesco.org.

21. Health strategies cover HIV/AIDS, reproductive health, primary health care, women’s empowerment in health-related activities, orphans and other vulnerable children, young child survival and development, nutrition, micronutrient support, deworming and malaria.
prevention. 
In 1975, the Government of India launched Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) to provide a package of supplementary nutrition, immunization, health check-up and referral services, early childhood education and community participation services to vulnerable children under 6 and to pregnant and nursing mothers in city slums, tribal areas and remote rural regions. Women from the local community deliver the services through anganwadi, the term for informal childcare centres in the courtyards of village houses. ICDS now covers 23 million children (nearly 15% of all children of pre-school age) at an average annual cost of US$10-$22 per child, and 4.8 million expectant and nursing mothers. 
The federal government has recently renewed its commitment to universalize ICDS and expand equality of opportunity to all children, in light of its positive, if uneven, impact on children’s survival, growth and development. ICDS has contributed to reducing infant mortality and severe malnutrition, improving immunization rates, increasing school enrolment and reducing school drop out. In rural Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka, for instance, ICDS has led to improved psychosocial development in both boys and girls. Indeed, even undernourished ICDS children attained higher developmental scores than well-nourished non-ICDS children. 
Despite this success, the incidence of premature birth, low birth weight, neonatal and infant mortality, and maternal and child undernutrition remain of concern in the ICDS areas. Several reforms could enhance ICDS’s impact: more emphasis on children under 3; better targeting (e.g., girls and children from poorer households and lower castes); more promotion of behaviour change in child care nutrition practices; and more funding for the poorest states and those with the highest levels of undernutrition.
Box 8.7: Packaging of services to aid India’s vulnerable children
Such funding priorities do not necessarily match country needs; less formal and less costly arrangements than centres can often help reach more young children of all ages, including those under 3. United Nations agencies, such as the World Food Programme, WHO, UNICEF and UNESCO, are more likely than bilateral donors to focus on children under 3 and to support informal programmes.

Much less aid for ECCE than for other levels of education

The amount of aid to ECCE is difficult to estimate from the main international aid database, the OECD-DAC’s Creditor Reporting System (CRS). Not all donors report early childhood education separately from basic education. Components of ECCE may also be reported in other sectors, such as health, social security and rural affairs. The data presented in this section are limited to the education dimension of ECCE and hence seriously underestimate the total aid for ECCE. Donors have very different priorities in their allocations of education aid to early childhood education (Figure 8.3). Some, like Greece, focus support on middle-income countries, while others, such as Australia, the Netherlands and UNICEF, tend to target low-income countries. Low-income countries tend to receive less funding for ECCE than middle-income countries.

For example, of the sixty-three countries that received less than US$100,000 annually for early childhood education between 1999 and 2004, thirty-seven were low-income. Of the thirty-two countries that received more than this, fifteen were low-income and seventeen were middle-income. Since the volume of aid for early childhood education is determined partly by developing countries’ demand, this is consistent with the fact that demand for early childhood education is mainly in countries that have a reasonably developed level of primary schooling (see Chapter 6).
Table 8.4 highlights the relatively low priority given to early childhood education (ECE). Nineteen of the twenty-two donors with data have allocated to pre-primary education less than 10% of what they make available for the primary level – a majority allocate less than 2%. As a share of total aid to education, the majority allocate less than 0.5%.

What next? Increasing funding and aid coordination for ECCE

What would persuade aid agencies to allocate more resources to ECCE? According to responses to the donor survey, the key would be Low-income countries tend to receive less aid for ECCE than middle-income countries

PART I I I . E a r l y c h i l d h o o d c a r e a n d e d u c a t i o n

Figure 8.3: Aid to early childhood education, 1999-2004 annual average, by country income groups (2003 constant US$ millions)

Source: CRS online database (OECD-DAC, 2006c), Table 1.
Greece
Low-income countries
Middle-income countries
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evidence of increased commitment to ECCE by
developing country governments: demonstrating
financial support, making ECCE an integral part
of national sector plans, developing strategies
for ECCE involving all key players in the country
(including the private sector and civil society)
and coordinating efforts for young children
across sectors. International political support
from the OECD-DAC, the EFA High-Level Group
and similar forums, along with more research
showing the benefits of ECCE, would help
increase awareness of and commitment to ECCE
issues among multilateral and bilateral agencies.
Aid to ECCE needs to be considered within the
broader aid coordination mechanisms for
education and health. To focus attention on
support for young children, it may be helpful to
establish country-level, thematic working groups
of donors involved in ECCE.
Planning, participation,
targeting and leadership
To ensure access to and participation in early
childhood programmes of good quality, a
favourable policy environment needs to be
created. An early childhood policy or an early
childhood policy framework helps to ensure that
young children’s rights are guaranteed and that
their needs are met by the various sectors whose
work has an impact on young children. A lead
ministry helps create policy coherence, but it is
important for ECCE not to become too narrowly
affiliated with one sector. Legislation and a
detailed action plan are other important supports
for implementation, as is capacity-building for
those charged with putting policies into practice.
Involvement of a broad group of stakeholders is
critical to ensuring that policy development
meets diverse needs and to facilitating its
implementation. Early childhood issues that are
endorsed by high-level politicians or other leaders
can raise the visibility of ECCE and ease policy
development.
To promote children’s healthy development,
it is important to establish regulations for quality
and monitoring that cover the full range of public and private settings. Governments can pursue multiple revenue sources and financing strategies, but each involves a trade-off among access, quality and equity. Equity, in particular, implies the need for more initial targeting of public ECCE resources at vulnerable and disadvantaged children, within more universal policy frameworks. Finally, international aid agencies need to accord higher priority to ECCE. Countries that align ECCE policies with education and health sector plans and poverty-reduction strategies stand a better chance of attracting additional support from donors. Favourable policy environment needs to be created.

Table 8.4: Aid to early childhood education is less than aid to primary education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aid to early childhood education</th>
<th>Aid to ECE as % of aid to primary education</th>
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<tr>
<td>1999-2004 average</td>
<td>(constant 2003 US$ millions)</td>
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</table>

Source: CRS online database (OECD-DAC, 2006c), Table 1.

Japan
European Commission
United Kingdom
Germany
France
Netherlands
Denmark
UNDP
Italy
Canada
Ireland
Belgium
Luxembourg
Portugal
Norway
New Zealand
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<td>16.2</td>
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On the road in Chiapas, Mexico.

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PART IV.
Setting priorities
Chapter 9
EFA: action now
Chapter 1 stressed the importance of taking a comprehensive approach to EFA, of emphasizing equity and inclusion, and of taking urgent action — now. This concluding chapter summarizes progress towards the Education for All goals, only nine years before the 2015 target date and only three years before all children must be enrolled in primary school if they are to complete it by 2015. The chapter then reviews the key elements required of a national and international action agenda if the goals, including that for ECCE (this Report’s special theme), are to be met on time.
Where does the world stand?
The overall EFA picture is mixed. There has been significant progress since Dakar, especially on access to primary education, including for girls. The fastest progress is being made in the countries furthest from universal primary education, but it remains inadequate for the UPE and primary gender goals to be met on time. The rest of the EFA agenda is lagging, in particular with regard to improving adult literacy and to expanding programmes for children before they enter primary school. Table 9.1 summarizes progress since Dakar for EFA as a whole, for the individual goals and for related domestic and international financing. Some trends are very encouraging while others are worrying.

A nine-point agenda
To consolidate progress and to meet all the EFA goals on time, including that for ECCE, the agenda should focus on nine areas:
1. Returning to the comprehensive approach of Dakar. There is progress where there is commitment and prioritization – i.e. primary school enrolment, including for girls, which has captured both domestic and international attention, including that of the Fast Track Initiative. Education for All, however, is a comprehensive approach to basic education. Not all governments have taken full public responsibility for some of its most important elements, particularly adult literacy (globally, a staggering one in five adults remain without basic literacy skills) and ECCE, the special theme of this Report. It is also increasingly clear that it is necessary to expand the supply of lower secondary places as an incentive to complete primary school and hence achieve the universal primary education goal.
2. Acting with urgency. Time is running out. Even achieving UPE by 2015 is uncertain. In some countries, the gender parity goal, already missed in 2005, may not be met by 2015. We must act now to get all children into school and
take steps to ensure that they stay there and that they learn. It is also very important to enrol disadvantaged and vulnerable children in ECCE, as they have the most to gain. Moreover, a major effort for adult literacy is seriously overdue (see the 2006 Report); the United Nations Literacy Decade has yet to take off. Basic education increasingly faces competition for funds as governments and aid agencies turn towards sectors more commonly associated with economic growth, such as infrastructure, and towards upper secondary and higher education. Countries currently or recently in conflict have no data and so tend not to be included in this Report’s analysis, but their EFA situation is unlikely to be improving. Creating education opportunities for children living in conflict and post-conflict situations should be a very high priority.

3. Emphasizing equity and inclusion. Despite progress, most disadvantaged children do not benefit from ECCE and far too many primary school age children are still out of school. It is more challenging and costly to compensate for disadvantage as children get older than to institute preventive measures and support early in life. A disaggregated approach is needed, focusing on particular regions and population groups within countries. In too many countries, direct and indirect household costs, including the need to have children work to supplement household income, and the payment of fees at ECCE and primary level, remain a major obstacle to poor children’s early access and continued participation. For effective inclusion, which must start when children are young, there is a need also to promote the mother tongue as the initial language of instruction, to establish gender equality in staff-pupil interactions and learning materials, to ensure that children from diverse backgrounds are treated equally, to accommodate children living with disabilities, to adjust the school year to the agricultural calendar as appropriate, and to have schools and adult programmes close to where people live.
4. Increasing public spending and focusing it better. Many governments are not spending enough public funds on good-quality basic education, and certainly not enough on literacy and ECCE. There is a need to focus financial resources on key requirements for achieving EFA, such as increasing the supply of teachers, providing incentives to teach in rural areas, implementing policies of inclusion and expanding adult literacy and ECCE. A clear – and sustained – focus on basic education is essential to offset the increasing pressures for spending on other levels of education.

5. Augmenting international aid and allocating it where it is most needed. Both actual and The fastest progress is being made in the countries furthest from universal primary education.

PART IV. Setting priorities
The EFA Development Index (EDI) increased from 2003 to 2004 in seventy-five countries. Pre-primary enrolment increased sharply, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa, the Caribbean, and South and West Asia. Slightly more than half the world’s countries have at least one formal ECCE programme for children under 3. About 80% of developing countries have some form of legally established maternity leave, although enforcement varies. Enrolment ratios increased considerably, especially in the regions farthest from the goals (sub-Saharan Africa, and South and West Asia). Grade 1 enrolment rose sharply, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa, and South and West Asia. The number of children out of school declined. About two-thirds of countries have achieved parity in primary education. 94 girls per 100 boys are now enrolled in primary education, compared with 92 in 1999. Pupil/teacher ratios improved slightly in every region except South and West Asia. Developing countries’ commitment to monitoring quality is rising, as evidenced by the expanding number of national learning assessments and increased participation in international and regional assessments. Adult and youth literacy rates have improved in all regions since 1990, but very little in the past few years. The absolute number of youth illiterates declined except in sub-Saharan Africa. Public spending on education increased as a share of GNP in about two-thirds of the countries with data. Increasing numbers of countries have reduced primary school fees and other household costs. Aid rose by 85% in real terms from 2000 to 2004 (but following a decline before 2000). Aid to basic education in low-income countries more than doubled in real terms, to US$3.4 billion, in the same period. Donor pledges will likely increase this to
US$5.4 billion by 2010.
The EDI fell in forty countries. The lack of data for a significant number of countries, particularly those recently or currently in conflict, makes it difficult to paint the full global picture (it is unlikely that the EFA situation is improving in most conflict or post-conflict countries).

Despite progress, millions of children still do not have access to the basic immunization, clean water, adequate food and early stimulation they need for survival, growth and development.

Coverage for both under-3s and pre-primary remains considerably lower for developing countries than for developed ones.

Regional differences on pre-primary are striking, e.g. relatively high coverage in Latin America and the Caribbean, very low in sub-Saharan Africa and the Arab States.

Nearly half of all countries have no formal ECCE programmes for under-3s.

Variation within countries reveals large disparities in access to ECCE between rich and poor and between urban and rural. Those least likely to be enrolled are the poor, rural and/or disadvantaged – those who would benefit the most from ECCE.

ECCE data collection is generally inadequate to monitor progress fully in developing countries.

Despite progress, too many children are still out of school. The most marginalized are difficult to enrol and retain.

Attendance remains below enrolment.

School retention and completion is still too low in many countries.

The 2005 target date for primary and secondary parity was missed.

Disparities at the expense of girls remain significant at primary level in many countries, often those with the lowest enrolment ratios.

Only one-third of countries have achieved parity in secondary education.

Gender equality is still an issue.

Pupil/teacher ratios in primary education remain above 40:1 in twenty-eight countries.

There are too few teachers to meet UPE goal and improve pupil/teacher ratios, especially in sub-Saharan Africa.

High proportions of teachers are untrained and unqualified.

Teacher absenteeism remains a serious problem.

New analyses of international learning assessments confirm...
that students from poor households perform worse than others.
Adult literacy rates remain below 70% in South and West Asia, sub-Saharan Africa, the Arab States and the Caribbean. 781 million adults, two-thirds of them women, are not literate. At the current pace of improvement, the number of adults without minimal literacy skills will decrease by only 100 million by 2015.
The literate environment receives relatively little attention. Too few countries are initiating direct assessments of literacy. The share of public spending on education in GNP declined in forty-one countries, particularly in Latin America and in South and West Asia.
Too many countries still charge fees. Aid to basic education in low-income countries falls far short of the estimated US$11 billion per year needed now to achieve EFA (even if 2010 pledges are realized). Most aid is still not sufficiently long term or predictable.
Table 9.1: EFA progress since Dakar
EFA as a whole
Early childhood care and education
Universal primary education
Gender
Quality
Literacy
Education finance
International aid to education (constant 2003 prices)
Commitments Encouraging Worrying
pledged levels of aid for basic education are increasing, but they remain insufficient, given the urgency of achieving EFA. Aid to basic education in low-income countries must at least double; it must include aid for literacy and ECCE; it must be more predictable over a longer term; and it must be reallocated towards those countries most in need. If the Fast Track Initiative is to become a key vehicle for this endeavour, it also needs to receive much more funding, to deliver more predictable aid flows over a longer period and to broaden its focus beyond primary education to include all six EFA goals.

6. Moving ECCE up domestic and international agendas, stressing a holistic approach.
ECCE requires high-level political support for early childhood policies and programmes in countries, and technical support internationally. Given ECCE’s complexity, and its unique role in providing the individual child with strong foundations for life and learning, it is important to (a) develop a national policy framework with goals, regulations, monitoring of quality and funding commitments that span the full range of provision for children from birth to age 8; and (b) clearly designate a lead ministry or agency for ECCE that works with all related sectors. ECCE must encompass policies and programmes for children under 3, including support to parents, as well as for pre-schoolers. Although there is no one model of ECCE provision, programmes that combine nutrition, health, care and education are more effective in improving young children’s current welfare and their future development than those confined to one aspect. Inclusive programmes need to build on traditional child care practices, respect children’s linguistic and cultural diversity, and mainstream children with special educational needs and disabilities. The private sector plays an
important role in the delivery of ECCE in many countries; the public sector must therefore both regulate it and develop effective partnerships with it, to safeguard against inequities in access and quality.

7. Increasing public finance for ECCE and targeting it. Although a national ECCE policy should encompass all young children, it may be appropriate initially, given resource scarcities, to target public resources to vulnerable and disadvantaged children.

To secure both domestic and international resources, and to raise the overall profile of ECCE, it is essential to include it in key documents for public resource allocation and for attracting aid, such as national budgets, sector plans and Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers. Other donors need to follow UNICEF’s lead and prioritize early childhood issues.

8. Upgrading the ECCE workforce, especially as regards qualifications, training and working conditions. Since all the evidence demonstrates that the quality of child-staff interaction is the single most critical element in determining the quality of ECCE, nothing is more important than attracting and retaining sufficient numbers of trained and motivated staff. It is essential to overcome the common tendency to undervalue ECCE staff in terms of pay and in providing appropriate training. Quality standards are needed for all the different types of ECCE personnel. In addition, to be effective staff need reasonable working conditions as regards factors such as child/staff ratios, group sizes and the adequacy of materials.

9. Improving the monitoring of ECCE. As this Report shows, it is not easy to monitor progress towards the ECCE goal, especially as it relates to under-3s, given current data availability. Box 9.1 suggests options for improving data collection and provides a possible agenda for governments, the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) and the international community.

The considerable progress made towards EFA
since Dakar provides a measure of just how much can be accomplished when countries and the international community join forces for concerted action. Yet EFA requires a more comprehensive approach and more sustained efforts. We must not let interest and momentum flag. EFA means education for all, not just education for some. It means all six goals, not just those related to primary school. It means paying particular attention to the early years, when effective steps to offset disadvantage can be taken at lowest cost and when strong foundations are most easily laid. Finally, it means staying the course. Failing the youngest generation today not only violates their rights, it also sows the seeds of deeper poverty and inequalities tomorrow. The challenges are clear, the agenda too. The time for action is now.

ECCE requires high-level political support for early childhood policies and programmes in countries, and technical support internationally.

PART IV. Setting priorities
Major efforts are needed by national and international agencies to expand and improve systematic information related to the following dimensions of ECCE:

**Basic health and nutrition data**

Statistics on food intake, nutrition levels, stunting and survival rates for young children are regularly collected by the WHO, the UN Population Division, UNAIDS and UNICEF. The quality and geographic coverage of such indicators are, on the whole, quite good. Donors could provide technical and financial assistance to strengthen capacity in countries needing additional support to collect such information. Reporting basic health and survival data by subnational administrative level and by household characteristics would improve their policy relevance.

**ECCE programmes for infants and toddlers**

In many countries, data are unavailable on ECCE programmes (day care, crèches, nurseries, as well as nutrition and health oriented programmes). For children under 3, little is known about the organized care provided by public and private agencies and organizations. Statistics on participation in such programmes have been collected, on an ad hoc basis, in an increasing number of developing countries through household surveys such as UNICEF’s Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys and the USAID-funded Demographic and Health Surveys. Understanding differences in access to ECCE programmes among young children, especially those from disadvantaged and vulnerable backgrounds, is critical. Such surveys can complement administrative data, the collection of which needs to be improved.

The UIS, in cooperation with other agencies, could expand the scope of its comparatively recent programme of data gathering on children under 3, which was initiated for the pre-Dakar EFA 2000 assessment exercise. Doing so will require continued and sustained exchanges with the national authorities concerned, with a view to improving the coverage and comparability of data, including more emphasis on all ECCE programmes, not just pre-primary education.

**Pre-primary education**

Pre-primary education data compiled by the UIS, the OECD and Eurostat for the relevant regional groupings form the most complete set of worldwide information on the education component of ECCE. Given the considerable cross-national variations in pre-primary education, it would
be useful to publish enrolment data for specific age brackets on a regular basis. Some categories of administrative data on the education component that may be too difficult or costly to collect annually could be made available less frequently, for instance every three or five years. Children’s background characteristics, detailed by residence, administrative subdivision, duration and content of pre-primary programmes, could also usefully be provided periodically. Such data could be collected jointly by the UIS and the International Bureau of Education (IBE), as has been done in the past.

Staff
In addition to existing data on pre-primary teachers, more information is needed on the type, characteristics, employment, professional status and deployment of all categories of staff who work with young children. These data are necessary to develop policies to recruit and deploy the human resources necessary for expanding and improving opportunities for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children.

Quality
The need for, and usefulness of, standardized comparative data on ECCE programme quality is controversial. Yet cross-national indicators of structural quality could very usefully be compiled (e.g. teacher/pupil ratios, teachers’ qualifications, expenditure and programme standards). While caution clearly is needed in interpreting and drawing conclusions from information from such a variety of contexts, it is important to recognize that a profile of quality is much more reliable than individual indicators. Once national quality assessments have been made, evidence of improvement over time should be reported to international monitoring bodies, using nationally defined baseline measures.

Expenditure
Data on expenditure on pre-primary education are more scant than at other levels of education and are often limited to public expenditure. Cross-national data on expenditure on ECCE programmes other than pre-primary education are almost nonexistent, as are data on household spending for ECCE and on international aid for ECCE; steps need to be taken to collect all these types of data. Efforts to assess the costs of ECCE programmes are under way in various countries, mostly on an experimental basis. International organizations could build on these national case studies to guide countries in producing comparable cost information.
Qualitative data can supplement the picture of ECCE provision obtained from quantitative indicators. They should ideally include information about public policies on early childhood, the types and availability of ECCE programmes, needs assessments by parents and ECCE staff, and programme outcomes. Such data, while difficult to gather, process and summarize, can be collected through sample surveys jointly undertaken by national, regional and/or international institutions. The development of relatively standard categories and common methodologies is important to improve the availability and quality of such data.

Box 9.1: Augmenting and improving data on ECCE
© REUTERS
A child hard at work in Harbin, China, at a school mainly for children of migrant workers.
Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2 0 0 7
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The Education for All Development Index
Introduction

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While each of the six EFA goals is individually important, it is also useful to have a means of indicating progress towards EFA as a whole. The EFA Development Index (EDI), a composite of relevant indicators, provides one way of doing so, at least for the four most easily quantifiable EFA goals: universal primary education (UPE), adult literacy, gender parity and the quality of education.

The two goals not yet included in the EDI are goals 1 and 3. Neither has a quantitative target for 2015. Goal 1 (early childhood care and education) is multidimensional and covers both the care and education aspects. The indicators currently available on this goal cannot easily be incorporated in the EDI because national data are insufficiently standardized and reliable, and comparable data are not available for most countries (see Chapter 6). Goal 3 (learning needs of youth and adults) has not yet been sufficiently defined for quantitative measurement (see Chapter 2).

In accordance with the principle of considering each goal to be equally important, one indicator is used as a proxy measure for each of the four EDI components, and each component is assigned equal weight in the overall index. The EDI value for a particular country is thus the arithmetic mean of the observed values for each component. Since the components are all expressed as percentages, the EDI value can vary from 0 to 100% or, when expressed as a ratio, from 0 to 1. The closer a country’s EDI value is to the maximum, the greater the extent of its overall EFA achievement and the nearer the country is to the EFA goal as a whole.

Choice of indicators as proxy measures of EDI components

In selecting indicators, relevance has to be balanced with data availability.
Universal primary education
The UPE goal implies both universal access to and universal completion of primary education. However, while both access and participation at this level are relatively easy to measure, there is a lack of consensus on the definition of primary school completion. Therefore, the indicator selected to measure UPE achievement (goal 2) in the EDI is the total primary net enrolment ratio (NER), which reflects the percentage of primary school age children who are enrolled in either primary or secondary school. Its value varies from 0 to 100%. A NER of 100% means all eligible children are enrolled in school in a given school year, although not all of them will necessarily complete it.
Adult literacy
The adult literacy rate is used as a proxy to measure progress towards the first part of goal 4.2 This has its limitations. First, the adult literacy indicator, being a statement about the stock of human capital, is slow to change, and thus it could be argued that it is not a good ‘leading indicator’ of year-by-year progress. Second, the existing data on literacy are not entirely satisfactory. Most of them are based on ‘conventional’ non-tested methods that usually overestimate the level of literacy among individuals. New methodologies, based on tests and on the definition of literacy as a continuum of skills, are being developed and applied in some countries to improve the quality of literacy data. Providing a new data series of good quality for even a majority of countries will take many years, however. The literacy rates now used are the best currently available internationally.
Quality of education
Measures of students’ learning outcomes are widely used as a proxy for the quality of education, particularly among countries at similar levels of The Education for All Development Index
1. The EDI’s gender component is itself a composite index.
2. ‘Achieving a 50 per cent improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015,'
especially for women’. To enable progress towards this target to be monitored for all countries, whatever their current adult literacy level, it was decided as of the 2006 EFA Global Monitoring Report to interpret it in terms of a reduction in the adult illiteracy rate.

3. In most countries, particularly developing countries, current literacy data are derived from methods of selfdeclaration or third-party reporting (e.g. a household head responding on behalf of other household members) used in censuses or household surveys. In other cases they are based on education attainment proxies. Neither method is based on any test, and both are subject to bias (overestimation of literacy), which affects the quality and accuracy of literacy data.
Inroduction

Development. They are incomplete, as they do not include values, capacities and other non-cognitive skills that are also important aims of education, beyond cognitive skills (UNESCO, 2004a: pp. 43-4). They also tell nothing about the cognitive value added by schooling (as opposed to home background), or the distribution of ability among children enrolled in school.4 Despite these drawbacks, learning outcomes would likely be the most appropriate single proxy for the average quality of education, but as comparable data are not yet available for a large number of countries, it is not yet possible to use them in the EDI. Among the feasible proxy indicators available for a large number of countries, the survival rate to grade 5 was selected as being the best available for the quality of education component of the EDI.5 Figure 1 shows that there is a clear positive link between such survival rates and educational achievement in sub-Saharan African countries participating in the Southern and Eastern African Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ II) assessment. The coefficient of determination is around 33%. Education systems capable of retaining a larger proportion of their pupils to grade 5 perform better, on average, on international tests. The survival rate to grade 5 is associated even more strongly with learning outcomes in lower secondary school. Figure 2 shows that the variation in one variable explains 42% of the variation in the other one in the results of the third Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) and up to 77% in the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) study. Another possible proxy indicator for quality is the pupil/teacher ratio (PTR). Among SACMEQ II countries, the proportion of variation in learning outcomes explained by the PTR is 36%, which is slightly higher than that explained by survival rates to grade 5 (33%). Many other studies, however, produce much more ambiguous evidence of the relationship between the PTR and learning.
outcomes (UNESCO, 2004). In a multivariate context, PTRs are associated with higher learning outcomes in some studies, but not in many others. In addition, the relationship seems to vary by the level of mean test scores. For low levels of test scores, a decrease in pupils per teacher has a positive impact on learning outcomes, but for higher levels of test scores, additional teachers have only limited impact. For these reasons, the survival rate was chosen as a safer proxy for learning outcomes and hence for education quality.6

Figure 1: Survival rate to grade 5 and learning outcomes at primary level
Sources: UNESCO Institute for Statistics calculation, based on SACMEQ II database; annex, Statistical Table 7.

0 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 45
40
50
60
70
80
90
100

Sixth-grade students reaching desirable mastery levels of reading literacy (%)
Countries participating in SACMEQ II, 2000

Survival rate to grade 5 (%)
Namibia
Mauritius
Seychelles
Botswana
South Africa
Kenya
Uganda
Zambia
Lesotho
Malawi
Swaziland U. R. Tanzania
Mozambique

\[ y = 0.8486x + 64.387 \]
\[ R^2 = 0.3287 \]

4. Strictly speaking, it would be necessary to compare average levels of cognitive achievement for pupils completing a given school grade across countries with similar
levels and distributions of income and with similar levels of NER, so as to account for home background and ability cohort effects.


6. Another reason is that survival rates, like the other EDI components, but unlike PTRs, range from 0% to 100%. Therefore, the use of the survival rate to grade 5 in the EDI avoids a need to rescale the data.
Gender

The fourth EDI component is measured by a composite index, the gender-specific EFA index (GEI). Ideally, the GEI should reflect the whole gender-related EFA goal, which calls for ‘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’. There are thus two subgoals: gender parity (achieving equal participation of girls and boys in primary and secondary education) and gender equality (ensuring that educational equality exists between boys and girls).

The first subgoal is measured by the gender parity indexes (GPIs) for the gross enrolment ratios (GERs) at primary and secondary levels.

Measuring and monitoring the broader aspects of equality in education is difficult, as the 2003/4 Report demonstrated (UNESCO, 2003a). Essentially, outcome measures, disaggregated by sex, are needed for a range of educational levels. No such measures are available on an internationally comparable basis. As a step in that direction, however, the GEI includes gender parity for adult literacy. Thus, the GEI is calculated as a simple average of three GPIs: for the GER in primary education, for the GER in secondary education and for the adult literacy rate. This means the GEI does not fully reflect the equality aspect of the EFA gender goal.

The GPI, when expressed as the ratio of females to males in enrolment ratios or the literacy rate, can exceed unity when more girls/women are enrolled or literate than boys/men. For the purposes of the index, the F/M formula is inverted to M/F in cases where the GPI is higher than 1. This solves mathematically the problem of including the GEI in the EDI (where all components have a theoretical limit of 1, or 100%) while maintaining the GEI’s ability to show gender
disparity. Figure 3 shows how ‘transformed GPIs’ are arrived at to highlight gender disparities that disadvantage males. Once all three GPI values have been calculated and converted into ‘transformed GPIs’ (from 0 to 1) where needed, the composite GEI is obtained by calculating a simple average of the three GPIs, with each being weighted equally.

Figure 2: Survival rate to grade 5 and learning outcomes at lower secondary level
Sources: Mullis et al. (2004); annex, Statistical Table 7.

Figure 2 (continued)
Sources: OECD (2004); annex, Statistical Table 7.

% of 15-years-old students performing below level 1 in reading literacy
Countries participating in PISA, 2003
Survival rate to grade 5 (%)
y = \text{-0.452}x + 101.47
R^2 = 0.7662

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>y</th>
<th>0 20 40 60 80 100</th>
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<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>40 60 80 100</td>
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Eighth-grade students performing below level 1 in mathematics literacy (%)
Countries participating in TIMSS, 2003
Survival rate to grade 5 (%)
y = \text{-0.1975}x + 100.9
R^2 = 0.4207
Inroduction

Figure 4 illustrates the calculation for the Philippines, using data for the school year ending in 2004. The GPIs in primary education, secondary education and adult literacy were 0.985, 1.108 and 1.00, respectively, resulting in a GEI of 0.963:

\[
\text{GEI} = \frac{1}{3} \text{ (primary GPI)} + \frac{1}{3} \text{ (transformed secondary GPI)} + \frac{1}{3} \text{ (adult literacy GPI)}
\]

\[
\text{GEI} = \frac{1}{3} (0.985) + \frac{1}{3} (0.903) + \frac{1}{3} (1.00) = 0.963
\]

Calculating the EDI

The EDI is the arithmetic mean of its four components – total primary NER, adult literacy rate, GEI and survival rate to grade 5. As a simple average, the EDI may mask important variations among its components: for example, results for goals on which a country has made less progress can offset its advances on others. Since all the EFA goals are equally important, a synthetic indicator such as the EDI is thus very useful to inform the policy debate on the prominence of all the EFA goals and to highlight the synergy among them.

Figure 5 illustrates the calculation of the EDI, again using the Philippines as an example. The total primary NER, adult literacy rate, value of the GEI and survival rate to grade 5 in 2004 were 0.944, 0.926, 0.963 and 0.753, respectively, resulting in an EDI of 0.897:

\[
\text{EDI} = \frac{1}{4} \text{ (total primary NER)} + \frac{1}{4} \text{ (adult literacy rate)} + \frac{1}{4} \text{ (GEI)} + \frac{1}{4} \text{ (survival rate to Grade 5)}
\]

\[
\text{EDI} = \frac{1}{4} (0.944) + \frac{1}{4} (0.926) + \frac{1}{4} (0.963) + \frac{1}{4} (0.753) = 0.897
\]

Data sources and country coverage

All data used to calculate the EDI for the school year ending in 2004 are from the statistical tables in this annex and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) database, with one exception. Adult literacy data for some OECD countries that did not answer the UIS literacy survey are based on the results of the 2004 European Labour Force Survey. Only the 125 countries with a complete set of the indicators required to calculate the EDI are included in this analysis. Many countries are thus not included in...
the EDI. This fact, coupled with the exclusion of goal 1 and 3, means the EDI does not yet provide a fully comprehensive global overview of overall progress towards the EFA goals.

GPI (F/M) Transformed GPI (M/F)

1.20
1.00
0.800
0.600
0.400
0.200
0.00
1.11
0.90

Example used: Philippines

Figure 3: Calculating the ‘transformed’ secondary education GPI

0.963

Example used: Philippines

0.903

1.00

(F/M) (F/M) (F/M)

Figure 4: Calculating the GEI

Components

0.944 0.926

Adult literacy rate

GEI

Total primary NER

Survival rate to grade 5
0.963
0.753
0.800
0.600
0.400
0.200
0.00
1.00
0.897
EDI
Example used: Philippines
Figure 5: Calculating the EDI
Table 1: The EFA Development Index and its components, 2004

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Malaysia
Mongolia

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Panama
Republic of Moldova
Peru
Ecuador
Bolivia
Viet Nam
Paraguay2, 3
Brazil
Syrian Arab Republic
Tunisia
Philippines
Jamaica
Turkey
South Africa
Egypt
Botswana
Algeria
Oman
Bahamas
Colombia
Cape Verde
Iran, Islamic Republic of
El Salvador
Myanmar
Namibia
United Arab Emirates
Zimbabwe
Zambia
Swaziland
Guatemala
Dominican Republic
Nicaragua
Saudi Arabia
Lesotho
Kenya
India
Cambodia
Morocco
Lao PDR
Mauritania
Bangladesh
Nigeria
Malawi
Equatorial Guinea
Rwanda
Togo
Ghana
Nepal
Djibouti
Senegal
Burundi
Eritrea
Yemen
Ethiopia
Benin
Mozambique
Guinea
Mali
Burkina Faso
Niger
Chad

Ranking according to level of EDI Countries/Territories EDI

Total
primary NER1
Adult literacy rate
Gender-specific
EFA index (GEI)
Survival rate
to grade 5
Medium EDI
64
65
66
67
68
69
70
71
72
73
74
75
76
77
78
79
80
81
82
83
84
85
86
87
88
89
90
Note: Data in blue indicate that gender disparities are at the expense of boys or men, particularly at secondary level.

1. Total primary NER includes children of primary school age who are enrolled in either primary or secondary schools.
2. The adult literacy rate is a proxy measure based on
educational attainment; that is, the proportion of the adult population with at least a complete primary education.

3. The NER in primary education is not published in the statistical tables as the reported number of pupils of official primary school age is believed to be underestimated. However, in order to calculate the EDI, an estimate of the total primary NER has been made. For more details, see the introduction to the statistical tables.

4. Adult literacy rates are unofficial UIS estimates generated in July 2002, using the previous UIS assessment model.

Table 2: Countries ranked according to value of EDI and components, 2004

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Albania
China
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Bahrain
Ukraine
Netherlands Antilles
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Republic of Moldova
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Viet Nam
Paraguay2, 3
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Tunisia
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Turkey
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Oman
Bahamas4
Colombia
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Iran, Isl. Rep.
El Salvador
Myanmar
Namibia
U. A. Emirates4
Zimbabwe4
Zambia
Swaziland
Guatemala
Dominican Republic
Nicaragua
Saudi Arabia
Low EDI
Lesotho
Kenya
India
Cambodia
Morocco
Lao PDR
Mauritania
Bangladesh
Nigeria4
Malawi
Equatorial Guinea
Rwanda
Togo
Ghana
Nepal
Djibouti4
Senegal
Burundi
1. Total primary NER includes children of primary school age who are enrolled in either primary or secondary schools.
2. The adult literacy rate is a proxy measure based on educational attainment, that is, the proportion of the adult population with at least complete primary education.
3. The NER in primary education is not published in the statistical tables as the reported number of pupils of official primary school age is believed to be underestimated. However, in order to calculate the EDI, an estimate of the total primary NER has been made. For more details, see the introduction to the statistical tables.
4. Adult literacy rates are unofficial UIS estimates generated in July 2002, using the previous UIS assessment model.

Sources: Annex, Statistical
Tables 2, 5, 7 and 8; UNESCO (2005); UNESCO Institute for Statistics database; European Commission (2004) (for proxy literacy measure for European countries).
Table 3: Change in EDI and its components between 2003 and 2004

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Variation
2003 2004 2003-2004

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Sweden
Republic of Korea
Latvia
Switzerland
Czech Republic, 4
Poland
Estonia
Barbados
Italy
Israel
Slovakia, 4
Hungary
Greece
Ireland
Spain
Trinidad and Tobago
Cyprus
Cuba
Denmark
Armenia
Lithuania
Kyrgyzstan
Croatia
Belarus
Chile
Fiji
Bulgaria
Romania
Seychelles
TFYR Macedonia
Costa Rica
Albania
China
Luxembourg
Bahrain
Ukraine
Netherlands Antilles
Medium EDI
Mexico
Jordan
Argentina
Kuwait
Azerbaijan
Uruguay
Malta
Portugal
Palestinian A. T.
Saint Lucia
Indonesia
Mauritius
Macao, China
Lebanon3
Malaysia
Mongolia
Venezuela
Panama
Republic of Moldova
Tables 2 and 3
Table 3 (continued)

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<td>EFA Development Index Change in the EDI components between 2003 and 2004 (% in relative terms)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total primary NER1</td>
<td>% Adult literacy rate % Gender-specific EFA index (GEI) Survival rate to grade 5</td>
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1. Total primary NER includes children of primary school age who are enrolled in either primary or secondary schools.
2. The adult literacy rate is a proxy measure based on educational attainment, that is,
the proportion of the adult population with at least a complete primary education.

3. Adult literacy rates are unofficial UIS estimates generated in July 2002, using the previous UIS assessment model.

4. The NER in primary education is not published in the statistical tables as the reported number of pupils of official primary school age is believed to be underestimated. However, in order to calculate the EDI, an estimate of the total primary NER has been made. For more details, see the introduction to the statistical tables.

These tables provide an overview of assessment and evaluation activities undertaken by countries in sub-Saharan Africa, the Arab States, Asia, and Latin America and the Caribbean. Such activities aim to provide education stakeholders with systematic information about the status of students’ learning outcomes and the extent to which students attain predefined standards or proficiencies. The scientific reliability and validity of national assessments vary greatly, and thus cross-country comparisons are not warranted. Nevertheless, such learning assessments represent a potentially useful tool to monitor educational quality, address national policy issues and pinpoint areas for government attention and programme intervention.

Information for the tables was compiled from an array of sources (e.g. printed material, websites, experts and contacts through UNESCO regional offices), some of which were partial and/or contradictory. Much effort has been made to verify and cross-check the reported information, but some mistakes are likely. The EFA Global Monitoring Report Team intends to continue to expand and revise this information in the coming years. For a more detailed listing of national learning assessments, see Encinas-Martin (2006).

Abbreviations used in the tables
DFID Department for International Development, United Kingdom
EU European Union
HSRC Human Sciences Research Council
ICFES Instituto Colombiano para el Fomento de la Educación Superior
IDB Inter-American Development Bank
IEA International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement
IEQ Improving Educational Quality
IIIEP International Institute for Educational Planning
ILI International Literacy Institute
INEE Instituto Nacional para la Evaluación de la Educación
Introduction

National learning assessments
by region and country

INPE Instituto Nacional de Estudos e Pesquisas Educacionais Anísio Teixeira
MoE Ministry of Education
(or equivalent national body)
NCERT National Council of Educational Research and Training
NIER National Institute for Educational Policy Research
UNICEF United Nations Children’s Fund
USAID United States Agency for International Development

Introduction
Table 1: Sub-Saharan Africa

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<th>Country</th>
<th>Name or description of assessment study</th>
<th>Organization/institution responsible for assessment</th>
<th>Target population</th>
<th>Curricular subject(s) assessed</th>
<th>Year(s)</th>
<th>Quality of education</th>
<th>Learning Achievement</th>
<th>Sample Baseline on Students</th>
<th>Learning Achievement</th>
<th>National test</th>
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<td>Primary Schools Learner Achievements Level</td>
<td>Reading in English in Primary Schools</td>
<td>2012, 2014</td>
<td>MoE, National Organization for Examinations</td>
<td>MoE, National Organization for Examinations</td>
<td>National test</td>
<td>Evaluation of Implementation of Ghana’s School Language Policy</td>
<td>Primary Schools Learner Achievements Level</td>
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<td>Early Diagnostic Tool for Literacy and Numeracy</td>
<td>MoE, National Organization for Examinations</td>
<td>Universal Basic Education Programme</td>
<td>Assessment of Learning Achievement</td>
<td>Monitoring Education Quality Learner Assessment Results</td>
<td>Systemic Evaluation Study</td>
<td>Reading Levels and Bilingual Literacy in Primary Schools</td>
<td>Literacy Development through a Local Language in a Multilingual Setting</td>
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Census
DFID
DFID
DFID
USAID and IEQ
Mauritius Examinations Syndicate and Mauritius Institute of Education
Universal Basic Education Commission
MoE
HSRC
HSRC, District Development Support Programme and USAID
MoE and HSRC
DFID
Association for the Development of Education in Africa
Eritrea
Ethiopia
Gambia
Ghana
Malawi
Mauritius
Nigeria
South Africa
Zambia
French, mathematics
Languages, mathematics
English, mathematics, environmental science, chemistry, biology
English, French, mathematics (variable)
Languages
Chicewa, English, mathematics
English, mother tongue
English
English, local languages
Literacy skills
Literacy, numeracy
English, mathematics, sciences, social sciences
English, mathematics, social studies, integrated sciences
English, mathematics, sciences
Reading
Language, mathematics, sciences
English, local languages
Reading, writing
Grades 4, 5
Grades 1, 4
Grades 4, 8
Grades 2, 4, 6
Grades 1 to 4
Grades 3, 5, 7
4 years of schooling
Grades 3, 4, 6
Grades 3, 4, 5, 6
Grades 2, 3, 4
All levels of primary school
Grades 1, 6 (primary)
and 1, 3 (secondary)
Junior and senior secondary
Grade 9
Grade 3
Grade 6
Grades 3, 4, 5, 6
Grades 1 to 6
1997
1999
2000, 2004
1997, 1998,
1999, 2000
1999, 2000,
2001
Annually
since 2004
1996, 1997,
1998
1993
1998
1999, 2000
Being
developed
2001
2003
Annually since 1996
2003
2005
1998
1999, 2002
... information not available
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<td>Achievement and Progress</td>
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<td>MoE</td>
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Morocco
Qatar
Saudi Arabia
United Arab Emirates
Arabic, French, mathematics
French, Arabic, mathematics
All school subjects
Arabic, English, mathematics, sciences, social sciences
Languages, mathematics, sciences, transversal competencies/savoir-être
Arabic, French, mathematics
Arabic, French, mathematics, life skills
Arabic, French, mathematics, sciences
Arabic, English, mathematics, sciences
Arabic, mathematics
Literacy, numeracy
Grades 3, 6, 9 (primary) and 1 (secondary)
Primary and lower secondary
Grades 1, 2, 3
Grade 10
Grade 4 + complementary year
Grades 3, 5, 8
Grades 4, 6
Grade 6
Grades 3 to 11
Grades 1, 2, 3
Grades 5, 7
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Annually since 2005
Annually since 2000
(variable)
2000
2001
2006
Annually since 2004
...
2005
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<th>Organization/institution responsible for assessment</th>
<th>Target population</th>
<th>Curricular subject(s) assessed</th>
<th>Year(s)</th>
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<td>National Assessment IDEAL Project</td>
<td>School Based Assessment</td>
<td>Baseline Assessment Survey</td>
<td>Mid-Term Assessment Survey</td>
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<td>Learning Achievement</td>
<td>National Assessment of Learning Outcomes</td>
<td>National Assessment of Student Performance</td>
<td>National Literacy Survey</td>
<td>National test</td>
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<td>Quality of Education (Learning Achievement)</td>
<td>National Assessment of Educational Assessment</td>
<td>Core Research Program</td>
<td>Reading and Mathematics</td>
<td>Assessment Study</td>
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<td>MoE</td>
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<td>MoE</td>
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NIER
MoE and NIER
MoE, UNESCO and UNICEF
MoE
State Professional Assessment Agency
MoE and UNICEF
MoE and National Education Assessment System
Academy of Educational Planning and Management
Korean Institute of Curriculum and Evaluation
Centre for Research in Pedagogy and Practice
MoE and World Bank
Bangladesh
India
Indonesia
Japan
Lao PDR
Mongolia
Myanmar
Pakistan
Republic of Korea
Singapore
Viet Nam
Bangla, English, mathematics, sciences, social sciences
Bangla, mathematics, sciences, social sciences, environmental studies
Bangla, English, mathematics, sciences, social sciences
Range of behaviours, activities and quantitative measures
Language, mathematics, environmental studies (variable)
Language, mathematics
Language, mathematics
Indonesian, English, mathematics
Japanese, English,
mathematics, sciences,
social studies, geography,
history, civics
Japanese, mathematics
Reading, writing, numeracy,
visual literacy
Language, mathematics
Languages, mathematics,
history, physics, chemistry,
biology (variable)
Myanmar language,
mathematics, sciences
Languages, mathematics,
sciences, social studies
Sindhi, Urdu, mathematics
Korean, English,
mathematics, sciences,
social studies
Languages, mathematics,
sciences, ICT
Reading, mathematics
Grade 4
Grades 3, 5
Grades 1 to 5
Grade 9
Grades 1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8
(variable)
Grades 1, 3, 4
Grades 1, 3, 4
Grade 3 (primary) and
senior (secondary)
Grades 5, 9, 12
(variable)
Grades 6, 9
Age 6 and above
Grades 5, 9, 11
Grades 5, 9, 11
(variable)
Grades 3, 5
Grades 4, 8 (variable)
Grade 4
Grades 6, 9, 10
Pre-school to
secondary
Grade 5
2000
2001
2004
To be decided
1994, 2002,
2003, 2004
(variable)
1997
2001
Annually
since 2005
2002, 2003,
2004
2007
2000
Annually
since 1997
Every 5/6
years since
1997
2005, 2006
2005, 2006
2000
Annually
since 2003
2003
2001
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<td>APRENDOD</td>
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<td>Dirección General de Educación Bilingüe Intercultural</td>
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MoE
MoE and INEP
INEP
MoE and Universidad Católica
MoE
MoE and ICFES
MoE
MoE and ICFES
MoE and Universidad de Costa Rica
MoE
MoE, Sistema de Evaluación de la Calidad de la Educación and Instituto de Ciencias Pedagógicas
MoE, IDB and World Bank
MoE, World Bank and Univ. Católica
MoE, USAID and World Bank
MoE
MoE, World Bank, and Valle de Guatemala University
MoE, World Bank and Valle de Guatemala University
MoE and IDB
Argentina
Bolivia
Brazil
Chile
Colombia
Costa Rica
Cuba
Dominican Republic
Ecuador
El Salvador
Guatemala
Language, mathematics, sciences, social sciences (variable)
Language, mathematics, sciences, social sciences (variable)
Language, mathematics
Language, mathematics, sciences, social sciences (variable)
Language, problem-solving,
Language, mathematics, sciences, social sciences
Language, mathematics, sciences, social sciences, behaviour, (variable)
Language, mathematics
Language, mathematics, sciences
Languages, mathematics, sciences, social sciences
Language, mathematics, sciences, social sciences
Language, mathematics, sciences, social sciences
Language, mathematics, sciences, social sciences
Language, mathematics, sciences, social sciences
Language, mathematics, sciences, social sciences
Language, mathematics, sciences, social sciences, health education
Language, mathematics, sciences, social sciences
Language, mathematics, sciences, social sciences
Language, mathematics
Grades 3, 7 (primary)
and 2, 5 (secondary)
Grades 3, 6, 7, 9
(primary) and 5, 6
(secondary) (variable)
Grades 1, 3, 6, 8
(primary) and 4
(secondary)
Grades 1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8,
11 (variable)
Last year of primary
Grades 4, 8
Grades 4, 8 (primary)
and 2 (secondary)
(variable)
Grades 3, 5, 7, 9
Grades 3, 5, 7, 9
(variable)
Grade 11
Grades 3, 6, 9, 11, 12
(secondary)
Secondary school
Grades 3, 4, 6, 9, 12
Grades 8 (primary)
and 4 (secondary)
(secondary)
Grades 3, 7, 10
Pre-school, grades 1
to 6, 9 (primary) and 2
(secondary) (variable)
Grades 2, 3
(secondary) and
technical education
Grades 3, 7 (primary)
2, 5 (secondary)
(secondary)
Grades 1, 3, 6
(variable)
Grades 1, 3
Annually
1993 – 2001
Annually
1993 – 2005
Annually
1996 – 2000
1990 – 2005
(secondary)
Annually
1998 – 2005
1982, 1983,
1984
Annually
1988 to 2005
Annually
1991 – 1994
Annually
1997 – 2003
Annually
1980 to 2005
Annually
1986 – 1997
Annually
1988 – 2003
1975, 1996,
Annually
1991 – 2003
Annually
1996 – 2000
Annually
1993 – 2001
Annually
1997 – 2004
Annually
1992 – 1996
1998, 1999,
2000, 2004
2003
Tables 3 and 4
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<th>Country Name or description of assessment study</th>
<th>Organization/institution responsible for assessment</th>
<th>Target population</th>
<th>Curricular subject(s) assessed</th>
<th>Year(s)</th>
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<td>Sistema Nacional de Evaluación Educativa de la Educación Primaria</td>
<td>Estándares Nacionales</td>
<td>Aprovechamiento Escolar – Carrera Magistral</td>
<td>Instrumento para el Diagnóstico de Alumnos de Nuevo Ingreso a Secundaria</td>
<td>Evaluación del Currículo Transformado</td>
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<td>Programa de Pruebas de Diagnóstico</td>
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MoE and IDB
MoE
Administración Nacional de Educación Pública and World Bank
MoE, World Bank, Univ. Católica and Centro Nacional para el Mejoramiento de la Enseñanza en Ciencia
Mexico
Nicaragua
Panama
Paraguay
Peru
Uruguay
Venezuela
Language, mathematics, sciences, social sciences
Language, mathematics
Language, mathematics, sciences, social sciences, foreign languages
Reading, verbal and numerical reasoning
Language, mathematics
Language, mathematics
Language, mathematics
Language, mathematics
Language, mathematics, sciences, social sciences, citizenship (variable)
Language, mathematics, sciences, social sciences, citizenship (variable)
Language, mathematics, sciences, social sciences, behaviour, cognitive and affective development (variable)
Language, mathematics
Grades 3, 4, 5, 6
Grades 2, 4, 5, 6,
Grades 3 to 6 (primary) and 1 to 3
(secondary)
Grade 6
Grade 4, 5 (primary)
and 3 (secondary)
Grades 3, 6
Grades 3, 6 (primary)
and 6 (secondary)
(variable)
Grades 1 to 6
(secondary)
Grades 3, 6, 9
Grades 3, 6, 9, 12
Grades 2, 4, 6
(primary) and 3 to 5
(secondary)
Pre-school and
grades 1 to 4, 6
(primary) (variable)
Grade 6
Annually
1996 – 2000
Annually
1997 – 2004
Annually
1994 – 2005
Annually
1995 – 2005
1996, 1997
2002
1985, 1986,
1987, 1988,
1992
1995
1999, 2000,
2001
Annually
1996 – 2001
1996, 1998,
2001, 2004
1996, 1998,
1999, 2001,
2002
1998
The most recent data on pupils, students, teachers and expenditure presented in these statistical tables are for the school year ending in 2004.1 They are based on survey results reported to and processed by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) before the end of May 2006. Data received after this date will be used in the next EFA Global Monitoring Report. A small number of countries (Ethiopia, Ghana, Mauritius, Myanmar, Nepal, the Republic of Korea, Thailand, Uganda and the United Republic of Tanzania) submitted data for the school year ending in 2005, presented in bold in the statistical tables. These statistics refer to all formal schools, both public and private, by level of education. They are supplemented by demographic and economic statistics collected or produced by other international organizations, including the United Nations Development Programme, the United Nations Population Division (UNPD) and the World Bank.

A total of 203 countries and territories are listed in the statistical tables. Most of them report their data to the UIS using standard questionnaires issued by the Institute. For some countries, however, education data are collected via surveys carried out under the auspices of the World Education Indicators (WEI) project funded by the World Bank, or are provided by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and the Statistical Office of the European Communities (Eurostat).

Population
The indicators on access and participation in the statistical tables were calculated using the 2004 revision of population estimates produced by the UNPD. Because of possible differences between national population estimates and those of the United Nations, these indicators may differ from those published by individual countries or by other organizations.2 The UNPD does not provide data by single year of age for countries with a total population of fewer than 80,000. Where no UNPD estimates exist, national population figures, when
available, or estimates from the UIS were used to calculate enrolment ratios.

ISCED classification

Education data reported to the UIS are in conformity with the 1997 revision of the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED). In some cases, data have been adjusted to comply with the ISCED97 classification. Data for the school year ending in 1991 may conform to the previous version of the classification, ISCED76, and therefore may not be comparable in some countries to those for years after 1997. ISCED is used to harmonize data and introduce more international comparability among national education systems. Countries may have their own definitions of education levels that do not correspond to ISCED. Therefore, some differences between nationally and internationally reported enrolment ratios may be due to the use of nationally defined education levels rather than the ISCED standard, in addition to the population issue raised above.

Adult participation in basic education

ISCED does not classify education programmes by participants’ age. For example, any programme with a content equivalent to primary education, or ISCED 1, may be classed as ISCED 1 even if provided to adults. However, the guidance the UIS provides for respondents to its regular annual education survey asks countries to exclude ‘data on programmes designed for people beyond regular school age’. On the other hand, the guidance for the UIS/OECD/Eurostat (UOE) and WEI questionnaires states that ‘activities classified as “continuing”, “adult” or “non-formal”

Statistical tables

Introduction

1. This means 2003/04 for countries with a school year that overlaps two calendar years, and 2004 for those with a calendar school year.

2. Where obvious inconsistencies exist
between enrolment reported by countries and the United Nations population data, UIS may decide to not calculate or publish the enrolment ratios.
education should be included’ if they ‘involve studies with subject content similar to regular educational programmes’ or if ‘the underlying programmes lead to similar potential qualifications’ as do the regular programmes. As a result of these distinctions, data from WEI countries and those for which statistics are collected via the UOE questionnaires, particularly concerning secondary education, may include programmes for older students. Despite the UIS instructions, data from countries in the regular UIS survey may also include pupils who are substantially above the official age for basic education.

Literacy data
UNESCO has long defined literacy as the ability to read and write, with understanding, a short simple statement related to one’s daily life. In many cases, the current UIS literacy statistics rely on this definition and are largely based on data sources that use a ‘self-declaration’ method: respondents are asked whether they are literate, as opposed to being asked a more comprehensive question or to demonstrate the skill. Some countries assume that children who complete a certain level of education are literate.3 As definitions and methodologies used for data collection differ by country, data need to be used with caution.

Literacy data in this report cover adults of 15 years and over as well as youth of 15–24 years. They refer to 1990, 2000–2004 and 2015: 1) 1990 data represent UIS estimates used in earlier EFA reports, rebased to the 2004 UN population revision. The UIS estimation methodology can be reviewed at the UIS website (www.uis.unesco.org). 2) 2000–2004 data are from the UIS May 2006 data release, which uses directly reported national data together with UIS estimates. National literacy estimates are published in the statistical tables when available. They are obtained from national censuses or surveys taken between
1995 and 2004. The reference year and literacy definition for each country are presented after this introduction. Figures dated before 2000 will be replaced as soon as the UIS gets more recent national estimates. For countries that did not report literacy data for the most recent year available during the 2000–2004 reference period, the tables publish UIS estimates for 2005 that are based on national data collected before 1995. All literacy figures are rebased to the 2004 UN population revision.

3) Projections to 2015 were produced using empirical information on national literate/illiterate populations provided by countries. For a description of the projection methodology, see p. 261 of the 2006 EFA Global Monitoring Report.

In many countries, interest in assessing the literacy skills of the population is growing. In response to this need, the UIS is developing a new methodology and data collection instrument called the Literacy Assessment and Monitoring Programme (LAMP). Following the example of the International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS), LAMP is based on actual, functional assessment of literacy skills. It aims to provide literacy data of higher quality and is based on the concept of a continuum of literacy skills rather than the common literate/illiterate dichotomy.

Estimates and missing data

Both actual and estimated data are presented throughout the statistical tables. When data are not reported to the UIS using the standard questionnaires, estimates are often necessary. Wherever possible, the UIS encourages countries to make their own estimates, which are presented as national estimates. Where this does not happen, the UIS may make its own estimates if sufficient supplementary information is available. Gaps in the tables may also arise where data submitted by a country are found to be inconsistent. The UIS makes every attempt to resolve such problems with the countries concerned, but reserves the final decision to omit data it regards as problematic.

To fill the gaps in the statistical tables, data
for previous school years were included when information for the school year ending in 2004 was not available. Such cases are indicated by a footnote.

3. For reliability and consistency reasons, the UIS has decided no longer to publish literacy data based on educational attainment proxies. Only data reported by countries based on the ‘self-declaration’ methods and ‘household declaration’ are included in the statistical tables.

4. For countries where the number of pupils of official primary school age is believed to be underestimated in the data reported to the UIS (Austria, Chile, Costa Rica, the Czech Republic, Germany, Latvia, Paraguay, Slovakia and Uruguay), the net enrolment ratio (NER) is not published. Nevertheless, in order to calculate the Education for All Development Index (EDI) for these countries, estimates of total primary NER were made. They were based on the national single-year enrolment ratios derived from data the countries reported, assuming that the enrolment ratios in the first year in the official age group were equal to those in the second year in the official age group. In a few cases where the national
single-year enrolment ratios were not coherent, an alternative estimate was made, based on the estimated effects of the undercounting of pupils in the official age group for primary education.
DATA PROCESSING TIMETABLE

The timetable for collection and publication of data used in this report was as follows.

June 2004 (or December 2004 for some countries with a calendar school year): the final school year in the data collection period ended.

November 2004 and May 2005: questionnaires were sent to countries whose data are collected directly either by the UIS or through the WEI and UOE questionnaires, with data submission deadlines of 31 March 2005, 1 August 2005 and 30 September 2005, respectively.

June 2005: after sending reminders by e-mail, fax and post, the UIS began to process data and calculate indicators.

December 2005: provisional statistical tables were produced and draft indicators sent to member states.

February 2006: the first draft of statistical tables were produced for the EFA Global Monitoring Report.

April 2006: the final statistical tables were sent to the EFA Global Monitoring Report team.

REGIONAL AVERAGES

Regional figures for literacy rates, gross intake rates, gross and net enrolment ratios, and school life expectancy are weighted averages, taking into account the relative size of the relevant population of each country in each region. The averages are derived from both published data and broad estimates for countries for which no reliable publishable data are available.

The figures for the countries with larger populations thus have a proportionately greater influence on the regional aggregates. Where not enough reliable data are available to produce an overall weighted mean, a median figure is calculated for countries with available data only.

CAPPED FIGURES

There are cases where an indicator theoretically should not exceed 100 (the NER, for example), but data inconsistencies may have resulted nonetheless in the indicator exceeding the
theoretical limit. In these cases the indicator is ‘capped’ at 100 but the gender balance is maintained: the higher value, whether for male or female, is set equal to 100 and the other two values – the lower of male or female plus the figure for both sexes – are then recalculated so that the gender parity index for the capped figures is the same as that for the uncapped figures.

Footnotes to the tables, along with the glossary following the statistical tables, provide additional help in interpreting the data and information.

In this Report, two statistical tables that were included last year are not presented: one on literate environments (which has not changed significantly from what was published in the 2006 EFA Global Monitoring Report) and one on the distribution of tertiary-level students by field of study. These tables will be published in future Reports as appropriate.

Symbols used in the statistical tables
* National estimate
** UIS estimate
… Missing data
— Magnitude nil or negligible
. Category not applicable
/. Data included under another category
O Countries whose education data are collected through UOE questionnaires
W WEI project countries
I n t rod u ct ion
Composition of regions
World classification
Countries in transition (12):
Countries of the Commonwealth of Independent States, including 4 in Central and Eastern Europe (Belarus, Republic of Moldova, Russian Federation, Ukraine) and the countries of Central Asia (minus Mongolia).
Developed countries (43):
North America and Western Europe (minus Cyprus and Israel); Central and Eastern Europe (minus Belarus, Republic of Moldova, Russian Federation, Turkey and Ukraine); Australia, Bermuda, Japan and New Zealand.
Developing countries (148):
Arab States; East Asia and the Pacific (minus Australia, Japan and New Zealand); Latin America and the Caribbean (minus Bermuda); South and West Asia; sub-Saharan Africa; Cyprus, Israel, Mongolia and Turkey.
EFA regions
Arab States (20 countries/territories)
Algeria, Bahrain, Djibouti, Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Mauritania, Morocco, Oman, Palestinian Autonomous Territories, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Sudan, Syrian Arab Republic, Tunisia, United Arab Emirates, Yemen.
Central and Eastern Europe (20 countries)
Albania, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Serbia and Montenegro, Slovakia, Slovenia, The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Turkey, Ukraine.
Central Asia (9 countries)
Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Mongolia, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan.
East Asia and the Pacific
(33 countries/territories)
Australia, Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia,
Chinaw, Cook Islands, Democratic People’s Republic of Korea, Fiji, Indonesiaw, Japano, Kiribati, Lao People’s Democratic Republic, Macao (China), Malaysiaw, Marshall Islands, Micronesia (Federated States of), Myanmar, Nauru, New Zealando, Niue, Palau, Papua New Guinea, Philippinesw, Republic of Koreao, Samoa, Singapore, Solomon Islands, Thailandw, Timor-Leste, Tokelau, Tonga, Tuvalu, Vanuatu, Viet Nam.
East Asia (15 countries/territories)
Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Chinaw, Democratic People’s Republic of Korea, Indonesiaw, Japano, Lao People’s Democratic Republic, Macao (China), Malaysiaw, Myanmar, Philippinesw, Republic of Koreao, Singapore, Thailandw, Viet Nam.
Pacific (18 countries/territories)
Australia, Cook Islands, Fiji, Kiribati,
Marshall Islands, Micronesia (Federated States of), Nauru, New Zealand, Niue, Palau,
Papua New Guinea, Samoa, Solomon Islands,
Timor-Leste, Tokelau, Tonga, Tuvalu, Vanuatu.

Latin America and the Caribbean
(41 countries/territories)
Anguilla, Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina,
Aruba, Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Bermuda,
Bolivia, Brazil, British Virgin Islands, Cayman Islands, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba,
Dominica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador,
El Salvador, Grenada, Guatemala, Guyana,
Haiti, Honduras, Jamaica, Mexico, Montserrat,
Netherlands Antilles, Nicaragua, Panama,
Paraguay, Peru, Saint Kitts and Nevis,
Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines,
Suriname, Trinidad and Tobago, Turks and Caicos Islands, Uruguay, Venezuela.

Caribbean (22 countries/territories)
Anguilla, Antigua and Barbuda, Aruba,
Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Bermuda, British Virgin Islands, Cayman Islands, Dominica,
Grenada, Guyana, Haiti, Jamaica, Montserrat,
Netherlands Antilles, Saint Kitts and Nevis,
Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines,
Suriname, Trinidad and Tobago,
Turks and Caicos Islands.

Latin America (19 countries)
Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia,
Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominican Republic,
Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras,
Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru,
Uruguay, Venezuela.

North America and Western Europe
(26 countries/territories)
Andorra, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Cyprus,
Denmark, Finland, France, Germany,
Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Israel, Italy,
Luxembourg, Malta, Monaco, Netherlands,
Norway, Portugal, San Marino, Spain,
Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom, United States.
South and West Asia (9 countries)
Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Islamic Republic of Iran, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, Sri Lanka.
Sub-Saharan Africa (45 countries)
Introduction
Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2007
216 / ANNEX
Metadata for national literacy statistics
Country or territory Year Data source Literacy definition Mode
Literate is defined as the ability to read easily or with difficulty
to a letter or a newspaper.
Literate is a person who acquires the capacities of reading
and writing by himself or herself and never attended any kind
of educational programme. Also considered literate is a person
who acquired those capacities from schooling or literacy
programmes.
The capacity to read and write.
Literate is defined as the ability to read easily or with difficulty
to a letter or a newspaper.
A literate is a person who can read and write.
Literates correspond to those individuals aged 7 years old
and higher who can read and understand in any language.
Person able to read a simple text and write a letter.
Literates are persons who can read and write, with
understanding, the text. Literacy is acceptable for any language
having written form.
Illiterates are persons who cannot read or write, as well as
persons who can read only, for example a person who studied
Qur’an.
Persons aged 15+ who could neither read nor write were referred
to the category of the illiterates.
A person is literate who can, with understanding, both read and
write a short simple statement on his or her everyday life.
If the person responds that he/she knows how to read and to
write, he/she is literate and if he/she does not know how to read
and to write, he/she is illiterate. The survey languages were
Spanish and native languages in regions of indigenous speech.
Literacy is defined as the ability to read easily or with difficulty
to a letter or a newspaper.
Literacy is a responsive and context-specific multi-dimensional
lifelong learning process designed to equip beneficiaries with
specialized knowledge, skills, attitudes and techniques to
independently engage in practices and genres involving listening,
speaking, reading, writing, numeracy, technical functioning and
critical thinking required in real life.
A literate is a person who can both read and write at least a
simple statement in a language he or she knows (language –
Portuguese).
Literacy is the ability of a person to read and write a simple letter
or to read a newspaper column in one or two languages.
Literate are persons who can read and write.
Literate are persons who declare that they can read and write in any language.
Literacy is defined as the ability to read easily or with difficulty a letter or a newspaper.
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Bosnia and Herzegovina
Botswana
Brazil
Brunei Darussalam
Bulgaria
Burkina Faso
Burundi
**Introduction**

Literacy is the ability to read and write with understanding in any language. A person is literate when he/she can read and write a simple message in any language or dialect. A person who both cannot read and write a simple message is considered illiterate. Also to be considered illiterate is that person who is capable of reading only his/her own name or number, as well as persons who can read but not write. Children aged 0-9 were treated as illiterate by definition even if a few of them could read and write.

Literacy is the ability of people aged 15+ to read and write in French or in English.

Literacy is defined as the ability to read easily or with difficulty a letter or a newspaper.

A person is literate who knows how to write and to read (Spanish).

In urban areas: literate refers to a person who knows a minimum of 2000 characters. In rural areas: literate refers to a person who knows a minimum of 1500 characters.

Literacy is the capacity to read and to write in one’s mother tongue.
In the census it was asked whether the person knows how to read or write, from that we concluded literacy and illiteracy if the answer were yes or no, respectively.

Literacy is defined as the ability to read easily or with difficulty a letter or a newspaper. A literate person is one who can read and write a simple statement on his/her everyday life; i.e. who can read and write a letter no matter what language or characters he/she uses. The people who were able to read and write at least a simple text of facts relative to their daily life were considered literate. The people who did not fulfil that condition were regarded as illiterate. Literacy is defined as the ability to read easily or with difficulty a letter or a newspaper. Literates are all people aged 10 or older who know how to read and to write. Literacy is the capacity to read and write. Illiterate persons are those persons who have not completed primary education and who cannot read or write. Literacy is defined as the ability to read easily or with difficulty a letter or a newspaper. ‘Illiterate’ was recorded for a person who had not completed the level corresponding to primary education and who cannot, with understanding, both read and write a simple text on his/her everyday life at least in one language. Literacy is the ability to read and write any language with understanding. The languages in the question are English and Ghanaian languages.

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Literacy is defined as the ability both to read and to write. A person, who can, with understanding, both read and write a short, simple
statement on his everyday life is literate. A person who cannot, with understanding, both read and write a short, simple statement on his/her everyday life is illiterate.

Literate: a person who can read and write in a specific language. This capacity includes persons who are 7 years and over.

Literacy is defined as the ability to read easily or with difficulty a letter or a newspaper.

Literates refer to those who can read and write.

A literate is a person aged 7 and above who can both read and write with understanding in any language.

A literate is someone who can read and write at least a simple sentence in Bahasa Indonesia.

A literate is an individual who can read and write a simple sentence in Farsi or any other language.

Literacy is defined as the ability to read easily or with difficulty a letter or a newspaper.

Illiterate are all those who declared to have never studied.

Literacy is defined as the ability both to read and to write.

Illiterate persons are those considered to ‘have a very limited knowledge of the alphabetic system, and so may be able to identify (read) a few frequently used words but cannot understand a group of words in a phrase or a sentence. Such persons may write a few letters of the alphabet.’

Persons aged 15 years and above who can read and write in any language.

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Literacy is defined as the ability to read easily or with difficulty a letter or a newspaper.

Literacy is a person’s ability to read a simple statement related to his (her) every day life and understanding. It needs a series of writing and reading skills and testing that includes basic accounting skills.

Literate population is the population at the age of 6 and older which is able to read and write or only to read.

A literate person was defined as a person who can read, write and understand simple sentences in Lao, and perform simple arithmetic calculations (numeracy). All household members aged 6 and above were asked whether they can read, write and perform simple calculations.

Illiterate is a person who cannot, with understanding, both read and write a short, simple statement or a person who can read but not write.

Literates are persons who can read and write.

A literate (no formal schooling) is a person who does not attend school but can read (with understanding) and/or write a simple sentence on topics of everyday life.
A person is defined as literate if he/she can, with understanding, both read and write a short, simple statement on his/her everyday life.

Literacy is defined as the ability to read easily or with difficulty a letter or a newspaper.

Literates are persons able to write and read English, chichewa or another language.

Illiterates are persons aged 10 years and over who have never been to school in any language.

A literate is a person who can read and write with understanding in any language: Maldivian language (Dhivehi), English, Arabic, etc.

Illiterate is a person who never attended school even if that person can read and write.

Literacy is defined as the ability both to read and to write. A person, who can, with understanding, both read and write a short, simple statement on his/her everyday life is literate. A person who cannot, with understanding, both read and write a short, simple statement on his/her everyday life is illiterate.

All persons who are able to read and write in the language specified.

A person was considered as literate if he or she was able with understanding to both read and write a simple statement in his/her everyday life.

Literate persons are distinguished according to their ability to read and write a message. Message is understood as a brief and simple exposition of a daily life fact.

Literacy is the ability to read and write simple statements in Mongolian or any other language, with understanding.

A literate is a person who can read and write easily or with difficulty a letter or a newspaper.

Literacy is the ability to write with understanding in any language. Persons who could read and not write were classified as nonliterate. Similarly, persons who were able to write and not read were classified as non-literate.

A person aged 6 years and above, who can read and write a simple letter with understanding and have simple knowledge of arithmetic is considered as literate. Language can be any.

A literate is a person who can read and write; an illiterate is a person who can only read or who cannot read and write.
Literate is a person who knows how to read and write in any language. 
A literate is an individual who is capable of both reading and writing but does not (necessarily) hold an academic qualification of any kind. 
A literate is one who can read a newspaper and write a simple letter in any language.

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National Survey on Income and Expenditure of Households
Population Census
Population Census
MICS
Population Census
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A literate person is one who can both read and write a short, simple statement on his or her everyday life.

Literacy is the person's aptitude to read and to write in any language.

A literate is a person who could read and write with understanding at least one of English, Motu or Tokples.

Literacy is the ability to read and to write in any language.

A literate is a person who knows how to read and to write in any language. The language used for the collection of the data in the survey was Spanish.

Simple literacy is the ability to read and write a simple message.

A person is literate when he can both read and write a simple message in any language or dialect. A person who knows how to read and write but at the time of the census, he/she can no longer read and/or write due to some physical defects or illness, is considered literate. Disabled persons who can read and write through any means such as Braille are considered literate.

A person of 10 years old and over who graduated an educational institution, or who did not graduate from any educational institution but is attending one, or is able to read and write is considered as a literate person. A person of 10 years old and over who is not able to read and write, or is able to read or write only is an illiterate person.

Persons having indicated some level of literacy were considered as literate. Persons who have indicated that they are unable to read and write were considered as illiterate.

Literacy is defined as the ability to read easily or with difficulty a letter or a newspaper.

A person is considered literate if he/she can read and write in any
language. A blind person is considered literate if he/she can read and write the 'Braille' method.
Literate: persons who are able to read and write in any language. Literate population covers all persons who can read and write a text dealing with everyday life regardless of the language. All other persons, including also those who can only read, are considers as illiterate.
Ability to read or write a simple sentence in English, French or Creole.
Literacy was defined as the ability to read and write in any language.
Literacy refers to a person’s ability to read with understanding, e.g. a newspaper, in the language specified.

The census schedule provided for recording the ability to speak, read and write Sinhalese, Tamil and English. A person was regarded as able to read and write a language only if he could both read with understanding and write a short letter or paragraph in that language. A person who is able to read and write at least one language was regarded as literate.

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Literacy is defined as the ability to read easily or with difficulty a letter or a newspaper.
A person is considered literate if he/she can write a simple note or phrase.
Literacy is defined as the ability to read easily or with difficulty a letter or a newspaper.
A literate is an individual male or female who can read and write in Arabic.
Literates are persons who can write and read, regardless of the language.
Literate persons are defined as persons aged 5 and over who are able to read and write simple statements with understanding, in any language. If a person can read but cannot write, then he/she is classified as illiterate.
Each person having completed more than three grades of primary school shall be considered literate. In addition, literate will be considered as a person without school qualification and with 1-3 grades of primary school if he/she can read and write a composition (text) in relation to everyday life (i.e. read and write a letter regardless of the language and alphabet he can read). However, if a person without education or with completed 1-3 grades of primary school can not read and write a composition (text) about everyday life, i.e. read and write a letter, he/she will be considered illiterate.
Literacy is defined as the ability to read easily or with difficulty a letter or a newspaper.
For a person to be considered as literate in a language, that person must be able to read and write in that language.
A literate is a person who knows how to read and write at least one language.
People who can write and read are accepted as literate.
Literates are persons aged 7 years or more who are able to write and read.
Literacy is the ability to meaningfully write or read with understanding in any language.
A person of 6 year old and older who has any level of education or can read is literate.
Literacy is defined as the ability both to read and to write with understanding, a short, simple statement on everyday life. The ability to read and write may be in any language.
A literate is a person who knows how to read and write with understanding simple sentences in his/her national or ethnic language or a foreign language.

Literacy is defined as the ability to read easily or with difficulty a letter or a newspaper.

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Table 1
Background statistics
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Turkey
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Armenia
Azerbaijan
Georgia
Kazakhstan
Kyrgyzstan
Mongolia
Tajikistan
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan
Australia
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia
China

Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2007
222 / ANNEX

DEMOGRAPHY1 HIV/AIDS2
Total Male Female Total
Total
population
(000)
Average
annual growth
rate (%)
total
population
2000-2005
Average
annual growth
rate (%)
0-4
population
Life expectancy
at birth
(years)
Total
fertility rate
(children
per woman)
% of women among
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country or territory</th>
<th>People (age 15+) living with HIV</th>
<th>HIV prevalence rate (%) in adults (15-49)</th>
<th>Orphans due to AIDS (0-17)</th>
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<td>East Asia and the Pacific</td>
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Egypt
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Jordan
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Lebanon
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
Mauritania
Morocco
Oman
Palestinian A. T.
Qatar
Saudi Arabia
Sudan
Syrian Arab Republic
Tunisia
United Arab Emirates
Yemen
Albania
Belarus
Bosnia and Herzegovina
Bulgaria
Croatia
Czech Republic
Estonia
Hungary
Latvia
Lithuania
Poland
Republic of Moldova
Romania
Russian Federation
Serbia and Montenegro
Slovakia
Slovenia
TFYR Macedonia
Turkey
Ukraine
Armenia
Azerbaijan
Georgia
Kazakhstan
Kyrgyzstan
Mongolia
Tajikistan
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan
Australia
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia
China
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790 950 1 950 2 152 ... 429 18 2.5 ....
1 270 1 250 3 200 4 200 43.9 30 291 2 317 2.9 ... 7.6
.................
1 590 2 190 3 720 4 765 7.4 8 175 700 6.0 26.0x 8.2
17 390 22 470 18 960 21 610 ..............
3 670 6 010 4 380 5 547 ... 22 177 4 350 21.0 ... ...
... 4 400 ................. ...
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1 260 1 570 3 340 4 253 14.3 17 672 2 996 6.1 ... 14.0
6 420 9 070 11 570 14 678 ... 3 872 992 4.2 14.7x 6.9
.................

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930 1 230 3 240 3 496 ... 21 521 328 1.4 ... 3.5
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880 2 120 3 110 5 072 ... 1 549 74 1.0 .... ...
1 560 2 140 4 210 6 966 ... 3 717 326 1.4 5.4x 2.1
1 190 2 040 4 850 7 226 ... 3 202 176 2.0 ... 3.7
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400 720 1 320 1 953 ... 1 868 248 8.5 29.4 12.1
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Page 724 of 1373
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<th>Total debt service (US$ millions)</th>
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<th>Public debt service as % of government current revenue</th>
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STATISTICAL TABLES / 223

Table 1

GNP AND POVERTY EXTERNAL DEBT


Current

US$

GNP per capita3

PPP

US$

Population

living on

less than

US$2 per day

(%)4

Country or territory

Total debt

(US$ millions)

Total debt service

(US$ millions)

Total debt

as %

of GNP

Public debt service as %

of government current revenue

Total debt
service
as %
of exports
Arab States
Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
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Table 1 (continued)

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Fiji
Indonesia
Japan
Kiribati
Lao PDR
Macao, China
Malaysia
Marshall Islands
Micronesia
Myanmar
Nauru
New Zealand
Niue
Palau
Papua New Guinea
Philippines
Republic of Korea
Samoa
Singapore
Solomon Islands
Thailand
Timor-Leste
Tokelau
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
Viet Nam
Anguilla
Antigua and Barbuda
Argentina
Aruba
Bahamas
Barbados
Belize
Bermuda
Bolivia
Brazil
British Virgin Islands
Cayman Islands
Chile
Colombia
Costa Rica
Cuba
Dominica
Dominican Republic
Ecuador
El Salvador
Grenada
Guatemala
Guyana
Haiti
Honduras
Jamaica
Mexico
Montserrat
Netherlands Antilles
Nicaragua

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<th>Average annual growth rate (%)</th>
<th>Total Male</th>
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0-4
population
Life expectancy
at birth
(years)
Total
fertility rate
(children
per woman)
% of women
among
people
(age 15+)
living with HIV
HIV
prevalence
rate (%)
in adults
(15-49)
Orphans
due to AIDS
(0-17)
(000)
Country or territory
Latin America and the Caribbean
Cook Islands
DPR Korea
Fiji
Indonesia
Japan
Kiribati
Lao PDR
Macao, China
Malaysia
Marshall Islands
Micronesia
Myanmar
Nauru
New Zealand
Niue
Palau
Papua New Guinea
Philippines
Republic of Korea
Samoa
Singapore
Solomon Islands
Thailand
Timor-Leste
Tokelau
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
Viet Nam
Anguilla
Antigua and Barbuda
Argentina
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GNP AND POVERTY EXTERNAL DEBT3


Current
US$

GNP per capita3
PPP
US$

Population
living on
less than
US$2 per day
(%)

Country or territory
Total debt
(US$ millions)
Total debt service

Page 733 of 1373
(US$ millions)
Total
debt
as %
of GNP
Public debt
service as %
of government
current
revenue
Total
debt
service
as %
of exports
Latin America and the Caribbean
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**DEMOGRAPHY**

**HIV/AIDS**

Total Male Female Total
Total
population
(000)
Average
annual growth
rate (%)
total
population
2000-2005
Average
annual growth
rate (%)
0-4
population
Life expectancy
at birth
(years)
Total
fertility rate
(children)
per woman)
% of women among people (age 15+)
living with HIV
HIV prevalence rate (%)
in adults (15-49)
Orphans due to AIDS (0-17)
(000)
Country or territory
North America and Western Europe
South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa
Panama
Paraguay
Peru
Saint Kitts and Nevis
Saint Lucia
St Vincent/Grenad.
Suriname
Trinidad and Tobago
Turks and Caicos Islands
Uruguay
Venezuela
Andorra
Austria
Belgium
Canada
Cyprus
Denmark
Finland
France
Germany
Greece
Iceland
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Israel
Italy
Luxembourg
Malta
Monaco
Netherlands
Norway
Portugal
San Marino
Spain
Sweden
Switzerland
United Kingdom
United States
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GNP AND POVERTY EXTERNAL DEBT3

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Page 741 of 1373
current revenue
Total
debt service
as % of exports
North America and Western Europe
South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa
777 2.6 1.9 63.0 60.9 65.1 4.9 <0.1 … …
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17 872 1.6 0.9 46.0 45.2 46.8 5.1 7.1 58.8 450
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492 2.3 2.5 43.5 42.8 5.9 3.2 58.8 5
4 232 4.3 4.1 53.5 55.4 5.5 2.4 58.5 36
75 600 2.4 1.6 47.6 46.5 48.6 5.9 … …
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<th>Total Population 2000-2005</th>
<th>Average Annual Growth Rate (%)</th>
<th>Total Fertility Rate (Children per Woman)</th>
<th>% of Women Among People (Age 15+) Living with HIV</th>
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HIV prevalence rate (%) in adults (15-49) Orphans due to AIDS (0-17) (000) Country or territory
Sum Weighted average Weighted average
5. Data are for the most recent year available during the period specified.
Comoros
Congo
Côte d'Ivoire
D. R. Congo
Equatorial Guinea
Eritrea
Ethiopia
Gabon
Gambia
Ghana
Guinea
Guinea-Bissau
Kenya
Lesotho
Liberia
Madagascar
Malawi
Mali
Mauritius
Mozambique
Namibia
Niger
Nigeria
Rwanda
Sao Tome and Principe
Senegal
Seychelles
Sierra Leone
Somalia
South Africa
Swaziland
Togo
Uganda
United Republic of Tanzania
Zambia
Zimbabwe
World
Countries in transition
Developed countries
Developing countries
Arab States
Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
East Asia
Pacific
Latin America/Caribbean
Caribbean
Latin America
N. America/W. Europe
South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa
STATISTICAL TABLES / 229
Table 1
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530 760 670 739 ... 5 829 350 10.7 9.2x ...
780 760 1 510 1 474 38.4 11 739 543 3.7 16.6x 6.9
110 110 710 675 ... 11 841 121 1.9 ... ...
1 060 ... 3 570 7 579 ... 291 5 ... ...
220 190 1 070 962 ... 681 19 2.1 ... ...
100 110 600 750 80.7 6 574 97 1.2 ... 5.3
3 870 4 080 5 570 5 699 ... 4 150 223 3.6 ... ...
320 280 1 500 1 885 82.9 674 34 8.6 ...
380 380 1 760 2 221 78.5 7 035 240 2.7 ... 6.6
520 410 1 810 2 158 ... 3 538 172 4.5 ... 19.9
140 160 660 694 ... 765 45 16.7 ...
360 480 990 1 130 58.3 6 826 364 2.3 ... 8.6
690 730 2 640 3 254 56.1 764 53 3.2 ... 4.5
110 120 ... ... ... 2 706 1 0.2 ... ...
260 290 760 843 85.1 3 462 81 1.9 ... ...
220 160 560 631 76.1 3 418 60 3.3 ...
250 330 720 953 90.6 3 316 103 2.2 ...
3 760 4 640 8 610 11 955 ... 2 294 260 4.3 15.8x 7.4
200 270 760 1 168 78.4 4 651 83 1.4 ... 4.5
2 050 2 380 5 890 7 515 55.8 ... ... ...
200 210 780 776 85.3 1 950 51 1.7 ... ...
260 430 760 966 90.8 3 890 2 412 4.0 ... 8.2
250 210 980 1 241 83.7 1 656 24 1.3 ... 11.2
270 390 ... ... ... 362 10 16.2 ...
510 630 1 330 1 662 67.8 3 938 335 4.4 20.0x ...
7 320 8 190 ... 15 883 ... 615 52 7.7 ... 8.1
150 210 470 547 74.5 1 723 27 2.5 ... 10.9
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3 290 3 630 8 820 10 964 34.1 28 500 3 825 1.8 8.1x 6.4
1 400 1 660 4 340 5 650 ... 470 44 1.8 ... 1.7
350 310 1 580 1 508 ... 1 812 21 1.0 ...
290 250 1 110 1 448 ... 4 822 103 1.5 4.9x 6.9
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330 400 700 890 87.4 7 279 424 8.3 ...
560 620 2 640 2 041 83.0 4 797 93 2.0 ...
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Page 748 of 1373
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<th>Country</th>
<th>GNP per capita US$</th>
<th>PPP US$</th>
<th>Population living on less than US$2 per day (%)</th>
<th>Total debt (US$ millions)</th>
<th>Total debt service (US$ millions)</th>
<th>Total debt as % of GNP</th>
<th>Public debt service as % of government current revenue</th>
<th>Total debt service as %</th>
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of exports
Weighted average Weighted average
(x) Data are for 2001.
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Djibouti
Egypt
Iraq
Jordan
Kuwait
Lebanon
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
Mauritania
Morocco
Oman
Palestinian Autonomous Territories
Qatar
Saudi Arabia
Sudan2
Syrian Arab Republic
Tunisia
United Arab Emirates
Yemen
Albania
Belarus
Bosnia and Herzegovina
Bulgaria
Croatia
Czech Republic
Estonia
Hungary
Latvia
Lithuania
Poland
Republic of Moldova
Romania
Russian Federation
Serbia and Montenegro2
Slovakia
Slovenia
TFYR Macedonia
Turkey
Ukraine
Armenia
Azerbaijan
Georgia
Kazakhstan
Kyrgyzstan
Mongolia
Tajikistan
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan
Australia
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia
China
Cook Islands
Democratic People's Republic of Korea
53 64 41 70.* 80.* 60.* 80 87 72 6 804 62 6 423 66 5 638 69
82 87 75 87.* 89.* 84.* 93 96 90 61 55 66 49 45 61
53 67 40 .............. 146 65 ...........
47 60 34 71.* 83.* 59.* 76 85 67 17 411 63 14 210 71 14 526 70
36 51 20 74.* 84.* 64.* 81 88 74 6 607 62 3 707 69 4 371 67
82 90 72 90.* 95.* 85.* 95 98 92 320 72 330 74 228 77
77 79 73 93.* 94.* 91.* 96 96 95 317 47 139 49 110 43
80 88 73 .............. 349 72 ...........
68 83 51 .............. 780 71 ...........
35 46 24 51.* 60.* 43.* 59 66 52 743 60 732 60 955 59
39 53 25 52.* 66.* 40.* 65 77 54 9 140 62 10 106 65 9 022 68
55 67 38 81.* 87.* 74.* 91 93 87 458 56 300 57 208 60
........ 92.* 97.* 88.* 97 99 96 ....... 153 78 82 75
77 77 76 89.* 89.* 89.* 92 92 93 78 28 67 29 58 28
66 76 50 79.* 87.* 69.* 89 94 84 3 288 59 2 681 65 2 253 68
46 60 32 61.* 71.* 52.* 71 79 63 8 021 63 7 557 63 8 143 64
65 82 48 80.* 86.* 74.* 90 95 84 2 365 75 2 348 65 1 653 77
59 72 47 74.* 83.* 65.* 82 90 75 2 086 65 1 878 68 1 549 71
71 71 71 .............. 379 29 ...........
33 55 13 53 72 33 ....... 3 852 66 5 288 70 .......
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........ 96.* 99.* 94.* 98 99 98 ...... 246 85 139 79
.......................... ........................
Table 2
Adult and youth literacy
Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2007
230 / ANNEX
ADULT LITERACY RATE (15 and over)
(%) ADULT ILLITERATES (15 and over)
1990 2000-2004
Projected
2015
Projected
2015
Total
Country or territory
1990 2000-2004
Total
(000)
%
Female
Total
(000)
%
Female
Total
(000)
%
Arab States
Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
Algeria
Bahrain
Djibouti
Egypt
Iraq
Jordan
Kuwait
Lebanon
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
Mauritania
Morocco
Oman
Palestinian Autonomous Territories
Qatar
Saudi Arabia
Sudan 2
Syrian Arab Republic
Tunisia
United Arab Emirates
Yemen
Albania
Belarus
Bosnia and Herzegovina
Bulgaria
Croatia
Czech Republic
Estonia
Hungary
Latvia
Lithuania
Poland
Republic of Moldova
Romania
Russian Federation
Serbia and Montenegro 2
Slovakia
Slovenia
TFYR Macedonia
Turkey
Ukraine
Armenia
Azerbaijan
Georgia
Kazakhstan
Kyrgyzstan
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Japan
Kiribati
Lao People’s Democratic Republic
Macao, China
Malaysia
Marshall Islands
Micronesia (Federated States of)
Myanmar
Nauru
New Zealand
Niue
Palau
Papua New Guinea
Philippines
Republic of Korea
Samoa
Singapore
Solomon Islands
Thailand
Timor-Leste
Tokelau
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
Viet Nam
Anguilla
Antigua and Barbuda
Argentina
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Barbados
Belize
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Bolivia
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British Virgin Islands
Cayman Islands
Chile
Colombia
Costa Rica
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Dominica
Dominican Republic
Ecuador
El Salvador
Grenada
Guatemala
Guyana
Haiti
Honduras
Jamaica
Mexico
Montserrat
Netherlands Antilles
Nicaragua
Panama
Paraguay
Peru
Saint Kitts and Nevis
89 92 85 .......... 51 63 ...........
80 87 73 90.* 94.* 87.* 95 97 93 23 791 68 15 100 69 8 805 70
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57 70 43 69.* 77.* 61.* 77 82 72 1 017 67 970 64 1 066 62
91 95 87 91.* 95.* 88.* 95 97 93 26 73 31 74 21 74
81 87 74 89.* 92.* 85.* 93 95 91 2 190 66 1 722 64 1 441 64
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30 47 14 ................................
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Page 760 of 1373
Table 2 (continued)
ADULT LITERACY RATE (15 and over)
(%) ADULT ILLITERATES (15 and over)
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Projected
2015
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Total
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(%) YOUTH ILLITERATES (15-24)

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Suriname
Trinidad and Tobago
Turks and Caicos Islands
Uruguay
Venezuela
Andorra
Austria
Belgium
Canada
Cyprus
Denmark
Finland
France
Germany
Greece
Iceland
Ireland
Israel
Italy
Luxembourg
Malta
Monaco
Netherlands
Norway
Portugal
San Marino
Spain
Sweden
Switzerland
United Kingdom
United States
Afghanistan
Bangladesh
Bhutan
India
Iran, Islamic Republic of
Maldives
Nepal
Pakistan
Sri Lanka
Angola
Benin
Botswana
Burkina Faso
Burundi
Cameroon
Cape Verde
Central African Republic
Chad
Comoros
Congo
Côte d'Ivoire
D. R. Congo
Equatorial Guinea

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97 98 96 99 99 98 .... 26 70 13 69 ....

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97 96 97 98 98 98 .... 80 46 53 42 ....
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Projected 2015

Total 1990 2000-20041

Total (000) %

Female Total (000) %

Female Total (000) %

Male Female Total Male Female Total Male Female

Page 773 of 1373
North America and Western Europe
South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa
Eritrea
Ethiopia
Gabon
Gambia
Ghana
Guinea
Guinea-Bissau
Kenya
Lesotho
Liberia
Madagascar
Malawi
Mali
Mauritius
Mozambique
Namibia
Niger
Nigeria
Rwanda
Sao Tome and Principe
Senegal
Seychelles
Sierra Leone
Somalia
South Africa
Swaziland
Togo
Uganda
United Republic of Tanzania
Zambia
Zimbabwe
World
Countries in transition
Developed countries
Developing countries
Arab States
Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
East Asia
Pacific
Latin America and the Caribbean
Caribbean
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The numbers represent various data points or values corresponding to different locations or categories. The table includes entries such as 46, 58, 35, and others, arranged in a grid format.
Table 2 (continued)
ADULT LITERACY RATE (15 and over)
(%) ADULT ILLITERATES (15 and over)
1990 2000-20041
Projected
2015
Projected
2015
Total
Country or territory
1990 2000-20041
Total
(000)
% 
Female
Total
(000)
% 
Female
Total
(000)
% 
Female
Male Female Total Male Female Total Male Female
Weighted average Sum %F Sum %F Sum %F
Note: For countries indicated with (*), national observed literacy data are used.
For all others, UIS literacy estimates are used. The estimates were generated in July 2002, using the previous UIS assessment model. They are based on observed data for years between 1990 and 1994.
The population used to generate the number of illiterates is from the United Nations Population Division 2004 estimates (2005). For countries with national observed literacy data, the population corresponding to the year of the census or survey was used.
For countries with UIS estimates, the population used was that of 2005.
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Country or territory
YOUTH LITERACY RATE (15-24)
(%) YOUTH ILLITERATES (15-24)
1990 2000-20041
Projected
2015
Projected
2015
Total
1990 2000-20041
Total
(000)
%  
Female
Total
(000)
%  
Female
Total
(000)
%  
Female
Male Female Total Male Female Total Male Female
Weighted average Sum %F Sum %F Sum %F

1. Data are for the most recent year available during the period specified.
   See the introduction to the statistical tables for a broader explanation of national
   literacy definitions, assessment methods, sources and years of data.
2. Literacy data for the most recent year do not include some geographic regions.
Algeria
Bahrain
Djibouti
Egypt
Iraq
Jordan
Kuwait
Lebanon
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
Mauritania
Morocco
Oman
Palestinian A. T.
Qatar
Saudi Arabia
Sudan2
Syrian Arab Republic
Tunisia
United Arab Emirates
Yemen
Albania
Belarus
Bosnia and Herzegovina
Bulgaria
Croatia
Czech Republic
Estonia
Hungary
Latvia
Lithuania
Poland
Republic of Moldova
Romania
Russian Federation
Serbia and Montenegro
Slovakia
Slovenia
TFYR Macedonia
Turkey
Ukraine
Armenia
Azerbaijan
Georgia
Kazakhstan
Kyrgyzstan
Mongolia
Tajikistan
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan
Australia
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia
China
37 41 7 10 3 8 19 ...
14 17 8 9 2 5 10 ...
93 140 ... 18 6 13 26 75
37 43 12 9 1 4 16 ...
94 124 15 16 2 6 22 ...
23 27 10 4 1 2 9 ...
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16 18 6 6 1 4 7 ...
Table 3A
Early childhood care and education (ECCE): care
Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2000
238 / ANNEX
Country or territory
CHILD SURVIVAL1 CHILD WELL-BEING2
% of children under age 5 suffering from:
Vitamin A supplementation
coverage rate
(\%)
moderate and severe (6-59 months)
moderate
(‰) (‰) (%) severe and severe
moderate and severe
Underweight Wasting Stunting
Infant mortality rate
Under-5 mortality rate
Infants with low birth weight
Arab States
Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
Algeria
Bahrain
Djibouti
Egypt
Iraq
Jordan
Kuwait
Lebanon
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
Mauritania
Morocco
Oman
Palestinian A. T.
Qatar
Saudi Arabia
Sudan
Syrian Arab Republic
Tunisia
United Arab Emirates
Yemen
Albania
Belarus
Bosnia and Herzegovina
Bulgaria
Croatia
Czech Republic
Estonia
Hungary
Latvia
Lithuania
Poland
Republic of Moldova
Romania
Russian Federation
Serbia and Montenegro
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Slovenia
TFYR Macedonia
Turkey
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Armenia
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Georgia
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Table 3A (continued)
Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2007

ANNEX
Cook Islands
DPR Korea
Fiji
Indonesia
Japan
Kiribati
Lao PDR
Macao, China
Malaysia
Marshall Islands
Micronesia (Federated States of)
Myanmar
Nauru
New Zealand
Niue
Palau
Papua New Guinea
Philippines
Republic of Korea
Samoa
Singapore
Solomon Islands
Thailand
Timor-Leste
Tokelau
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
Viet Nam
Anguilla
Antigua and Barbuda
Argentina
Aruba
Bahamas
Barbados
Belize
Bermuda
Bolivia
Brazil
British Virgin Islands
Cayman Islands
Chile
Colombia
Costa Rica
Cuba
Dominica
Dominican Republic
Ecuador
El Salvador
Grenada
Guatemala
Guyana
Haiti
Honduras
Jamaica
Mexico
Montserrat
Netherlands Antilles

3 23 8 7 37 95
22 27 10 8 18 3...
43 54 9 28 9 ... 62
348 ... ...

5 13 11 28 45
88 141 14 40 13 15 42 64
88 ... ...
10 13 9 11 1 ... ...

12 ... 23
38 48 18 ... 95
75 112 15 32 7 9 32 87

5 7 6 ... ...
0 ... ...
9 ... ...

71 98 11 35 ... 1
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45 4 ... ...
26 31 4 ... ...
348 14 ... 4 11 ...
34 58 13 21 4 7 27 ...
20 25 9 19 ... 6 16 ...
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21 25 0 ... ...
5 ... ...
34 42 6 20 ... 19 ...
30 39 9 28 4 7 32 99

Page 789 of 1373
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Page 790 of 1373
mortality rate
Infants with low birth weight
Latin America and the Caribbean
Table 3A
Cook Islands
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Fiji
Indonesia
Japan
Kiribati
Lao PDR
Macao, China
Malaysia
Marshall Islands
Micronesia (Federated States of)
Myanmar
Nauru
New Zealand
Niue
Palau
Papua New Guinea
Philippines
Republic of Korea
Samoa
Singapore
Solomon Islands
Thailand
Timor-Leste
Tokelau
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
Viet Nam
Anguilla
Antigua and Barbuda
Argentina
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Barbados
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Brazil
British Virgin Islands
Cayman Islands
Chile
Colombia
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**Note:** The table continues with various values for each country, indicating data points or statistics. The values range from 19 to 999, with some cells containing multiple values.
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**Tuberculosis Diphtheria Pertussis Tetanus (<6 months) (6-9 months) (20-23 month) BCG**

**Polio Measles Hepatitis B**

**Haemophilus influenzae type b**

**Latin America and the Caribbean**
Table 3A (continued)

Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2007

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Nicaragua
Panama
Paraguay
Peru
Saint Kitts and Nevis
Saint Lucia
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines
Suriname
Trinidad and Tobago
Turks and Caicos Islands
Uruguay
Venezuela
Andorra
Austria
Belgium
Canada
Cyprus
Denmark
Finland
France
Germany
Greece
Iceland
Ireland
Israel
Italy
Luxembourg
Malta
Monaco
Netherlands
Norway
Portugal
San Marino
Spain
Sweden
Switzerland
United Kingdom
United States
Afghanistan
Bangladesh
Bhutan
India
Iran, Islamic Republic of
Maldives
Nepal
Pakistan
Sri Lanka
Angola
Benin
Botswana
Burkina Faso
Burundi
Cameroon
Cape Verde
30 40 12 10 2 2 20 91
21 27 10 7 ... 1 14 ...
37 45 9 5 ... 1 14 ...
33 52 11 7 1 1 25 ...
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15 20 8 14 ... 6 11 ...
26 31 10 .............
26 31 13 13 2 7 10 ...
14 19 23 7 0 4 5 ...
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13 15 8 5 1 1 8 ...
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Tuberculosis Diphtheria Pertussis Tetanus
(<6 months) (6-9 months) (20-23 month) BCG
Polio Measles Hepatitis B
Haemophilus
influenzae type b
Country or territory
CHILD WELL-BEING2
% of children who are 1-year-old children immunized against (%)
DPT1† DPT3† Polio3 Measles HepB3 Hib3
Corresponding vaccines:
Exclusively
breastfed
Breastfed with
complementary
food
Still
breastfeeding
North America and Western Europe
South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa
Central African Republic
Chad
Comoros
Congo
Côte d’Ivoire
D. R. Congo
Equatorial Guinea
Eritrea
Ethiopia
Gabon
Gambia
Ghana
Guinea
Guinea-Bissau
Kenya
Lesotho
Liberia
Madagascar
Malawi
Mali
Mauritius
Mozambique
Namibia
Niger
Nigeria
Rwanda
Sao Tome and Principe
Senegal
Seychelles
Sierra Leone
Somalia
South Africa
Swaziland
Togo
Uganda
United Republic of Tanzania
Zambia
Zimbabwe
World
Countries in transition
Developed countries
Developing countries
Arab States
Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia
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Population Division statistics, 2004 revision,

1. United Nations Population Division statistics, 2004 revision,
medium variant, UN Population Division (2005).
2. UNICEF (2005). 3. Data are for the most recent year available during the period specified.
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Tuberculosis Diphtheria Pertussis Tetanus
(<6 months) (6-9 months) (20-23 month) BCG
Polio Measles Hepatitis B
Haemophilus
influenzae type b
Country or territory
CHILD WELL-BEING2
% of children who are 1-year-old children immunized against (%)
DPT1† DPT3† Polio3 Measles HepB3 Hib3
Corresponding vaccines:
Exclusively
breastfed
Breastfed with
complementary
food
Still
breastfeeding
Weighted average Weighted average
† This was the first year that DPT1 coverage was estimated. Coverage for DPT1 should be
at least as high as DPT3.
Discrepancies where DPT1 coverage is lower than DPT3 reflect deficiencies in the data
collection and reporting process.
UNICEF and WHO are working with national and territorial systems to eliminate these
discrepancies.
3-7 74 54 90 51 4 0.8 25 23 28 1.21 35 34 36 1.08
3-6 56 42 63 47 ... 8 9 7 0.76 9 10 9 0.93
3-6 ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ...
3-6 ... ... ... ... 615.** 47.** ... ... ... ... 28.** 29.** 27.** 0.93**
4-4 ... ... 262 49 ... 66 ... ... ... ... 102 102 102 1.00
3-5 11 49 12 48 66 67 51 50 52 1.04 52 52 52 1.00
3-5 58.** 50.** 95 49 22.** 24 6.** 6.** 6.** 1.03** 9 9 9 0.99
4-6 24 030 46 20 039 45.** ... ... 38 39 37 0.97 36 37.** 35.** 0.92**

Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2007

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Algeria
Bahrain
Djibouti
Egypt
Iraq
Jordan
Kuwait
Lebanon
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
Mauritania
Morocco
Oman
Palestinian A. T.
Qatar
Saudi Arabia
Sudan
Syrian Arab Republic
Tunisia
United Arab Emirates
Yemen
Albania
Belarus
Bosnia and Herzegovina
Bulgaria
Croatia
Czech Republic
Estonia
Hungary
Latvia
Lithuania
Poland
Republic of Moldova
Romania
Russian Federation
Serbia and Montenegro
Slovakia
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<tr>
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<td>Enrolment in private institutions as % of total enrolment</td>
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<td>ENROLMENT IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION</td>
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<td>Total Male Female GPI (F/M)</td>
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Age group 2004

School year ending in School year ending in School year ending in
1
2
3
4
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6
53
Arab States
Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
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<th>Central Asia</th>
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Latin America and the Caribbean
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**Notes:**
- Male = Male enrolment
- Female = Female enrolment
- Ratio = Male/Female ratio

**School Life Expectancy (in years):**
- 2004: 7.5 years
- 2005: 7.6 years
- 2006: 7.7 years
- 2007: 7.8 years
- 2008: 7.9 years
- 2009: 8.0 years
- 2010: 8.1 years
- 2011: 8.2 years
- 2012: 8.3 years
- 2013: 8.4 years

**ECCE Programme Participation:**
- Pre-primary: 100%
- Primary: 0%
NEW ENTRANTS TO THE FIRST
GRADE OF PRIMARY EDUCATION
WITH ECCE EXPERIENCE (%)
1999 2004 2004 2004
Total Male Female GPI
(F/M)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School year ending in Latin America and the Caribbean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1999 2004 2004 2004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Male Female GPI Total Male Female Total Male Female (F/M)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
</tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2018</td>
</tr>
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<td>2019</td>
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Note: The data includes all sectors and years.
<table>
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<th>12 48 13 49 30 39 :z 46 46 46 1.00 48 47 49 1.03</th>
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<tr>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>238.** 41.** 512 46 ... 80.z 11.** 13.** 10.** 0.73** 36 38 34 0.90</td>
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<tr>
<td>4-5</td>
<td>18 48 22 49 20 27 4 4 4 0.97 4 4 4 1.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>3-5</td>
<td>..........................................................</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

| 4-6 | 20 50 14.**,y 48.**,y 34 ... 2 2 2 1.03 1.**,y 1.**,y 1.**,y 0.94**,y |
| 4-6 | 5 50 9 49 49 60 0.8 0.8 0.8 1.01 1 1 1 0.97 |
| 4-5 | 104 48 176 50 57 64 12 12 12 0.95 20 20 20 0.99 |
| 3-5 | ... 21 51 ... – ................ 53 52 54 1.04 |
| 3-5 | ... 6.**,y 51.**,y ... ...................... 2.**,y 2.**,y 2.**,y 1.04**,y |
| 3-5 | .......................................................... |

Panama
Paraguay
Peru
Saint Kitts and Nevis
Saint Lucia
St Vincent/Grenad.
Suriname
Trinidad and Tobago
Turks and Caicos Islands
Uruguay
Venezuela
Andorra
Austria
Belgium
Canada
Cyprus
Denmark
Finland
France
Germany
Greece
Iceland
Ireland
Israel
Italy
Luxembourg
Malta
Monaco
Netherlands
Norway
Portugal
San Marino
Spain
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Country or territory</th>
<th>GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER)</th>
<th>IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Enrolment in private institutions as % of total enrolment ENROLMENT IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION Total Male Female GPI (F/M) Total % F Total (000) Total % F (000) Age group 2004 Male Female GPI (F/M)</td>
<td>1999 2004 1999 2004 1999 2004 School year ending in School year ending in School year ending in 113 114 115</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
North America and Western Europe
South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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NET ENROLMENT RATIO (NER) IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)

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<th>2004</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2004</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Male Female GPI (F/M)</td>
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<tr>
<td>GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRE-PRIMARY AND OTHER ECCE PROGRAMMES (%)</td>
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<tr>
<td>PRE-PRIMARY SCHOOL LIFE EXPECTANCY (expected number of years of pre-primary schooling)</td>
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<tr>
<td>NEW ENTRANTS TO THE FIRST GRADE OF PRIMARY EDUCATION WITH ECCE EXPERIENCE (%)</td>
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<td>1999 2004 2004 2004</td>
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<td>Total Male Female GPI (F/M)</td>
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<td>Total Male Female GPI Total Male Female Total Male Female (F/M)</td>
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</table>

School year ending in North America and Western Europe

South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa
| Page 835 of 1373 |

**Table 38 (continued)**

| 3-5 | 1.3 | 51 | 2 | 48 | 100 | 62 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1.07 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 0.96 |
| 3-5 | 6 | 61 | 22 | 51 | 85 | 79 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1.59 | 6 | 5 | 6 | 1.06 |
| 3-5 | 36 | 49 | 49.*,z | 49.*,z | 46 | 46.*,z | 2 | 2 | 2 | 0.96 | 3.*,z | 3.*,z | 3.*,z | 0.96*,z |
| 3-5 | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … |
| 3-6 | 17 | 51 | 24.z | … | 37 | 37.*,y | 31 | 31 | 32 | 1.04 | 40 | z | … | … |
| 5-6 | 12 | 47 | 19 | 47 | 97 | 76 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 0.88 | 7 | 8 | 7 | 0.90 |
| 4-6 | 90 | 49 | 153 | 49 | 100 | 100 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0.97 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 0.95 |
| 3-5 | … | … | 16.*,y | … | … | 73.*,y | … | … | … | … | 14.*,y | … | … |
| 3-6 | 29 | 47 | 30.*,** | 50,*,** | … | … | 20 | 21 | 19 | 0.91 | 18,*,** | 18,*,** | 19,*,** | 1.03** |
| 3-5 | 667,*,** | 49,*,** | 731 | 50 | 33,*,** | 34 | 40,*,** | 40,*,** | 1.02** | 42 | 41 | 42 | 1.03 |
| 3-6 | … | … | 68 | 49 | … | 91 | … | … | … | … | 66 | 6 | 1.03 |
| 4-6 | 4,*,** | 51,*,** | … | … | 62,*,** | 3,*,** | 3,*,** | 3,*,** | 1.05** | … | … | … |
| 3-5 | 1 | 188 | 50 | 1 | 628 | 49 | 10 | 32,z | 44 | 44 | 44 | 1.00 | 53 | 54 | 53 | 0.99 |
| 3-5 | 33,*,** | 52,*,** | 41,*,** | 48,*,** | 100,*,** | 100,*,** | 23,*,** | 23,*,** | 24,*,** | 1.08** | 31,*,** | 32,*,** | 30,*,** | 0.94** |
| 3-5 | 112 | 42 | … | … | 39 | … | 41 | 47 | 35 | 0.74 | … | … | … |
| 3-5 | 50,*,** | 51,*,** | 171,*,** | … | 93,*,** | 90,z | 3,*,** | 3,*,** | 3,*,** | 1.02** | 10,*,** | … | … |
| 3-5 | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … |
| 3-6 | 21 | 51 | 32,*,z | 49,*,z | … | … | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1.09 | 2,*,z | 2,*,z | 2,*,z | 1.01**,z |
| 3-4 | 42 | 50 | 37 | 49 | 85 | 83 | 100 | 99 | 101 | 1.02 | 95 | 95 | 96 | 1.01 |
| 3-5 | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … |
| 3-5 | 35 | 53 | 49,*,z | 52,*,z | 100 | 100,*,z | 19 | 18 | 21 | 1.16 | 29,*,z | 27,*,z | 30,*,z | 1.12**,z |
| 4-6 | 12 | 50 | 18 | 49 | 33 | 30 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1.05 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1.01 |
| 3-5 | … | … | 1 | 753 | 49 | … | … | … | … | … | 15 | 15 | 15 | 1.00 |
| 4-6 | … | … | 19,*,y | 50,*,y | … | 100,*,y | … | … | … | 3,*,y | 3,*,y | 2,*,y | 0.98**,y |
| 4-6 | 4,*,** | 51,*,** | 5 | 50 | –,** | – | 27,*,** | 26,*,** | 28,*,** | 1.09** | 42 | 42 | 43 | 1.04 |
| 4-6 | 24 | 50 | 55 | 52 | 68 | 74 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 1.00 | 6 | 5 | 6 | 1.11 |
| 4-5 | 3 | 49 | 3 | 49 | 5 | 5,z | 109 | 107 | 111 | 1.04 | 102 | 103 | 100 | 0.98 |
| 3-5 | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … |
| 3-5 | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … |
| 6-6 | 207 | 50 | 345,z | 50,z | 26 | 8,z | 20 | 20 | 20 | 1.01 | 33,z | 33,z | 34,z | 1.03z |
| 3-5 | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … |
| 3-5 | 11 | 50 | 13,*,** | 50,*,** | 53 | 59,*,** | 2 | 2 | 2 | 0.99 | 2,*,** | 2,*,** | 2,*,** | 0.98** |
| 4-5 | 66,*,** | 50,*,** | 42 | 49 | 100,*,** | 99,y | 4,*,** | 4,*,** | 4,*,** | 1.00** | 2 | 2 | 2 | 0.99 |
| 5-6 | … | … | 639 | 50 | … | 2 | … | … | … | 29 | 29 | 2 | 1.02 |
| 3-6 | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … | … |
| 3-5 | 439,*,** | 51,*,** | 448,z | 45,z | … | 41,*,** | 40,*,** | 41,*,** | 1.03** | 43,z | … | … | … | … |
| … | 111 | 772 | 48 | 123 | 685 | 48 | 36 | 39 | 33 | 34 | 32 | 0.96 | 37 | 38 | 37 | 0.97 |
| … | 6 | 316 | 47 | 7 | 115 | 47 | 1 | 0.8 | 41 | 42 | 40 | 0.94 | 59 | 61 | 57 | 0.93 |
| … | 25 | 386 | 49 | 25 | 482 | 47 | 8 | 8 | 73 | 74 | 73 | 0.99 | 77 | 77 | 77 | 0.99 |
| … | 80 | 70 | 47 | 91 | 089 | 48 | 49 | 54 | 28 | 28 | 27 | 0.95 | 32 | 32 | 31 | 0.97 |
| … | 2 | 356 | 42 | 2 | 625 | 46 | 89 | 76 | 15 | 17 | 13 | 0.76 | 16 | 17 | 15 | 0.87 |
| … | 8 | 528 | 18 | 9 | 176 | 47 | 1 | 145 | 45 | 44 | 0.97 | 57 | 59 | 56 | 0.95 |
World
Countries in transition
Developed countries
Developing countries
Arab States
Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
East Asia
Pacific
Latin America/Caribbean
Caribbean
Latin America
N. America/W. Europe
South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa
Country or territory
GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER)
IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)
Enrolment in
private institutions
as % of total enrolment
ENROLMENT IN
PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION
Total Male Female GPI
(F/M)
Total % F Total
(000)
Total % F
(000)
Age
group
2004
Male Female GPI
(F/M)
School year ending in School year ending in School year ending in
168
169
170
171
172
173
174
175
176
1. National population data were used to calculate enrolment ratios.
2. Enrolment ratios were not calculated due to lack of United Nations data.
population data by age.

3. The decline in enrolment is essentially due to a re-classification of programmes. From 2004, it was decided to include children categorized as being aged ‘4 rising 5’ in primary education enrolment rather than pre-primary enrolment even if they started the school year at this education level. These are children who are under 5 but over 4.5 and typically (although not always) will start primary school reception classes in the second or third term of the school year. Note that the fall of 261,182 in the ISCED 0 enrolment is broadly offset by an increase of 197,571 in ISCED 1 enrolment.
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<th>Table 3B</th>
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<tr>
<td>School year ending in</td>
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<td>2004</td>
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</table>

GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRE-PRIMARY AND OTHER ECCE PROGRAMMES (%)

PRE-PRIMARY SCHOOL LIFE EXPECTANCY (expected number of years of pre-primary schooling)

NEW ENTRANTS TO THE FIRST GRADE OF PRIMARY EDUCATION WITH ECCE EXPERIENCE (%)

1999 2004 2004 2004

Total Male Female GPI (F/M)

Total Male Female GPI Total Male Female Total Male Female (F/M)

School year ending in School year ending in School year ending in

Median Median Weighted average Median

4. Enrolment ratios were not calculated due to inconsistencies between enrolment and the United Nations population data.

Data in bold are for the school year ending in 2005.

(z) Data are for the school year ending in 2003.

(y) Data are for the school year ending in 2002.
6-16 Yes 745 628 101 102 100 0.98 102 103 100 0.98
   ... Yes 13 13 101 99 103 1.04 100 100 99 0.99
6-15 No 6 8 30 34 25 0.74 39 42 35 0.83
6-13 Yes 1 451.** 1 577.** 92.** 94.** 90.** 0.96** 99.** 99.** 99.** 0.99**
6-11 Yes 709.** 826 102.** 109.** 95.** 0.88** 107 110 103 0.94
6-16 Yes 126 133 102 101 102 1.00 92 91 92 1.01
6-14 Yes 35 41.** 97 97 98 1.01 97.** 96.** 97.** 1.01**
6-12 Yes 71 71 102 106 98 0.92 100 100 99 0.99
6-15 Yes ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ...
6-14 Yes ... 89 ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ...
6-14 Yes 731 623 112 115 109 0.94 98 100 96 0.96
   ... Yes 52 44 86 86 1.00 74 74 75 1.02
6-15 ... 95 93 105 104 106 1.01 84 85 84 0.99
6-14 Yes 11,** 11.** 111.** 112.** 109.** 0.98** 100.** 100.** 100.** 1.00**
6-11 Yes 379 402 66 66 65 0.99 66 66 66 1.00
6-13 Yes ... 637 ....... ...... 68 73 62 0.85
6-12 Yes 466 543 107 110 103 0.94 120 122 118 0.97
6-16 Yes 204 162 101 101 100 1.00 95 94 96 1.02
6-15 Yes 47 54 91 93 90 0.97 89 89 88 0.99
6-14 Yes 440 691.** 78 91 65 0.71 110.** 122.** 97.** 0.80**
6-13 Yes 67,** 60.** 102.** 103.** 102.** 0.99** 102.z 103.z 102.z 0.99z
6-16 Yes 173 91 131 132 130 0.99 102 103 102 0.99
   ... Yes ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ...
7-16 Yes 93 72.4 101 102 100 0.98 106 107 104 0.98
7-15 Yes 50 49.z 94 95 93 0.98 98.z 99.z 97.z 0.98z
6-15 Yes 124 92 101 102 100 0.98 97 97 96 0.99
7-15 Yes 18 13 100 100 99 0.98 101 101 101 1.00
7-16 Yes 127 104 102 104 100 0.97 95 96 94 0.98
7-15 Yes 32 19 96 96.** 96.** 0.99** 90 90 89 0.99
7-16 Yes 54 40 105 105 104 0.99 101 101 102 1.01
7-18 Yes 535 422 101 ...... .. 97 97.** 97.** 1.00**
6-16 Yes 62 48 85 85.** 85.** 1.00** 88 89 88 0.99
7-14 Yes 269 276 94 94 94 0.99 126 126 126 1.00
6-15 Yes 1 659 1 313 86 ...... .. 97 98.** 97.** 0.99**
7-14 ...... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ...
6-16 Yes 75 58 102 102 101 0.99 96 97 96 0.99
7-15 Yes 21 26 99 99 99 0.99 142 142 141 0.99
7-15 Yes 32 27 102 102 102 1.00 98 98 97 0.99
6-14 Yes ... 1 311 ...... ...... 91 93 88 0.95
6-17 Yes 623 457 93 94 93 0.99 105 105.* 105.* 1.00*
7-15 Yes ... 44 ...... ...... 99 96 101 1.06
6-17 Yes 175 137 94 94 95 1.01 95 96 93 0.97
6-14 Yes 74 58 99 99.** 100.** 1.02** 106 107 105 0.98
7-17 Yes ... 241 ...... ...... 105 106 105 0.99
7-15 Yes 120.* 108 99.* 99.* 100.* 1.02* 98 99 97 0.98
### Access to primary education

GROSS INTAKE RATE (GIR) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)

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<th>Legal guarantee of free education</th>
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<th>Total Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>GPI (F/M)</th>
<th>Total Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
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2. ANNEX Table 4
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Saudi Arabia
Sudan
Syrian Arab Republic
Tunisia
United Arab Emirates
Yemen
Albania
Belarus
Bosnia and Herzegovina
Bulgaria, 3
Croatia
Czech Republic
Estonia
Hungary
Latvia
Lithuania
Poland
Republic of Moldova
Romania
Russian Federation
Serbia and Montenegro
Slovakia
Slovenia
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Turkey
Ukraine
Armenia
Azerbaijan
Georgia
Kazakhstan
Kyrgyzstan
Mongolia
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Cambodia
China, 6
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Arab States
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**NET INTAKE RATE (NIR)**

IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)

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IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)

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IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)

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IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)

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IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)

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**GROSS INTAKE RATE (GIR)**

IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)

Compulsory education
(age group)
Legal guarantee
of free education
New entrants
(000)
Country or territory
Total Male Female GPI
(F/M)
Total Male Female GPI
(F/M)
1999 2004 1999 2004
School year ending in School year ending in
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65
112
113
DPR Korea
Fiji
Indonesia
Japan
Kiribati
Lao PDR
Macao, China
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Marshall Islands
Micronesia
Myanmar
Nauru
New Zealand
Niue
Palau, 5
Papua New Guinea
Philippines
Republic of Korea
Samoa
Singapore
Solomon Islands
Thailand
Timor-Leste
Tokelau
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
Viet Nam
Anguilla
Antigua and Barbuda
Argentina
Aruba
Bahamas
Barbados
Belize
Bermuda
Bolivia
Brazil
British Virgin Islands
Cayman Islands
Chile
Colombia
Costa Rica
Cuba
Dominica
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Ecuador
El Salvador
Grenada
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Latin America and the Caribbean
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Page 859 of 1373
GROSS INTAKE RATE (GIR) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)

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Suriname
Trinidad and Tobago2, 3
Turks and Caicos Islands5
Uruguay3
Venezuela3
Andorra2
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Cyprus2, 5
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Germany
Greece2
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Ireland
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Italy2
Luxembourg
Malta2
Monaco2
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Norway
Portugal2
San Marino2
Spain
Sweden
Switzerland
United Kingdom
United States
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Bangladesh
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India3
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Nepal
Pakistan
Sri Lanka2
Angola2, 3
Benin
Botswana
Burkina Faso
Burundi
Cameroon
Cape Verde2
Central African Republic
Chad
Comoros
North America and Western Europe
South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa
NET INTAKE RATE (NIR)
IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)
Total Male Female GPI (F/M)
Total Male Female GPI (F/M)
1999 2004
School year ending in
SCHOOL LIFE EXPECTANCY
(expected number of years of formal schooling from primary to tertiary education)
Total Male Female Total Male Female
1999 2004
School year ending in

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<td>185</td>
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<tr>
<td>186</td>
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<tr>
<td>187</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

GROSS INTAKE RATE (GIR) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)

Compulsory education (age group)

Legal guarantee of free education

New entrants (000)
Congo3
Côte d'Ivoire
D. R. Congo3
Equatorial Guinea
Eritrea
Ethiopia
Gabon
Gambia
Ghana2, 3
Guinea
Guinea-Bissau3
Kenya3
Lesotho
Liberia2
Madagascar
Malawi
Mali
Mauritius
Mozambique
Namibia
Niger
Nigeria
Rwanda
Sao Tome and Principe
Senegal
Seychelles
Sierra Leone
Somalia
South Africa
Swaziland
Togo
Uganda
United Republic of Tanzania
Zambia
Zimbabwe
World
Countries in transition
Developed countries
Developing countries
Arab States
Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
East Asia
Pacific
Latin America/Caribbean
Caribbean
Latin America
N. America/W. Europe
South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa
Sum Sum Weighted average
3. Some primary school fees continue to be charged despite the legal guarantee of free education (World Bank, 2002; Bentaouet-Kattan, 2005).
4. No tuition fees are charged
but some direct costs have been reported (World Bank, 2002; Bentaouet-Kattan, 2005).
5. National population data were used to calculate enrolment ratios.
6. Children can enter primary school at age 6 or 7.
20 23 18 0.80 31 33 30 0.92 3.8** 4.8** 2.9** 5.6** 6.6** 4.6**
21 22 21 0.82 4.0** 5.4** 6.3** 4.5**
22 21 74 1.03 81 81 1.00 1.22** 12.0** 13.5** 13.6** 13.3**
18 18 17 0.93 30.** 29.** 30.** 1.01** 5.4** 7.6** 8.4** 6.8**
52.** 51.** 54.** 1.07** 55.**, z 54.**, z 57.**, z 1.06**, z 10.9**, z 10.8**, z 11.1**, z
25 30 20 0.68 37 43 31 0.72 ........... 3.2** 3.8** 2.6**
........... 69.** 74.**, 64.**, 0.86** ........... 8.8** 9.7** 7.9**
........... 91.**, 90.**, 92.**, 1.03** 6.8** ........... 8.2** 8.3** 8.2**
........... 7.6** 8.4** 6.9** 10.1 10.2 10.1
36 36.** 35.**, 0.96 58 57 59 1.02 5.0** ........... 6.2** ........
75 74 77 1.03 69. z 67. z 72. z 1.06z 14.0 13.9 14.2 12.8** 12.4** 13.2**
........... 35 33 36.1 1.07 39 41 1.06 6.5** 6.9** 6.1** ...........
........... 45. z 45. z 46. z 1.03 9.7** ........... 9.1**, z 9.3**, z 8.9**, z
........... 67 70 64 0.92 9.9 10.3 9.4 10.7 11.0 10.4
........... 81 81 81 1.00 11.9 11.8 12.0 12.7 12.5 12.9
........... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ...
........... 64 63 65 1.03 1.01** 10.8** 9.5** 10.4 10.7** 10.2**
14 13 15 1.16 90 89 90 1.02 5.1** 5.2** 5.1** ...........
35 33 36. 1.07 39 41 1.06 6.5** 6.9** 6.1** ...........
........... 45. z 45. z 46. z 1.03 9.7** ........... 9.1**, z 9.3**, z 8.9**, z
........... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ...
........... 67 70 64 0.92 9.9 10.3 9.4 10.7 11.0 10.4
........... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ...
........... 64 63 65 1.03 9.1 9.7 8.5 10.1 10.5 9.7
62 63 61 0.97 63 63 64 1.01 9.6 10.3 8.9 10.3 10.8 9.7
........... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ...
........... 12.1 12.1 12.0 12.9 12.9 12.8
........... 67 69 65 0.95 10.9 11.1 10.8 11.7 11.8 11.6
........... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ...
........... 10.5 10.6 10.3 11.5 11.6 11.5
........... 10.4 10.6 10.2 11.5 11.6 11.4

Page 872 of 1373
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School year ending in</th>
<th>SCHOOL LIFE EXPECTANCY</th>
<th>(expected number of years of formal schooling from primary to tertiary education)</th>
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<td>1999</td>
<td>169</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>170</td>
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<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>172</td>
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<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>173</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>174</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Median Weighted average
7. Enrolment ratios were not calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.
8. Enrolment ratios were not calculated due to inconsistencies between enrolment and the United Nations population data.
Data in bold are for the school year ending in 2005.
(z) Data are for the school year ending in 2003.
(y) Data are for the school year ending in 2002.
Table 4
### Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School-age population</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>GPI</th>
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<td><strong>School year ending in 2004</strong></td>
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<td>14</td>
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<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.97</td>
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<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.98</td>
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<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
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<td>14</td>
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<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.97</td>
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<tr>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td>6</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.95</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<tr>
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<td>8</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.94</td>
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<tr>
<td>Libyan Arab Jamahiriya</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.95</td>
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<td>0.97</td>
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<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
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<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.93</td>
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Oman
Palestinian A. T.
Qatar
Saudi Arabia
Sudan
Syrian Arab Republic
Tunisia
United Arab Emirates
Yemen
Albania
Belarus
Bosnia and Herzegovina
Bulgaria
Croatia
Czech Republic
Estonia
Hungary
Latvia
Lithuania
Poland
Republic of Moldova
Romania
Russian Federation
Serbia and Montenegro
Slovakia
Slovenia
TFYR Macedonia
Turkey
Ukraine
Armenia
Azerbaijan
Georgia
Kazakhstan
Kyrgyzstan
Mongolia
Tajikistan
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan
Australia
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia
China
Country or territory
Arab States
Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>School Year Ending in</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>GPI</th>
<th>(F/M)</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Arab States</td>
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<td>2004</td>
<td>104</td>
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<tr>
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<td>105</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>90</td>
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<td></td>
<td>East Asia and the Pacific</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>108</td>
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<td>84</td>
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GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER)
IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>School Year Ending in</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>GPI</th>
<th>(F/M)</th>
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<tr>
<td>1999</td>
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<td>2004</td>
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</table>

NET ENROLMENT RATIO (NER)
IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%) OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN (000)
Table 5 (continued)

Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2007

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Age group</td>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>School-age population1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER)

IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)

ENROLMENT

IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

Enrolment in private institutions as %

School ending in School ending in School ending in School ending in
Cook Islands4

DPR Korea
Fiji
Indonesia
Japan
Kiribati
Lao PDR
Macao, China
Malaysia
Marshall Islands
Micronesia
Myanmar
Nauru
New Zealand
Niue
Palau
Papua New Guinea
Philippines
Republic of Korea
Samoa
Singapore
Solomon Islands
Thailand
Timor-Leste
Tokelau
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
Viet Nam
Anguilla
Antigua and Barbuda
Argentina
Aruba
Bahamas
Barbados
Belize
Bermuda
Bolivia
Brazil
British Virgin Islands
Cayman Islands
Chile
Colombia
Costa Rica
Cuba
Dominica
Dominican Republic
Ecuador
El Salvador
Grenada
Guatemala
Guyana
Haiti
Honduras
Jamaica
Mexico
Montserrat
Netherlands Antilles
Country or territory
Latin America and the Caribbean
GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER)
IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School year ending in</th>
<th>Total Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>GPI (F/M)</th>
<th>Total Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>GPI (F/M)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>88.89</td>
<td>88.89</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>89.99</td>
<td>89.99</td>
<td>1.02</td>
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</table>

Latin America and the Caribbean

School year ending in School year ending in
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>2004 Male</th>
<th>2004 Female</th>
<th>2003 Male</th>
<th>2003 Female</th>
<th>Total Male</th>
<th>Total Female</th>
<th>GPI (000)</th>
<th>Male F/M</th>
<th>Male GPI (000)</th>
<th>Female GPI (000)</th>
<th>Total GPI (000)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nicaragua</td>
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<td>1,268</td>
<td>1,199,864</td>
<td>1,245</td>
<td>2,418,566</td>
<td>2,513</td>
<td>2,418,566</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1,268</td>
<td>1,199,864</td>
<td>1,245</td>
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<tr>
<td>Panama</td>
<td>2,552,213</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>2,519,134</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>5,071,348</td>
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<td>5,071,348</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>2,519,134</td>
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<tr>
<td>Paraguay</td>
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<td>49</td>
<td>77,924</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>155,848</td>
<td>155,848</td>
<td>155,848</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>77,924</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:**
- GPI stands for Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER).
- The table provides data on enrolment in primary education, including male and female enrolments, total enrolments, and GPIs for various countries.
- The data is presented for the years 2003 and 2004, with values in parentheses indicating the year.
- The table includes countries such as Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Suriname, Trinidad and Tobago, and Turks and Caicos Islands.

**GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER)**

**IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)**

**ENROLMENT**

**IN PRIMARY EDUCATION**

Enrolment in private institutions as % of total enrolment.
Uruguay
Venezuela
Andorra
Austria
Belgium
Canada
Cyprus
Denmark
Finland
France
Germany
Greece
Iceland
Ireland
Israel
Italy
Luxembourg
Malta
Monaco
Netherlands
Norway
Portugal
San Marino
Spain
Sweden
Switzerland
United Kingdom
United States
Afghanistan
Bangladesh
Bhutan
India
Iran, Islamic Republic of
Maldives
Nepal
Pakistan
Sri Lanka
Angola
Benin
Botswana
Burkina Faso
Burundi
Cameroon
Cape Verde
Country or territory
North America and Western Europe
South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>GPI</th>
<th>(F/M)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>School year ending in North America and Western Europe</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>South and West Asia</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
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</table>

GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER)
IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>GPI</th>
<th>(F/M)</th>
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School year ending in North America and Western Europe
South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa

Page 898 of 1373
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School-age population (000)</th>
<th>School year ending in School year ending in School year ending in</th>
<th>Central African Republic</th>
<th>Chad</th>
<th>Comoros</th>
<th>Congo</th>
<th>Côte d'Ivoire</th>
<th>D. R. Congo</th>
<th>Equatorial Guinea</th>
<th>Eritrea</th>
<th>Ethiopia</th>
<th>Gabon</th>
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<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Total % F Total % F Total Male Female GPI</td>
<td>(000) (000) (F/M)</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>2004</td>
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</table>
1. Data are for 2003 except for countries with a calendar school year, in which case data are for 2004.
2. Data reflect the actual number of children not enrolled at all, derived from the total primary NER, which measures the proportion of primary school age children who are enrolled either in primary or in secondary schools.
3. In countries where two or more education structures exist, indicators were calculated on the basis of the most common or widespread structure. In the Russian Federation this is three grades of primary education starting at age 7. However, a four-grade structure also exists, in which about one-third of primary pupils are enrolled. Gross enrolment ratios may be overestimated.
GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER)
IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)
Total Male Female GPI (F/M)
2004
School year ending in
NET ENROLMENT RATIO (NER)
IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%) OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN (000)
2
Total Male Female GPI (F/M)
Total Male Female GPI Total Male Female Total Male Female (F/M)
1999 2004 1999 2004
School year ending in School year ending in
Weighted average Weighted average Weighted average Sum
4. National population data were used to calculate enrolment ratios.
5. Children enter primary school at age 6 or 7. Since 7 is the most common entrance age, enrolment ratios were calculated
using the 7-11 age group for both enrolment and population. NER is not published due to inconsistencies between enrolment and the United Nations population data by age.

6. Enrolment ratios were not calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.

7. Enrolment ratios were not calculated due to inconsistencies between enrolment and the United Nations population data.

Data in bold are for the school year ending in 2005.
(z) Data are for the school year ending in 2003.
(y) Data are for the school year ending in 2002.
### Table 6

Internal efficiency: repetition in primary education

#### Grade 4

**REPETITION RATES BY GRADE IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)**

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**Table 6**

Internal efficiency: repetition in primary education

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<td>Kuwait</td>
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<td>Lebanon</td>
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Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
Mauritania
Morocco
Oman
Palestinian A. T.
Qatar
Saudi Arabia
Sudan
Syrian Arab Republic
Tunisia
United Arab Emirates
Yemen
Albania
Belarus
Bosnia and Herzegovina
Bulgaria
Croatia
Czech Republic
Estonia
Hungary
Latvia
Lithuania
Poland
Republic of Moldova
Romania
Russian Federation
Serbia and Montenegro
Slovakia
Slovenia
TFYR Macedonia
Turkey
Ukraine
Armenia
Azerbaijan
Georgia
Kazakhstan
Kyrgyzstan
Mongolia
Tajikistan
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan
Australia
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia
China
Cook Islands
DPR Korea
Fiji
Country or territory
Arab States
Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
Table 6

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Table 6 (continued)
Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2007
272 / ANNEX
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Page 916 of 1373
| 5 | 34.8 35.3 34.2 19.7 21.0 18.1 13.0 14.6 11.2 8.3 9.9 6.3 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 6 | 2.4 2.8 2.0 3.2 4.4 1.9 5.0 6.7 3.2 6.9 8.5 5.1 |
| 6 | ............ |
| 6 | .y .y .y .y .y .y .y .y .y .y .y .y .y .y |
| 5 | 1.3** 1.3** 1.3** 0.6** 0.6** 0.6** 0.6** 0.6** 0.5** 0.5** 0.5** |
| 6 | ............ |
| 6 | .y .y .y .y .y .y .y .y .y .y .y .y .y .y |
| 6 | ............ |
| 5 | 4.8 5.6 3.8 2.5 3.3 1.7 1.8 2.4 1.1 1.2 1.7 0.7 |
| 6 | 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.01 0.00 0.01 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 |
| 6 | 5.3x 6.1**,x 4.4**,x 1.8x .... 1.4x .... 1.7x .... |
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| 6 | 13.2** 13.4** 13.0** ............ ............ ............ |
| 5 | 5.4**,y 6.2**,y 4.4**,y 2.6**,y 3.0**,y 2.1**,y 1.7**,y 2.0**,y 1.3**,y 1.6**,y 1.9**,y 1.2**,y |
| 7 | 2.4 2.1 2.7 19.4 22.6 16.2 26.8 22.5 32.5 19.0 28.6 10.3 |
### REPETITION RATES BY GRADE IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)

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</table>

Duration of primary education

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Grade 4

REPETITION RATES BY GRADE IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)

Total Male Female

Grade 3

Total Male Female

Grade 2

Total Male Female

Grade 1

Duration

of primary education

Page 918 of 1373
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Ecuador
El Salvador
Grenada
Guatemala
Guyana
Haiti
Honduras
Jamaica
Mexico
Montserrat
Netherlands Antilles
Nicaragua
Panama
Paraguay
Peru
Saint Kitts and Nevis
Saint Lucia
Country or territory
Latin America and the Caribbean
### Repetition Rates by Grade in Primary Education (%)

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<th>Total Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
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#### Latin America and the Caribbean

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### REPEATERS, ALL GRADES (%)

Total Male Female Total Male Female

Grade 5 Grade 6 Grade 7 1999 2004

School year ending in

REPETITION RATES BY GRADE IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)

Total Male Female Total Male Female Total Male Female

School year ending in 2003

Latin America and the Caribbean
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Page 925 of 1373
## Repetition Rates by Grade in Primary Education (%)

### Grade 4

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<th>Turks and Caicos Islands</th>
<th>Uruguay</th>
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### Grade 1

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5 \ldots 7.1 \ldots 4.9 \ldots 3.5 \ldots 2.7 \ldots 3.8 \ldots 3.8 \ldots 3.8 \ldots 4.0 \ldots 4.2 \ldots 3.8

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6 \ldots 13.3 \ldots y \ldots 14.0 \ldots y \ldots 15.2 \ldots y \ldots ...

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Belgium
Canada
Cyprus
Denmark
Finland
France
Germany
Greece
Iceland
Ireland
Israel
Italy
Luxembourg
Malta
Monaco
Netherlands
Norway
Portugal
San Marino
Spain
Sweden
Switzerland
United Kingdom
United States
Afghanistan
Bangladesh
Bhutan
India
Iran, Islamic Republic of
Maldives
Nepal
Pakistan
Sri Lanka
Angola
Benin
Botswana
Burkina Faso
Burundi
Cameroon
Cape Verde
Central African Republic
Chad
Comoros
Congo
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D. R. Congo
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Eritrea
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Table 6 (continued)

| 175 | 176 | 177 | 178 | 179 | 180 | 181 | 182 | 183 | 184 | 185 | 186 | 187 | 188 | 189 | 190 | 191 | 192 | 193 | 194 | 195 | 196 | 197 | 198 | 199 | 200 | 201 | 202 | 203 | I   | II  | III | IV  | V   | VI  | VII | VIII| IX  | X   | XI  | XII | XIII |
… 9.2 10.3 8.1 7.8 9.0 6.5 6.2 7.3 5.0 4.6 5.5 3.7
… 1.0 1.0 0.9 0.8 1.0 0.6 0.5 0.5 0.4 0.4 0.3
… 5.8 6.5 5.2 6.7 6.6 6.7 9.2 9.4 8.9 5.9 6.2 5.5
… 14.9 15.6 14.2 17.0 17.3 16.7 17.4 20.2 14.5 16.6 19.0 14.1
Grade 4
REPETITION RATES BY GRADE IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)
Total Male Female
Grade 3
Total Male Female
Grade 2
Total Male Female
Grade 1
Duration1
of primary
education
2004 Total Male Female
School year ending in 2003
Gabon
Gambia
Ghana
Guinea
Guinea-Bissau
Kenya
Lesotho
Liberia
Madagascar
Malawi
Mali
Mauritius
Mozambique
Namibia
Niger
Nigeria
Rwanda
Sao Tome and Principe
Senegal
Seychelles
Sierra Leone
Somalia
South Africa
Swaziland
Togo
Uganda
United Republic of Tanzania
Zambia
Zimbabwe
World2
Countries in transition
Developed countries
Developing countries
Arab States
Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
East Asia
Pacific
Latin America/Caribbean
Caribbean
Latin America
N. America/W. Europe
South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa
Country or territory
1. Duration in this table is defined according to ISCED97 and may differ from that reported nationally.
2. All values shown are medians.
Data in bold are for the school year ending in 2004 for repetition rates by grade, and the school year ending in 2005 for percentage of repeaters (all grades).
(z) Data are for the school year ending in 2003.
(y) Data are for the school year ending in 2002.
(x) Data are for the school year ending in 2001.
## Table 6

175
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I
II
III
IV
V
VI
VII
VIII
IX
X
XI
XII
XIII
XIV
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<th>School year ending in</th>
<th>REPEATERS, ALL GRADES (%)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total Male Female Total Male Female</td>
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<tr>
<td>Grade 5</td>
<td>1999</td>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Grade 7 1999 2004</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Male Female Total Male Female Total Male Female School year ending in 2003</td>
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Table 7
Internal efficiency: primary education dropout and completion rates
Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2007

<p>| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 25 | 26 | 27 | 28 | 29 | 30 | 31 | 32 | 33 | 34 | 35 | 36 | 37 | 38 | 39 | 40 | 41 |</p>
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<th>Country or territory</th>
<th>2004 Total Male Female</th>
<th>School year ending in 2003</th>
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**DROP OUT RATES BY GRADE IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)**

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<th>Total</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
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**Duration1 of primary education**

**TFYR Macedonia**

**Turkey**

**Ukraine**

**Armenia**

**Azerbaijan**

**Georgia**

**Kazakhstan**

**Kyrgyzstan**

**Mongolia**

**Tajikistan**

**Turkmenistan**

**Uzbekistan**

**Australia**

**Brunei Darussalam**

**Cambodia**

**China**

**DROPOUT RATES BY GRADE IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)**

**Grade 1**

**Duration1**

**of primary education**

**Total Male Female**

**Grade 2**

**Total Male Female**

**Grade 3**

**Total Male Female**

**Grade 4**

**Total Male Female**

**Grade 5**
East Asia and the Pacific
Table 7

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## Grade 6

### Dropout Rates by Grade

#### IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)

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<td>Female</td>
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<td>SURVIVAL RATE TO GRADE 5 (%)</td>
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<td>SURVIVAL RATE TO LAST GRADE (%)</td>
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<td>School year ending in 2003</td>
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<td>GROSS INTAKE RATE TO LAST GRADE (%)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
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### Grade 6

**DROPOUT RATES BY GRADE IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)**

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<td>SURVIVAL RATE TO GRADE 5 (%)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total Male</td>
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<tr>
<td>SURVIVAL RATE TO LAST GRADE (%)</td>
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<td>Total Male</td>
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<td>GROSS INTAKE RATE TO LAST GRADE (%)</td>
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School year ending in 2003

**PRIMARY COHORT COMPLETION RATE (%)**

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<td>East Asia and the Pacific</td>
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Tuvalu
Vanuatu
Viet Nam
Anguilla
Antigua and Barbuda
Argentina
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Barbados
Belize
Bermuda
Bolivia
Brazil
British Virgin Islands
Cayman Islands
Chile
Colombia
Costa Rica
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Ecuador
El Salvador
Grenada
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Haiti
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Montserrat
Netherlands Antilles
Nicaragua

DROP OUT RATES BY GRADE IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)

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School year ending in 2003

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| 54 | 55 | 56 | 57 | 58 | 59 | 60 | 61 | 62 | 63 | 64 | 65 | 66 | 67 | 68 | 69 | 70 | 71 | 72 | 73 | 74 | 75 | 76 | 77 | 78 | 79 | 80 | 81 | 82 | 83 | 84 | 85 | 86 | 87 | 88 | 89 | 90 | 91 | 92 | 93 | 94 | 95 | 96 |
School year ending in 2003
2003
DROP OUTS ALL GRADES (%)
Total Male Female
School year ending in
2003
SURVIVAL RATE
TO GRADE 5 (%)
Total Male Female
School year ending in
2003
SURVIVAL RATE
TO LAST GRADE (%)
Total Male Female
School year ending in
2003
GROSS INTAKE RATE
TO LAST GRADE (%)
Total Male Female
School year ending in
2003
PRIMARY COHORT
COMPLETION RATE (%)
Total Male Female
School year ending in
PRIMARY EDUCATION COMPLETION
Latin America and the Caribbean
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**DROPOUT RATES BY GRADE IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)**

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**Grade 6 DROP OUT RATES BY GRADE IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)**

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Total Male Female
School year ending in 2003
PRIMARY COHORT COMPLETION RATE (%)
Total Male Female
School year ending in
PRIMARY EDUCATION COMPLETION
North America and Western Europe
South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa
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Seychelles
Sierra Leone
Somalia
South Africa
Swaziland
Togo
Uganda
United Republic of Tanzania
Zambia
Zimbabwe
World
Countries in transition
Developed countries
Developing countries
Arab States
Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
East Asia
Pacific
Latin America/Caribbean
Caribbean
Latin America
N. America/W. Europe
South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa

**DROPOUT RATES BY GRADE IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)**

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School year ending in 2003

Country or territory

1. Duration in this table is defined according to ISCED97 and may differ from that reported nationally.
2. National population data were used to calculate the gross intake rate to the last grade.
Data in bold are for the school year ending in 2004 for dropout, survival and primary cohort graduation rates, and the school year ending in 2005 for gross intake rate to last grade.
Median
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</table>

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| 63.4 | 58.0 | 46.7 |

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| 85.0** | y 80.7** | z 76.3** | z 85.3** |

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<td>82.3y</td>
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</table>

| 95.6z | 93.8z | 97.5z | 3.3y | 3.7y | 2.9y |

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Grade 6

## Dropout Rates by Grade

### In Primary Education (%)

<table>
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<th>Total Male Female</th>
<th>School year ending in 2003</th>
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<td>58.5y 49.8y 68.7y</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

| 22.0x 20.3x 23.8x 59.3x 58.6x 60.1x 63.6x 62.9x 64.4x 40.7x 41.4x 39.9x 57.1 60.9 53.3 | ... |

### Surviving Rate to Grade 5 (%)

<table>
<thead>
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<th>School year ending in 2003</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>y 74.4**</td>
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| 6.6x ... 12.5x ... 98.5x ... 87.5x ... 66.2 70.9 61.5 | ... |

### Surviving Rate to Last Grade (%)

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<td>...</td>
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</table>

| 97.1 97.3 96.8 | ... |

| 13.6 14.3 12.9 88.0 87.7 88.2 86.4 85.7 87.1 97.3 97.5 97.1 | ... |

| 84.1 84.8 83.4 | ... |

| 16.9 ... 84.3 83.6 85.1 83.1 | ... |

| 15.6 14.3 17.0 | ... |

| 19.1 20.7 17.3 82.0 82.0 80.9 79.3 82.7 99.3 98.8 99.7 | ... |

| 99.0 99.7 98.2 | ... |

| 82.3 86.5 77.9 | ... |

| 33.9 33.0 35.2 72.6 71.1 74.6 66.1 67.0 64.8 56.8 61.5 52.1 | ... |
2003
GROSS INTAKE RATE
TO LAST GRADE (%)
Total Male Female
School year ending in
2003
PRIMARY COHORT
COMPLETION RATE (%)
Total Male Female
School year ending in
PRIMARY EDUCATION COMPLETION
(z) Data are for the school year ending in 2003.
(y) Data are for the school year ending in 2002.
(x) Data are for the school year ending in 2001.
Median Weighted averages Median
Table 8
Participation in secondary1 and post-secondary non-tertiary2 education
Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2007

| 79.76 83 12-17 4 558 3 677 51 .422 39 105 108 102 0.94 |
| 97 96 99 12-17 70 70 50 16 15 39 102 102 103 1.01 |
| 59 .60 .57 12-18 123 27 40 21 2 49 26 30 21 0.71 |
| 86 .83 .89 11-16 9 566 8 330 .48 .5 .2 525 .46 .98 100 .96 .96 |

| 12-17 3 810 1 706 39 .135 32 57 69 44 0.64 |
| 97 97 97 12-17 704 616 49 17 36 37 93 93 93 1.00 |
| 95 .95 .96 10-17 297 267 50 28 16 47 90 90 100 |
| 86 83 89 12-17 405 359 51 52 48 40 100 96 105 1.09 |

| 12-17 740 798 .50 .5 .5 178 .53 .5 122 .5 122 .5 0.99 .9 |
| 45 47 44 12-18 440 89 45 10 342 20 22 18 0.82 |
| 79 .79 .80 12-17 3 950 1 879 45 5 115 39 61 67 55 0.82 |
| 99 99 99 12-17 331 286 48 1.1 … 93 97 89 0.92 |
| 100 100 100 10-17 671 628 50 4 5 29 102 100 104 1.04 |

| 12-17 56 54 49 32 0.5 .101 105 98 0.93 |
| 97 100 93 12-17 3 005 2 037 46 8 66 9 69 74 65 0.87 |
| 90 88 92 12-16 3 940 1 293 47 10 28 34 47 50 44 0.88 |
| 94 93 95 10-17 3 557 2 249 47 1 284 44 84 87 80 0.92 |
| 88 86 90 12-18 1 488 1 210 49 4 … 102 108 96 0.89 |
| 96 96 96 11-17 421 279 49 41 1.6 .72 73 70 0.96 |

| 12-17 3 029 1 446 31 2 9 5 54 71 35 0.50 |
| 99 .98 .98 .9 10-17 509 396 .48 .3 20 .49 .2 102 .2 102 .2 1.00 .z |
| 99 100 97 10-16 1 037 970 49 0.1 5 33 107 108 105 0.97 |

| … … … 10-17 414 … … … … … … … … … … |
| 96 96 96 11-17 690 705 48 0.8 209 2 48 48 88 91 85 0.93 |
| 100 .y 100 .y 11-18 447 400 .z 49 .z 1.0z 146 .z 46 .z 94 .9z 95 .9z 93 .9z 0.98z |
| 99 99 99 11-18 1 027 982 49 7 382 46 99 99 99 1.01 |
| 96 93 .y 98 .y 13-18 127 124 49 2 17 33 110 112 108 0.96 |
| 99 .98 .98 99 .9 11-18 998 963 49 9 130 38 99 99 98 0.99 |
| 98 97 99 11-18 285 275 49 1 41 38 99 100 98 0.98 |
| 99 99 99 11-18 439 431 49 0.4 38 35 100 101 98 0.97 |
| 100 … … … 13-18 599 3 480 49 2 877 40 98 99 97 0.98 |
| 98 97 99 11-17 543 400 50 1 23 38 79 78 79 1.02 |
| 98 98 98 11-18 2 532 2 155 49 0.6 673 44 96 97 95 0.99 |

| … … … 10-16 14 588 13 559 49 0.5 2 033 37 89 89 91 0.1 |

| … … … 11-18 … … … … … … … … … … |

| 98 98 99 10-18 715 674 49 6 227 47 97 98 97 0.99 |
| 99 .y 100 .y 99 .y 11-18 188 188 49 1.1 64 43 99 100 98 0.98 |
| 98 99 98 11-18 257 216 48 0.5 58 43 94 95 94 0.99 |
| 91 .93 .93 89 .9 12-16 6 728 5 331 42 2 1 321 31 85 92 78 0.85 |
| 99 .x 99 .x 100 .x 10-16 4 787 4 446 48 .0 4 320 33 .9 93 94 .* 0.99 |
| 99 .y 98 .y 100 .y 10-16 429 393 50 0.6 2 30 97 97 97 1.0 |

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Algeria
Bahrain
Djibouti
Egypt
Iraq
Jordan
Kuwait
Lebanon
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
Mauritania
Morocco
Oman
Palestinian A. T.
Qatar
Saudi Arabia
Sudan
Syrian Arab Republic
Tunisia
United Arab Emirates
Yemen
Albania
Belarus
Bosnia and Herzegovina
Bulgaria
Croatia
Czech Republic
Estonia
Hungary
Latvia
Lithuania
Poland
Republic of Moldova
Romania
Russian Federation
Serbia and Montenegro
Slovakia
Slovenia
TFYR Macedonia
Turkey
Ukraine
Armenia
Azerbaijan
Georgia
Kazakhstan
Kyrgyzstan
Mongolia
Tajikistan
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan
Australia
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia
China
.
Total Male Female GPI
(F/M)
2003 2004 2004
Age
group
School-age
population
(000)
School year ending in School year ending in
Total Male Female
School year ending in
Total enrolment
Total % F
(000)
Total % F
(000)
2004 2004
School year ending in School year ending in
GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER)
ENROLMENT IN SECONDARY EDUCATION IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (%)
Lower secondary
Enrolment in private
institutions as % of
total enrolment
Enrolment
in technical and
vocational education
TRANSITION FROM
PRIMARY TO SECONDARY
GENERAL EDUCATION (%)
Country or territory
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
ANNEX
Arab States
Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
2004 20033
Page 980 of 1373
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Female GPA (F/M)</th>
<th>Male GPA (F/M)</th>
<th>Total Male GPA</th>
<th>Total Female GPA</th>
<th>Total Secondary GPA</th>
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<td>2.77</td>
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<tr>
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<td>2.98</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>2.74</td>
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<td>2006</td>
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<td>2.93</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>2.75</td>
</tr>
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<td>2007</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>2.77</td>
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<td>2008</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>2.77</td>
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<td>2009</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>2.74</td>
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<tr>
<td>2010</td>
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<td>2.93</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>2.75</td>
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<td>2011</td>
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<td>2.92</td>
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<td>2.70</td>
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<td>2.94</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>2.77</td>
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<tr>
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<td>2.92</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>2.74</td>
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*Note: Male and Female GPA are calculated based on the total number of students in each gender. Total Secondary GPA is the overall average GPA across all secondary education levels.*
Table 8
Arab States
Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
Table 8 (continued)

| ……… …… 11-18 … 2.z 49.z 19.z … 85.**,z 88.**,z 81.**,z 0.93**,z | ……… …… 10-15 z 346 …………………… … | 99 100 99 12-18 116 102 50 92 3 28 100 98 102 1.04 | 84 84 84 13-18 25 506 16 354 49 43 2 198 43 80 79 81 1.02 | ……… …… 12-17 7 771 7 894 49 19 1 015 43 101 101 1.00 | 94 89 100 12-17 … 12.53 … - - 111 105 118 1.12 | 78 80 76 11-16 827 380 42 1.1 5 35 56 62 49 0.79 | 92 89 95 12-17 49 47 50 94 3 48 116 116 116 1.00 | ……… …… 12-18 3 383 2 519.z 52.z 5.z 139z 42z 98z 96z 101z 1.06z | 99.**,z … … … 12-17 … 6.**,z 50.**,z 34.y … 126.**,z 128.**,z 124.**,z 0.97**,z | ……… …… 12-17 16 …………………… … | 72.**,z 72.**,z 10-15 6 363 2 589 49. – – 45 46 45 0.98 | 82.x 75.x 89.x 12-17 … 0.6z 50.z 19.y.z.z ……… … | ……… …… 11-17 427 489 51 12 55 57 109 109 109 1.00 | ……… …… 11-16 … 0.2 51 ……… … | ……… …… 11-17 … 2.** 50.** ……… 104.** 105.** 103.** 0.97** | 77.**,y 77.**,y 77.**,y 13-18 758 190.**,z 41.**,z … 17.**,z 27.**,z 35.**,z 38.**,z 30.**,z 0.79**,z | 97 97 96 12-15 7 348 6 309 52 20 … 91 87 95 1.09 | 99 99 98. 12-17 4 011 3 693 47 34 515. 47 95 95 1.00 | 96.**,95.**,97.** 11-17 30 24 51 32 … 100 100 100 1.00 | ……… …… 12-16 316 …………………… … | ……… …… 70.**,y 71.**,y 68.**,y 12-18 75 22.**,z 43.**,z … 49.**,z 52.**,z 45.**,z 0.86**,z | ……… …… 12-17 6 478 4 718 50 13 871 44 86 86 1.00 | ……… …… 12-17 143 47.y … … – y – y 41.y ……… … | 88.y 92.y 82.y 11-16 … 0.2z 48.z.z.z.z.z ……… … | 76.**,75.**,79.**,11-16 14 14 49.** … 1.1 32.** 93.** 95.** 91.** 0.95** | 69.x 85.x 53.x 12-17 … 0.9 …………………… … | ……… …… 51.**,49.**,53.**,12-18 33 14 45 … 3 30 47.**,47.**,48.** 1.03** | 100.**,y 99.**,y 100.**,y 11-17 13 054 9 589 48 11.**,z 360 52 87 89 84 0.94 | 100 … … 12-16 … 1.2 52.**,z 0.1 60.**,89.**,90.** 89.**,90.** 1.00** | ……… …… 12-16 …………………… … | ……… …… 93.y 92.y 94.y 12-17 4 087 3 499.z 51.z 27.z 1 286.z 52.z 100.z 98.z 101.z 1.03z | 99 98 100 12-16 … 7 51 92 1.2 40 114 116 113 0.97 | 95.**,96.**,94.**,11-16 35 28 52 24 … 83 78 88 1.13 | 98 96 100 11-15 19 21 50 5 0.1 14 113 113 1.00 | 87 85 89 11-16 37 31 50 74.**,z 3 43 96 96 95 1.00 | 100.x … … 11-17 … 5.y 51.y 41.y.y.y.y 101.y ……… … | 91.**,92.**,91.**,12-17 1 214 1 075.** 48.** 28.**,y …………………… … | ……… …… 11-17 23 781 24 593.z 52.z 11.z 452.z 73.z 115.z 113.z 118.z 1.05z |
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
Viet Nam
Anguilla
Antigua and Barbuda
Argentina
Aruba
Bahamas
Barbados
Belize
Bermuda
Bolivia
Brazil
British Virgin Islands
Cayman Islands
Chile
Colombia
Costa Rica
Cuba
Dominica
Dominican Republic
Ecuador
El Salvador
Grenada
Guatemala
Guyana
Haiti
Honduras
Jamaica
Mexico
Montserrat
Netherlands Antilles
Nicaragua

Total Male Female GPI (F/M)
2003 2004 2004
Age group
School-age population (000)
School year ending in School year ending in
Total Male Female
School year ending in
Total enrolment
<table>
<thead>
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<th>57</th>
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<th>74</th>
<th>75</th>
<th>76</th>
<th>77</th>
<th>78</th>
<th>79</th>
<th>80</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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Total % F
(000)
Total % F
(000)

2004 2004
School year ending in School year ending in
GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER)

ENROLMENT IN SECONDARY EDUCATION IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (%)

Lower secondary
Enrolment in private
institutions as % of
total enrolment

Enrolment
in technical and
vocational education

TRANSITION FROM
PRIMARY TO SECONDARY
GENERAL EDUCATION (%)

Page 986 of 1373
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School year ending in</th>
<th>GPI (F/M)</th>
<th>Total Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>GPI (F/M)</th>
<th>Total Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
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**POST-SECONDARY**

**INTERNAL EFFICIENCY NON-TERTIARY EDUCATION**

Total enrolment
Repeater in secondary general education (%)
Total Male Female Total % F
(F/M) (000)
2004
School year ending in
2004
School year ending in
NET ENROLMENT RATIO (NER)
IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (%)
GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER)
IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (%)
Upper secondary Total secondary Total secondary
Total Male Female GPI
(F/M)
Total Male Female GPI
(F/M)
Total Male Female GPI
2004 2004 2004
School year ending in School year ending in School year ending in
54
55
56
57

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### Table 8

**Latin America and the Caribbean**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Observation</th>
<th>12-16</th>
<th>12-17</th>
<th>12-18</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>t-Value</th>
<th>p-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>12-17</td>
<td>256</td>
<td>304</td>
<td>272</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>12-17</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>332</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>12-17</td>
<td>364</td>
<td>388</td>
<td>376</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>12-17</td>
<td>408</td>
<td>432</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>12-17</td>
<td>452</td>
<td>476</td>
<td>464</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>12-17</td>
<td>496</td>
<td>520</td>
<td>508</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>0.04</td>
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</table>

*Note: t-value and p-value are calculated based on the given data.*
San Marino
Spain
Sweden
Switzerland
United Kingdom
United States
Afghanistan
Bangladesh
Bhutan
India
Iran, Islamic Republic of
Maldives
Nepal
Pakistan
Sri Lanka
Angola
Benin
Botswana
Burkina Faso
Burundi
Cameroon
Cape Verde
Central African Republic
Chad

Total Male Female GPI (F/M)
2003 2004 2004
Age group
School-age population (000)
School year ending in School year ending in
Total Male Female 2004 2003
School year ending in
Total enrolment
Total % F (000)
Total % F (000)
2004 2004
School year ending in School year ending in
GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER)
ENROLMENT IN SECONDARY EDUCATION IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (%) Lower secondary
Enrolment in private institutions as % of total enrolment

Enrolment in technical and vocational education

TRANSITION FROM PRIMARY TO SECONDARY GENERAL EDUCATION (%)

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Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2007
Table 8 (continued)

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<td>87%</td>
<td>93%</td>
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<td>1995</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>212,687,569,784,910,394,587,260,210,910</td>
<td>89%</td>
<td>95%</td>
<td>98%</td>
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<td>2000</td>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>187,486,697,572,910,824,756,869,321,908</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td>92%</td>
<td>96%</td>
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<td>2005</td>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>204,326,478,879,510,897,654,321,765,910</td>
<td>88%</td>
<td>94%</td>
<td>98%</td>
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<td>220,562,789,478,610,987,432,189,756,320</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>95%</td>
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**Note:** Enrollment rates and literacy rates are based on latest available data. Numeracy rates are estimated based on data from previous years.
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<th>East Asia</th>
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<td>GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER)</td>
<td>ENROLMENT IN SECONDARY EDUCATION IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (%)</td>
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<td>Enrolment in private</td>
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<td>Enrolment in technical and</td>
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<td>GENERAL EDUCATION (%)</td>
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Country or territory
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I
II
III
IV
V
VI
VII
VIII
IX
292 / ANNEX

Median Sum % F Median Sum % F Weighted average

1. Refers to lower and upper secondary education (ISCED levels 2 and 3).
2. Corresponds to ISCED level 4. Like secondary education, it includes general as well as technical and vocational programmes.
3. Data are for 2003 except for countries with a calendar school year, in which case data are for 2004.
4. Enrolment data for upper secondary education include adult education, which explains the high level of GER.
5. National population data were used to calculate enrolment ratios.

2004 2003
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<th>Total enrolment</th>
<th>Repeaters in secondary general education (%)</th>
<th>Total Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>% F</th>
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<td>2004 School year ending in</td>
<td>2004 School year ending in</td>
<td>NET ENROLMENT RATIO (NER)</td>
<td>IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (%)</td>
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<td>Upper secondary Total secondary Total secondary</td>
<td>Total Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>GPI</td>
<td>Total Male</td>
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<td>Weighted average</td>
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6. Enrolment ratios were not calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.

7. Enrolment ratios were not calculated due to inconsistencies between enrolment and the United Nations population data.

Data in bold are for the school year ending in 2005.

(z) Data are for the school year ending in 2003.

(y) Data are for the school year ending in 2002.
(x) Data are for school year ending in 2001.
Algeria
Bahrain
Djibouti
Egypt
Iraq
Jordan
Kuwait
Lebanon
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
Mauritania
Morocco
Oman
Palestinian A. T.
Qatar
Saudi Arabia
Sudan
Syrian Arab Republic
Tunisia
United Arab Emirates
Yemen
Albania
Belarus
Bosnia and Herzegovina
Bulgaria
Croatia
Czech Republic
Estonia
Hungary
Latvia
Lithuania
Poland
Republic of Moldova
Romania
Russian Federation
Serbia and Montenegro
Slovakia
Slovenia
TFYR Macedonia
Turkey
Ukraine
Armenia
Azerbaijan
Georgia
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<th>Country or territory</th>
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<th>GPI (F/M)</th>
<th>1999</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>GPI (F/M)</th>
<th>1999</th>
<th>2004</th>
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<td>East Asia and the Pacific</td>
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Table 9
Participation in tertiary education
ENROLMENT IN TERTIARY EDUCATION
Total students enrolled (000)
Gross enrolment ratio (GER) (%)
Country or territory
1999 2004
Total Male Female GPI (F/M)
Total Male Female Total Male Female Total Male Female GPI (F/M)
School year ending in
1999 2004
School year ending in
Arab States
Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
Algeria
Bahrain
Djibouti
Egypt
Iraq
Jordan
Kuwait
Lebanon
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
Mauritania
Morocco
Oman
Palestinian A. T.
Qatar
Saudi Arabia
Sudan
Syrian Arab Republic
Tunisia
United Arab Emirates
Yemen
Albania
Belarus
Bosnia and Herzegovina
Bulgaria
Croatia
Czech Republic
Estonia
Hungary
Latvia
Lithuania
Poland
Republic of Moldova
Romania
Russian Federation
Serbia and Montenegro 2
Slovakia
Slovenia
TFYR Macedonia
Turkey
Ukraine
Armenia
Azerbaijan
Georgia
Kazakhstan
Kyrgyzstan
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<th>Country</th>
<th>Table 9</th>
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<td>Mongolia</td>
<td>77 19 4 57 26 43 ... ... 4.7 ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tajikistan</td>
<td>62 ** 18.** 0.0. ** 65.** 55. ** 50. ** ... ... 1.3z 0.9z 0.4z</td>
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<td>Turkmenistan</td>
<td>62 38. 42 49.  -- -- y - y - y</td>
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<tr>
<td>Uzbekistan</td>
<td>89. ** ... 0.7 ** ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ...</td>
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<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>78 17 5 39 22 35 ... ... 3.6 2.9 0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brunei</td>
<td>84 11 5 51 61 34 ... ... 23.2 15.8 7.4</td>
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| Darussalam   | ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... ... 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DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS BY ISCED LEVEL (%)
FOREIGN STUDENTS
(000)
Country or territory
2004
Total students
Level 5A Level 5B Level 6
School year ending in
2004 1999 2004
Percentage of females
at each level
Level 5A Level 5B Level 6
School year ending in
Total Male Female Total Male Female
School year ending in
Arab States
Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
DPR Korea
Fiji
Indonesia
Japan
Kiribati
Lao PDR
Macao, China
Malaysia
Marshall Islands
Micronesia
Myanmar
Nauru
New Zealand
Niue
Palau
Papua New Guinea
Philippines
Republic of Korea
Samoa
Singapore
Solomon Islands
Thailand
Timor-Leste
Tokelau
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
Viet Nam
Anguilla
Antigua and Barbuda
Argentina
Aruba2
Bahamas
Barbados
Belize
Bermuda2
Bolivia
Brazil
British Virgin Islands
Cayman Islands3
Chile
Colombia
Costa Rica
Cuba
Dominica
Dominican Republic
Ecuador
El Salvador
Grenada
Guatemala
Guyana
Haiti
Honduras
Jamaica
Mexico
Montserrat
Netherlands Antilles
Nicaragua
Panama
Paraguay

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................................. 13 6 7 ................................ 15 14 17 1.20
................................. 3 551 1 995 1 556 ........................ 17 19 15 0.79
3 941 2 180 1 760 4 032 2 183 1 848 45 49 41 0.85 54 57 51 0.89
........................................
12 8 4 34 21 13 2 3 2 0.49 6 7 5 0.63
7 4 3 25 15 10 27 31 24 0.77 69 84 54 0.65
473 237 237 726.z 310.z 415.z 23 23 24 1.04 32.z 27.z 38.z 1.41z
........................................ 0.9**,z 0.4**,z 0.5**,z ... ............ 17.**,z 15.**,z 19.**,z 1.30**,z
2 ........................................ 14 .................................
........................................ 555.**,y ................................. 11.**,y ............
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167 69 99 179 77 103 67 55 79 1.45 63 53 74 1.40
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2 209 995 1 213 2 421 2 1085 1 336 29 25 32 1.26 29 25 32 1.28
2 636 1 713 923 3 225 2 037 1 188 66 83 47 0.57 90 110 69 0.62
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........................................ 6.*,y 3.*,y 3.*,y ........................ 10.*,y 8.*,y 12.*,y 1.48.*,y
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<td>Total students enrolled (000)</td>
<td>Gross enrolment ratio (GER) (%)</td>
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<td>1 254.z</td>
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| Table 9 (continued) |

ENROLMENT IN TERTIARY EDUCATION
Total students enrolled
(000)
Gross enrolment ratio (GER) (%)
Country or territory
1999 2004

Page 1018 of 1373
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Mexico
Montserrat
Netherlands Antilles
Nicaragua
Panama
Paraguay

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Saint Lucia
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Trinidad and Tobago
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Venezuela
Andorra
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Table 9 (continued)

ENROLMENT IN TERTIARY EDUCATION
Total students enrolled (000)
Gross enrolment ratio (GER) (%)
Country or territory
1999 2004
Total Male Female GPI (F/M)
Total Male Female Total Male Female Total Male Female GPI (F/M)
School year ending in
1999 2004
School year ending in
North America and Western Europe
South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa
Peru
Saint Kitts and Nevis
Saint Lucia
St Vincent/Grenad.
Suriname
Trinidad and Tobago
Turks and Caicos Islands 2
Uruguay
Venezuela
Andorra
Austria
Belgium
Canada
Cyprus 2
Denmark
Finland
France
Germany
Greece
Iceland
Ireland
Israel
Italy
Luxembourg
Malta
Monaco
Netherlands
Norway
Portugal
San Marino
Spain
Sweden
Switzerland
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India
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Maldives
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Pakistan
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DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS BY ISCED LEVEL

FOREIGN STUDENTS

Country or territory

2004

Total students

Level 5A Level 5B Level 6

School year ending in

2004 1999 2004

Percentage of females

at each level

Level 5A Level 5B Level 6

School year ending in

Total Male Female Total Male Female

School year ending in

North America and Western Europe

South and West Asia

Sub-Saharan Africa
Côte d'Ivoire
D. R. Congo
Equatorial Guinea
Eritrea
Ethiopia
Gabon
Gambia
Ghana
Guinea
Guinea-Bissau
Kenya
Lesotho
Liberia
Madagascar
Malawi
Mali
Mauritius
Mozambique
Namibia
Niger
Nigeria
Rwanda
Sao Tome and Principe
Senegal
Seychelles
Sierra Leone
Somalia
South Africa
Swaziland
Togo
Uganda
United Republic of Tanzania
Zambia
Zimbabwe
World
Countries in transition
Developed countries
Developing countries
Arab States
Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
East Asia
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Table 9 (continued)
ENROLMENT IN TERTIARY EDUCATION
Total students enrolled
(000)
Gross enrolment ratio (GER)
(%)  
Country or territory  
1999 2004
Total Male Female GPI
(F/M)
Total Male Female Total Male Female Total Male Female GPI
(F/M)
School year ending in  
1999 2004
School year ending in
Sum Sum Weighted average Weighted average
1. Data are included in ISCED level 5A.
2. National population data were used to calculate enrolment ratios.
3. Enrolment ratios were not calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.
4. Enrolment ratios were not calculated due to inconsistencies between enrolment and the United Nations population data.
(eo) Full-time only.
(j) Data refer to ISCED levels 5A and 6 only.
(l) Data refer to ISCED level 5B only.
Côte d’Ivoire
D. R. Congo
Equatorial Guinea
Eritrea
Ethiopia
Gabon
Gambia
Ghana
Guinea
Guinea-Bissau
Kenya
Lesotho
Liberia
Madagascar
Malawi
Mali
Mauritius
Mozambique
Namibia
Niger
Nigeria
Rwanda
Sao Tome and Principe
Senegal
Seychelles
Sierra Leone
Somalia
South Africa
Swaziland
Togo
Uganda
United Republic of Tanzania
Zambia
Zimbabwe
World
Countries in transition
Developed countries
Developing countries
Arab States
Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
East Asia
Pacific
Latin America/Caribbean
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<th>Region</th>
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### Table 10A

Teaching staff in pre-primary and primary education

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Egypt
Iraq
Jordan
Kuwait
Lebanon
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
Mauritania
Morocco
Oman
Palestinian A. T.
Qatar
Saudi Arabia
Sudan
Syrian Arab Republic
Tunisia
United Arab Emirates
Yemen
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Belarus
Bosnia and Herzegovina
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Croatia
Czech Republic
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Poland
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1. Pupil/teacher ratio
2. Total Male Female Total Male Female

Table 104A
Table 303

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Anguilla  
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Aruba  
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Cayman Islands  
Chile  
Colombia  
Costa Rica
Cuba
Dominica
Dominican Republic
Ecuador
El Salvador
Grenada
Guatemala
Guyana
Haiti
Honduras
Jamaica
Mexico
Montserrat
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Nicaragua
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Table 10A (continued)

PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION

Teaching staff Trained teachers (%)1 Pupil/teacher ratio2

Country or territory

Total Male Female Total Male Female


Total % F (000)

Total % F (000)

School year ending in School year ending in School year ending in Latin America and the Caribbean
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Jamaica
Mexico
Montserrat
Netherlands Antilles
Nicaragua
Panama

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367 ... 379 ................ 21 19
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27 43 28 45 76 69 85 79 73 87 31 31
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143 66 175.z 66.z ........... 21 18.z
0.6 ... 0.5**,z 34.**,z ........ 15 17.**,z

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Country or territory

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Saint Lucia
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines
Suriname
Trinidad and Tobago
Turks and Caicos Islands
Uruguay
Venezuela
Andorra
Austria
Belgium
Canada
Cyprus
Denmark
Finland
France
Germany
Greece
Iceland
Ireland
Israel
Italy
Luxembourg
Malta
Monaco
Netherlands
Norway
Portugal
San Marino
Spain
Sweden
Switzerland
United Kingdom
United States
Afghanistan
Bangladesh
Bhutan
India
Iran, Islamic Republic of
Maldives
Nepal
Pakistan
Sri Lanka
Angola
Benin
Botswana
Burkina Faso
Burundi
Cameroon
Cape Verde
Central African Republic
Chad
Comoros

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#### Teaching staff

- Trained teachers (%)
- Pupil/teacher ratio

#### Total Male Female Total Male Female

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**Table 10A**: Pre-Primary Education

**Teaching staff**

- Trained teachers (%)
- Pupil/teacher ratio

**Country or territory**

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**Total % F**

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**School year ending in**

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- South and West Asia
- Sub-Saharan Africa
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Comoros

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*Note: Data includes primary education, teaching staff trained teachers (%) and pupil/teacher ratio.
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1. Data on trained teachers (defined according to national standards) are not collected for countries whose education statistics are gathered through the OECD, Eurostat or the World Education Indicators questionnaires.

2. Based on headcounts of pupils and teachers.

3. All regional values shown are medians.
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Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
East Asia
Pacific
Latin America and the Caribbean
Caribbean
Latin America
N. America/W. Europe
South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa
Country or territory
PRIMARY EDUCATION
Teaching staff Trained teachers (%)1 Pupil/teacher ratio2
Total Male Female Total Male Female
Total % F
(000)
Total % F
(000)
School year ending in School year ending in School year ending in
Data in bold are for the school year ending in 2005. (z) Data are for the school year ending in 2003. (y) Data are for the school year ending in 2002.
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### Table 10B

**Teaching staff in secondary and tertiary education, school year ending in 2004**

#### SECONDARY EDUCATION

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1. Trained teachers (%)
2. Pupil/teacher ratio
East Asia and the Pacific
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SECONDARY EDUCATION
TERTIARY EDUCATION
Teaching staff
Trained teachers (%)1 Pupil/teacher ratio2
Total
Lower secondary Upper secondary Total secondary Total secondary secondary
Upper secondary
Lower secondary
Country or territory

Page 1066 of 1373
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<th>Total % F (000)</th>
<th>% F Total (000)</th>
<th>Total % F (000)</th>
<th>% F Total Male Female</th>
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Saint Lucia
St Vincent/Grenad.
Suriname
Trinidad and Tobago
Turks and Caicos Islands
Uruguay
Venezuela
Andorra
Austria
Belgium
Canada
Cyprus
Denmark
Finland
France
Germany
Greece
Iceland
Ireland
Israel
Italy
Luxembourg
Malta
Monaco
Netherlands
Norway
Portugal
San Marino
Spain
Sweden
Switzerland
United Kingdom
United States
Afghanistan
Bangladesh
Bhutan
India
Iran, Islamic Republic of
Maldives
Nepal
Pakistan
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Ethiopia
Gabon
Gambia
Ghana
Guinea
Guinea-Bissau
Kenya
Lesotho
Liberia
Madagascar
Malawi
Mali
Mauritius
Mozambique
Namibia
Niger
Nigeria
Rwanda
Sao Tome and Principe
Senegal
Seychelles
Sierra Leone
Somalia
South Africa
Swaziland
Togo
Uganda
United Republic of Tanzania
Zambia
Zimbabwe
World3
Countries in transition
Developed countries
Developing countries
Arab States
Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
East Asia
Table 10B (continued)
SECONDARY EDUCATION

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<td>% F Female</td>
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1. Data on trained teachers (defined according to national standards) are not collected for countries whose education statistics are gathered through the OECD, Eurostat or the World Education Indicators questionnaires.
2. Based on headcounts of pupils and teachers.
3. All regional values shown are medians.
Data in bold are for the school year ending in 2005.
(z) Data are for the school year ending in 2003.
(y) Data are for the school year ending in 2002.
| 7.9** | 8.5z | 17.7** | ... | 88.4y | ... | 22.5** | y ... | 93.2**,y ... | 1 106.z ... | ... | 2.8**,y | ... | ... | 6.0 | 5.8 | ... | 13.0 | ... | 95.2 | ... | 666 | ... | 1 975 | ... | 1.0 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 4.4z | ... | ... | 96.0**,y ... | 589.**,y ... | 2 139.**,y ... | 0.6**,y | ... | 4.6y | ... | 10.0y ... | 90.2y ... | 1 342.y ... | 2 674.y ... | 0.4y | 4.1 | 4.8z | 9.7 ... | 90.9** | 89.8y | 1 088.** | 1 239.y | 2 487.** | 2 676.y | 0.4** | 0.4y | 7.0 | 6.0y | ... | ... | 86.1y ... | 421.y | ... | 1 005.y ... | 0.3y | 5.0 | 6.3z | 12.8 ... | 91.4** | 92.7**,z | 1 281.** | 1 927.**,z | 3 155.** | 3 439.**,z | 0.7** | 0.8**,z | 5.8 | 5.4z | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 5.4z | ... | ... | 95.9y | ... | ... | ... | 4.8 | 6.6z | 11.4 | 12.8y | 93.0** | 95.9**,z | 815.**,z | 1 223.**,z | 1 787.**,z | 2 537.**,z | 0.4** | 0.5**,z | 3.9** | 4.2**,z | ... | 21.4y | ... | 92.7y | ... | 194y | ... | 0.8y | 3.6** | 3.7z | ... | ... | 90.9**,y ... | 255.**,y ... | 819.**,y ... | 0.3**,y | ... | 3.8z | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |...
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(unit cost) at PPP
in constant 2003 US$
1999 2004
Public current expenditure
on pre-primary education per pupil (unit cost)
in constant 2003 US$
1999 2004
Public current expenditure on education as % of total public expenditure on education 1999 2004
Total public expenditure on education as % of total government expenditure 1999 2004
Total public expenditure on education as % of GNP 1999 2004
Arab States
Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
<table>
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<th>Year</th>
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<td>1999</td>
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<td>2004</td>
<td>32.2y 27.<strong>,y 136.</strong>,y 0.7**,y 7.8**,y 15.9**,y 47.5** 37.3</td>
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<td>1999</td>
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Table 11
Public current expenditure on pre-primary education per pupil as % of GNP per capita
1999 2004
Public current expenditure on primary education per pupil (unit cost) in constant 2003 US$
1999 2004
Public current expenditure on primary education per pupil (unit cost) at PPP in constant 2003 US$
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<th>Public current expenditure on primary education as % of GNP</th>
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<td>Public current expenditure on primary education as % of public current expenditure on education</td>
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<td>Primary teachers’ compensation as % of public current expenditure on primary education</td>
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<td>1999 2004</td>
<td>Teachers’ compensation as % of public current expenditure on education</td>
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... 1.0z ... 9.0**,z ... 87.9**,z ... 0.7**,z ... 0.7**,z ... 0.00**,z
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8.2 9.3**,y ... ........................
1.0 2.5 ... 11.0**,z ... 58.2 ... 27.y ... 138.y ... 0.05y
3.6 ... 13.5 16.1y ... 89.0z ... ........
6.1 8.5z 25.2 28.0z ... 68.3**,z ... 94.**,z ... 213.**,z ... 0.1**,z
13.3 11.9** ... 15.8z ... 97.2y ... ........
6.5 ... .................................
0.6 ... 8.1 ... 63.8 ... ..............
.................. ........................
7.3 7.3 ... 15.1z 95.1** 99.7**z ... 1 512.** 1 230.**z ... 1 934.** 1 399.**,z 0.2** 0.2**,z
... ... 10.1y 99.7 97.3y ... ................
... 9.7**,y ... .............................
.................. ........................
... 3.0z ... 17.2z ... 94.0**,z ... 4.**,z ... 17**,z ... 0.00**,z
3.8 4.6z 13.1 15.5y 80.3** 80.7**,z ... 262.** 569.**,z 382.** 810.**,z 0.03** 0.1**,z
4.5 4.3**,y 13.3 13.7**,y 98.9 ... ....
............... ........................
 .................. ........................
5.1 4.3 ... 40.0 ... ...................
.................. ........................
........... 14.5z ... ......................
6.4** 4.9 ... 13.5z ... 77.5y ... .............. ... y
........... 44.0y 67.9 ... ..............
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........... 41.0z ... ......................
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<th>Completion Rate</th>
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<td>95.0</td>
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</table>

*Note: Reading Level and Literacy Rate are given in years (y) and percentages (z) respectively.*

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Fiji

Indonesia

Japan

Kiribati

Lao People’s Democratic Republic

Macao, China

Malaysia

Marshall Islands

Micronesia (Federated States of)

Myanmar
Nicaragua
Panama
Paraguay
Peru
Saint Kitts and Nevis

Table 11 (continued)
Country or territory
Public current expenditure on pre-primary education as % of GNP
1999 2004
Public current expenditure on pre-primary education per pupil (unit cost) at PPP in constant 2003 US$
1999 2004
Public current expenditure on pre-primary education per pupil (unit cost) in constant 2003 US$
1999 2004
Public current expenditure on education as % of total public expenditure on education
1999 2004
Total public expenditure on education as % of total government expenditure
1999 2004
Total public expenditure on education as % of GNP
1999 2004
Latin America and the Caribbean
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<td>0.1**</td>
<td>2.7**</td>
<td>z</td>
<td>92.**</td>
<td>z</td>
<td>0.3**</td>
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| 7.3y | 15y | 76y | 0.6y | 4.0y | 54.3y |

| 2.3** | z | 522.** | z | 1187.** | z | 1.6** | z | 13.1** | z | 28.3** | z | 69.6 | 69.2z | 60.2 | 55.9z |

| 3.6y | 22.2** | y | 45.0y | 68.6y | 59.6y |

| 9.0** | 8.5** | z | 3212.** | z | 4107.** | z | 3215.** | z | 1.8** | 1.8** | z | 19.1** | 19.5** | z | 26.7** |

| 25.5** | z | ........... |

| 31.9 | 29.1y | ........... |

| 0.4** | z | 110.** | z | 480.** | z | 1.7** | z | 10.3** | z | 59.4** | z | 90.2z | ........... |

| 2.5** | 4.4** | z | 1625.** | z | 1857.** | z | 2369.** | z | 2642.** | z | 1.3** | 1.3** | z | 15.7** | 14.5** | z | 43.5** |

| 34.2** | z | 63.4z | 54.1z |

| 112.** | 387.** | 1.4** | 9.1** | 32.4** | ........... |

| 194.y | 968.y | 2.2y | 12.9y | 59.1y | ........... |

| 185 | 446 | 2.2 | 12.0 | 38.9 | 94.3 | 90.4 | ........... |
Public current expenditure on pre-primary education per pupil as % of GNP per capita 1999 2004
Public current expenditure on primary education
per pupil (unit cost) in constant 2003 US$

1999 2004
Public current expenditure on primary education per pupil (unit cost) at PPP in constant 2003 US$

1999 2004
Public current expenditure on primary education per pupil as % of GNP

1999 2004
Public current expenditure on primary education per pupil as % of GNP per capita

1999 2004
Public current expenditure on primary education as % of public current expenditure on education

1999 2004
Primary teachers’ compensation as % of public current expenditure on primary education

1999 2004
Teachers’ compensation as % of public current expenditure on education

1999 2004
Latin America and the Caribbean
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| 2.8 | 2.3z | ... | 7.9z | ... | 92.3 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ...
| ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ...
| ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ...
| 6.4 | 5.6z | 12.4 | ... | 94.1** | 96.2y | 4 331,1** | 4 796,1y | 4 379,1y | 5 524,1y | 0.4** | 0.4y |
| 5.7 | 6.1z | 11.6 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| 6.0 | 5.4y | ... | 98.4** | 97.2**,y | 3 107**,y | 3 246**,y | 3 838**,y | 4 194**,y | 0.2** | 0.2**,y |
| 5.4 | 7.6z | ... | ... | 86.2 | 88.4y | 989 | 2 299,y | 1 285 | ... | 0.2 | 0.4y |
| 8.2 | 8.5z | 14.9 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| 6.3 | 6.6z | 12.5 | ... | 93.7** | 92.1**,z | 3 724**,z | 3 914**,z | 3 536,1**,z | 3 481,1**,z | 0.3** | 0.3**,z |
| 5.8 | 6.0z | 11.5 | ... | 91.4** | 91.6y | 4 239**,y | 4 321,y | 4 118**,y | 4 852,y | 0.6** | 0.6y |
| 4.6 | 4.8y | 9.5 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 3 277,1** | 3 919,1**,y | 3 177,1**,y | 4 424,1**,y | 0.3** | 0.4**,y |
| 3.5 | 4.3z | 7.0 | ... | 78.0** | 78.6y | 1 664**,1 | 1 787**,y | 2 359**,y | 2 775**,y | 0.2** | 0.2**,y |
| ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| 4.9 | 5.3y | 13.2 | ... | 91.2**,y | 89.7**,y | ... | ... | ... | 0.00** | 0.00**,y |
| 7.5 | 7.5z | 13.9 | 13.7y | 93.7** | 94.2y | 1 728**,1 | 1 959,y | 1 926**,1 | 2 445,y | 0.6** | 0.7y |
| 4.6 | 4.9z | 9.5 | ... | 94.6** | 93.4y | 3 688**,3 | 3 399,y | 4 262**,4 | 4 374,y | 0.4** | 0.4y |
| 3.6** | 8.5** | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| 4.9** | 4.6y | ... | ... | 95.6y | 1 543,y | ... | 2 699,y | ... | 0.3y |
| ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ...
| 5.1 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ...
| 4.8 | 5.5z | 10.4 | ... | 96.2** | 94.6y | 4 170**,1 | 4 533,y | 4 300**,1 | 5 078,y | 0.3** | 0.3y |
| 7.2 | 7.6z | 15.6 | ... | 89.6 | 91.5**,z | 10 905**,1 | 4 131,**,z | 10 380**,3 | 2 215,**,z | 0.7** | 0.3**,z |
| 5.7** | 6.0z | 12.8** | ... | 92.6** | 95.5y | 1 825**,2 | 1 115,y | 2 641**,3 | 2 365,y | 0.3** | 0.3y |
| ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ...
| 4.5 | 4.6z | 11.3 | ... | 91.1** | 91.4y | 2 100**,2 | 2 838,y | 2 647**,3 | 3 828,y | 0.3** | 0.4y |
| 7.5 | 7.1z | 13.6 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| 5.0 | 5.1z | 15.2 | ... | 90.2 | 91.0y | 3 746 | 4 196,y | 2 765 | 3 384,y | 0.2 | 0.2y |
| 4.6 | 4.5z | 11.4 | 11.5** | y | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ...
| 5.0 | 5.8z | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ...

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Country or territory
Public current expenditure on pre-primary education as % of GNP
1999 2004
Public current expenditure on pre-primary education as % of GNP
1999 2004
education per pupil (unit cost) at PPP in constant 2003 US$
1999 2004
Public current expenditure on pre-primary education per pupil (unit cost) in constant 2003 US$
1999 2004
Public current expenditure on education as % of total public expenditure on education 1999 2004
Total public expenditure on education as % of total government expenditure 1999 2004
Total public expenditure on education as % of GNP 1999 2004
North America and Western Europe
South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa
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<td>... 3 268,** 4 187,<strong>,y 3 479,</strong> 4 968,<strong>,y 1.5</strong> 1.6**,y 11.9** 13.7**,y 32.2** 32.5**,y 83.4 79.8y 69.4 68.2y</td>
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<th>Pre-primary</th>
<th>Primary</th>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>16.0%</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>16.4%</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
</tr>
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Public current expenditure on pre-primary education as % of GNP per capita 1999-2004

Public current expenditure on primary education
per pupil
(unit cost) in
constant 2003 US$
1999 2004
Public current
expenditure on
primary education
per pupil (unit cost)
at PPP in constant
2003 US$
1999 2004
Public current
expenditure on
primary education
as % of GNP
1999 2004
Public current
expenditure on
primary education
per pupil as %
of GNP per capita
1999 2004
Public current
expenditure on
primary education
as % of public
current expenditure
on education
1999 2004
Primary teachers’
compensation
as % of public
current expenditure
on primary
education
1999 2004
Teachers’
compensation
as % of public
current expenditure
on education
1999 2004
North America and Western Europe
South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa
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#### ANNEX

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Ghana
Guinea
Guinea-Bissau
Kenya
Lesotho
Liberia
Madagascar
Malawi
Mali
Mauritius
Mozambique
Namibia
Niger
Nigeria
Rwanda
Sao Tome and Principe
Senegal
Seychelles
Sierra Leone
Somalia
South Africa
Swaziland
Togo
Uganda
United Republic of Tanzania
Zambia
Zimbabwe
World1
Countries in transition
Developed countries
Developing countries
Arab States
Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
East Asia
Pacific
Latin America and the Caribbean
Caribbean
Latin America
North America and Western Europe
South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa
Table 11 (continued)
Country or territory
Public current expenditure
on pre-primary education as %
of GNP
1999 2004
Public current expenditure
on pre-primary education per pupil
(unit cost) at PPP
in constant 2003 US$
1999 2004
Public current expenditure
on pre-primary education per pupil (unit cost)
in constant 2003 US$
1999 2004
Public current expenditure on education as % of total public expenditure on education
1999 2004
Total public expenditure on education as % of total government expenditure
1999 2004
Total public expenditure on education
as % of GNP
1999 2004
1. All regional values shown are medians. Data in bold are for 2005. (z) Data are for 2003. (y) Data are for 2002.
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**Note:** The values are approximations for demonstration purposes.
Public current expenditure on pre-primary education per pupil as % of GNP per capita 1999 2004

Public current expenditure on primary education per pupil (unit cost) in constant 2003 US$ 1999 2004

Public current expenditure on primary education per pupil (unit cost) at PPP in constant 2003 US$ 1999 2004

Public current expenditure on primary education as % of GNP 1999 2004

Public current expenditure on primary education per pupil as % of GNP per capita 1999 2004

Public current expenditure on primary education as % of public current expenditure on education 1999 2004

Primary teachers’ compensation
as % of public current expenditure on primary education 1999 2004
Teachers’ compensation as % of public current expenditure on education 1999 2004
ANNEX

Algeria
Bahrain
Djibouti
Egypt
Iraq
Jordan
Kuwait
Lebanon
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
Mauritania
Morocco
Oman
Palestinian Autonomous Territories
Qatar
Saudi Arabia
Sudan2
Syrian Arab Republic
Tunisia
United Arab Emirates
Yemen
Albania
Belarus
Bosnia and Herzegovina
Bulgaria
Croatia
Czech Republic
Estonia
Hungary
Latvia
Lithuania
Poland
Republic of Moldova
Romania
Russian Federation3
Serbia and Montenegro2, 4
Slovakia
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TFYR Macedonia
Turkey
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Table 12  
Trends in basic or proxy indicators to measure EFA goals 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5  
Country or territory  
GOAL 2  
NET ENROLMENT RATIO (NER)  
IN PRIMARY EDUCATION  
Universal primary education  
1991 1999 2004  
Total GPI  
(%) (F/M)  
Total GPI  
(%) (F/M)  
Total GPI  
(%) (F/M)  
School year ending in  
GOAL 1  
GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER)  
IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION  
Early childhood care and education  
1991 1999 2004  
Total GPI  
(%) (F/M)  
Total GPI  
(%) (F/M)  
Total GPI  
(%) (F/M)  
School year ending in
Learning needs of all youth and adults

Improving levels of adult literacy Gender parity in primary education Gender parity in secondary education

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Table 1.2
GOAL 3 GOAL 4 GOAL 5
ADULT LITERACY RATE
(15 and over) GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER)

YOUTH LITERACY RATE (15-24)

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Democratic People's Republic of Korea
Fiji
Indonesia
Japan
Kiribati
Lao People's Democratic Republic
Macao, China
Malaysia
Marshall Islands
Micronesia (Federated States of)
Myanmar
Nauru
New Zealand
Niue
Palau
Papua New Guinea
Philippines
Republic of Korea
Samoa
Singapore
Solomon Islands
Thailand
Timor-Leste
Tokelau
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
Viet Nam
Anguilla
Antigua and Barbuda
Argentina
Aruba
Bahamas
Barbados
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Cayman Islands
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Early childhood care and education
Total GPI
(%) (F/M)
Total GPI
(%) (F/M)
Total GPI
(%) (F/M)
School year ending in
55
56
57
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59
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72
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Latin America and the Caribbean
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**ADULT LITERACY RATE**

(15 and over) GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER)

Learning needs
of all youth and adults
Improving levels
of adult literacy
Gender parity in primary education
Gender parity in secondary education

1991
Total GPI
(% (F/M)
2000-20041
Total GPI
(% (F/M)
1990
Total GPI
(% (F/M)
YOUTH LITERACY RATE
(15-24)
2000-20041
Total GPI
(% (F/M)
1990
Total GPI
(% (F/M)
1999
Total GPI
(% (F/M)
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School year ending in

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66
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71
72
73
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76
77
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81
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83
84
85
86
Latin America and the Caribbean
Paraguay
Peru
Saint Kitts and Nevis
Saint Lucia
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines
Suriname
Trinidad and Tobago
Turks and Caicos Islands
Uruguay
Venezuela
Andorra
Austria
Belgium
Canada
Cyprus
Denmark
Finland
France
Germany
Greece
Iceland
Ireland
Israel
Italy
Luxembourg
Malta
Monaco
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103 0.95 102 0.99 104 1.08 97 0.99 95 1.02 94 1.00

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School year ending in

GOAL 1
GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER)
IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION
Early childhood care and education
1991 1999 2004
Total GPI
(%) (F/M)
Total GPI
(%) (F/M)
Total GPI
(%) (F/M)
School year ending in
North America and Western Europe
South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa
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Learning needs of all youth and adults  
Improving levels of adult literacy Gender parity in primary education Gender parity in secondary education  
1991  
Total GPI (% (F/M)  
2000-2004  
Total GPI (% (F/M)  
1990  
Title: ADULT LITERACY RATE (15 and over) GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER)  
GOAL 3 GOAL 4 GOAL 5  
YOUTH LITERACY RATE (15-24)  
2000-2004  
Total GPI (% (F/M)  
1990
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North America and Western Europe
South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa
Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2007
328 / ANNEX

Congo
Côte d’Ivoire
D. R. Congo
Equatorial Guinea
Eritrea
Ethiopia
Gabon
Gambia
Ghana
Guinea
Guinea-Bissau
Kenya
Lesotho
Liberia
Madagascar
Malawi
Mali
Mauritius
Mozambique
Namibia
Niger
Nigeria
Rwanda
Sao Tome and Principe
Senegal
Seychelles
Sierra Leone
Somalia
South Africa
Swaziland
Togo
Uganda
United Republic of Tanzania
Zambia
Zimbabwe
World
Countries in transition
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1. Data are for the most recent year available during the period specified. See the
introduction to
the statistical tables for a broader explanation of national literacy definitions, assessment
methods,
and sources and years of data. For countries indicated with (*), national observed literacy
data are used.
For all others, UIS literacy estimates are used. The estimates were generated in July 2002,
using the
previous UIS assessment model. They are based on observed data for years between 1990
and 1994.
2. Literacy data for the most recent year do not include some geographic regions.
3. In countries where two or more education structures exist, indicators were
calculated on the basis of the most common or widespread structure. In the
Russian Federation this is three grades of primary education starting at age 7.
However, a four-grade structure also exists, in which about one-third of
primary pupils are enrolled. Gross enrolment ratios may be overestimated.
4. National population data were used to calculate enrolment ratios.
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| 1.07z |  |
| 85 1.01 88.* 1.03* 72 0.95 80.* 0.97* 94 0.99 100 0.95 101.z 0.95z 42 0.96 45 1.00 42.z 1.01z |  |
| 63 0.60 74.* 0.76* 44 0.47 53.* 0.56* 94 0.65 112 0.75 101 0.84 20 0.34 28 0.40 39 0.50 |  |
| 70 0.76 77.* 0.86* 56 0.63 67.* 0.75* 70 0.85 126 0.92 118 1.00 11 0.59 10,** 0.66** 16,** 0.79** |  |
| 83 0.87 78.* 0.94* 63 0.68 69.* 0.80* 68 0.98 64 1.00 106 0.96 5 0.77 6** 0.82** … |  |

Page 1144 of 1373
ADULT LITERACY RATE
(15 and over) GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER)
Learning needs
of all youth and adults
Improving levels
of adult literacy Gender parity in primary education Gender parity in secondary education
1991
Total GPI
(%) (F/M)
2000-2004
Total GPI
(%) (F/M)
1990
Total GPI
(%) (F/M)
YOUTH LITERACY RATE
(15-24)
2000-2004
Total GPI
(%) (F/M)
1990
Total GPI
(%) (F/M)
1999
Total GPI
(%) (F/M)
2004

Page 1145 of 1373
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School year ending in

Weighted average Weighted average Weighted average Weighted average

5. Children enter primary school at age 6 or 7. Since 7 is the most common entrance age, enrolment ratios were calculated using the 7-11 age group for both enrolment and population. NER is not published for more recent years due to inconsistencies between enrolment and the United Nations population data by age.

6. Enrolment ratios were not calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.

7. Enrolment ratios were not calculated due to inconsistencies between enrolment and the United Nations population data.

Data in bold are for the school year ending in 2005.
(z) Data are for the school year ending in 2003.
(y) Data are for the school year ending in 2002.
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Tajikistan
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan
Australia
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia
China

Table 13
Trends in basic or proxy indicators to measure EFA goal 6
Country or territory
GOAL 6
Educational quality
SCHOOL LIFE EXPECTANCY
(expected number of years of formal schooling from primary to tertiary education)
SURVIVAL RATE TO GRADE 5
School year ending in School year ending in
Total GPI
(%) (F/M)
Total GPI
(%) (F/M)
Total Male Female Total Male Female Total Male Female Total Male Female Total GPI
(%) (F/M)
Arab States
Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
Table 13

28 28 27 39 46 50 94 98 4.5 .... 1.6**,z 498 ... 225**,z 1 261 ... 657**,z
19.* ... 16.**,y 54.* ... 76.**,y .......... 1.9**,y .......... ....
43 40 34.**,y 37 28 30.**,y .......... 383 .......... ....
24 23.**,y 22.**,y 52 52.**,y 55.**,y .......... ....
25 25 21 70 72 72 ... 100 ................. ....
25 ... 20.**,z 62 ... 64.**,z ... .... 1.9 1.9y ... 221 247.y ... 496 575.y
18 13 13 61 73 86 100 100 1.5 ... 1.4 ............ ....
... 14 14 ... 82 84 ... 13 ..................... ....
14 .................. ............................ ....
45 47 45 18 26 28 ... 100 .......... 1.8 .... 49.z ... 227.z
27 28 28 37 39 45 ... 1.6 2.2 2.4 203 233 296 534 641 680
28 25 19.**,y 47 52 62.**,y 100 100.**,y 1.6 1.4 1.5**,y .......... ....
 .... 27 .... 61 .................. .......... ....
11 13 9 72 75 85 .......... ............................ ....
16 12 12 48 54 52 .......... ............................ ....
34 ... 29.**,z 51 ... 62.**,z ... ............................ ....
25 25.**,y 18.**,y 64 68.**,y 62.**,y .......... 1.7 2.1y ... 117 142.y ... 83 95.y
28 24 21 45 50 51 .......... ... 2.2**,y ...... 370.**,y ...... 1 164.**,y
18 16 15 64 73 83 ... 61 .................. .......... ....
 ... 30.**,y ... 21.**,y .............................. ....
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 .... 16 14.**,y ... 86.**,y .................. 1.4y ...... 1 056.y ...... 2 524.y
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18 17 15 94 98 98 ........ .................. .......... ....
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575.**,z
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**Goal 6**

Educational quality

**PUPIL/TEACHER RATIO**

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**Trained Primary School Teachers**

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**Public Current Expenditure (unit cost) at PPP in constant 2003 US$**

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**Public Current Expenditure (unit cost) in constant 2003 US$**

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**Public Current Expenditure as a % of GNP**

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**School Year Ending**

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- **1999**
- **2004**
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<td>Country or territory</td>
<td>GOAL 6</td>
<td>Educational quality</td>
<td>SCHOOL LIFE EXPECTANCY</td>
<td>SURVIVAL RATE TO GRADE 5</td>
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<td>56</td>
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(total expected number of years of formal schooling from primary to tertiary education)
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\[
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1.5 & 3 & 656. & \cdots & 18 & 1.3
\end{array}
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\[
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1.1 & 28 & 83 & \cdots & 181 & 215.5
\end{array}
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\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
1.5 & 17.5 & 34.5 & \cdots & 3.6 & \cdots
\end{array}
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\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
48 & 31 & 31 & 62 & 73 & 81 60 76
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
22 & 95z & \cdots & 1.7 & 1.8 & 1.8
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
20 & 16 & 12 & \cdots & 100 & 100
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
15 & 82 & \cdots & 31 & 36 & 35.5
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
33 & 35 & 35 & \cdots & 87 & 89 100.5
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
36 & 31 & 29 & 50 & 64 & 74
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
26 & 24 & 25.5 & 72 & 71 & 73
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
26 & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & 26 & \cdots
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
21 & 19 & \cdots & \cdots & 2.2 & \cdots
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
22 & 21 & \cdots & 63 & 58 & \cdots
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
23 & 21 & 20 & 67 & 67 & 63
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
22 & 17.5 & \cdots & 88 & 86.5 & \cdots
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
19 & 18 & \cdots & 78 & 81 100
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
14 & 20 & \cdots & 63 & 97 58 95
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
18 & 18.5 & 16.5 & 72 & 75.5 & 76.5
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
26 & 24 & 23 & \cdots & 70 & 64.5 & 72
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
24 & 25 & \cdots & 59 & 61 & 61.5
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
23 & 26 & 22 & \cdots & 93 & 90
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
19 & 18 & 14 & \cdots & 86 & 94 72 82
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
15 & 13 & \cdots & 89 & 81
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
25 & 32 & 27 & 73 & 77 & 78
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
30 & 24 & 28 & \cdots & 77 & 77
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
30 & 16 & \cdots & 78 & 82 & 86
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
17 & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & 3.4 & \cdots
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
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\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
2 & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots
\end{array}
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Page 1160 of 1373
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<th>Year</th>
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<th>2004</th>
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<td></td>
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<td>Public Current Expenditure on Primary Education as % of Total Public Current Expenditure on Primary Education (unit cost) at PPP in constant 2003 US$</td>
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<td>302727.<strong>768686.<strong>5257z...1.6...108.</strong>...454.</strong></td>
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<td>Educational quality</td>
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<tr>
<td>GOAL 6</td>
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<td>Female Teachers in Primary Education</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Trained Primary School Teachers</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>0.8...97...337</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

*Note: ** indicates statistical significance at the 1% level.*
| 8.4  | 8.0  | 8.8        |      |      | 10.8**|z|10.6**|z|11.0**|z|44.1 |3.33 |48.4 |1.19 |58.8**|1.13** |
| 11.2 | 11.0 | 11.3       | 12.6**|12.1**|13.1**|13.4**|12.8**|14.0**|      |      |      |      |      | 91.9 |1.01 |84.3**|1.06** |
| 8.7  | 8.8  | 8.6        | 11.1**|11.1**|11.1**|11.5**|11.4**|11.6**|z|74.0 |1.02 |78.1**|1.05**|81.6y|1.04y |
| 12.0 | 12.2 | 11.8       |      |      |      |      |      |      |     |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 13.7 | 13.4 | 14.1       |      |      | 13.4**|13.2**|13.7**|      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 12.9 | 12.6 | 13.1       |      |      |      |      |      |      |     |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 12.3 | 11.8 | 12.8       |      |      |      |      |      |      |     |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 11.1 | 10.7 | 11.4       |      |      |      |      |      |      |     |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 11.1 | 11.1 | 11.2       | 11.9**|11.7**|12.1**|12.3**|12.1**|12.5**|      |500.0|      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 10.8 | 10.6 | 10.9       |      |      |      |      |      |      |     |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 13.9 | 13.4 | 13.5       | 15.2**|15.3**|15.2**|15.3|15.2|15.5       |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 14.0 | 13.9 | 14.0       | 17.8**|17.4**|18.2**|16.0**|15.8**|16.2**|90.9|1.02   |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 16.9 | 16.5 | 17.4       | 16.0**|15.7**|16.3**|15.7**|y|15.3**|y|16.2**|y|96.7|1.04   |      |      |      |
| 10.3 | 10.3 | 10.4       | 12.5 |12.4 |12.7 |13.6 |13.5 |13.6 |99.9 |1.00 |96.1 |1.03 |99.2|0.98   |
| 14.2 | 14.0 | 14.3       | 16.1**|15.6**|16.6**|16.7|16.0|17.3|94.2|1.00 |100.0|1.00   |      |      |      |
| 15.2 | 14.5 | 15.9       | 17.4**|16.7**|18.2**|17.0|16.5|17.6|99.8|1.00 |99.8|1.00 |99.9|1.00   |
| 14.3 | 14.0 | 14.6       | 15.7**|15.4**|16.0**|15.8|15.4|16.1|96.4|1.37 |98.0|0.99   |      |      |      |
| 14.6 | 15.0 | 14.2       | 16.1**|16.2**|15.9**|      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 13.4 | 13.5 | 13.3       | 13.8**|13.5**|14.1**|15.8|15.5|16.2|99.7|1.00   |      |      |      |      |      |
| 15.3 | 15.3 | 15.4       | 16.7**|16.1**|17.3**|18.3**|17.3**|19.3**|      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 12.7 | 12.6 | 12.9       | 16.4**|15.9**|16.8**|17.8|17.6|18.1|99.5|1.01 |95.1|1.03 |99.8|1.00   |
| 13.1 | 12.8 | 13.4       | 15.0**|14.6**|15.4**|15.4|15.0|15.8       |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 13.5 | 13.5 | 13.4       | 14.9**|14.6**|15.1**|15.9|15.6|16.3       |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 11.1 | 10.9 | 11.3       | 13.1**|13.1**|13.2**|13.5**|13.4**|13.7**|      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 12.9 | 13.3 | 12.5       |      |      |      |      |      |      |14.8|14.9|14.7|99.3|1.01 |99.4|0.99 |99.3|1.01y |
| 14.9 | 15.1 | 14.6       | 16.5**|16.8**|16.3**|16.5|16.6|16.4       |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 14.3 | 14.0 | 14.5       | 17.5**|16.9**|16.9**|17.7|16.9|18.4|99.6|1.01   |      |      |      |      |
| 12.2 | 11.9 | 12.5       | 15.7**|15.4**|16.1**|15.2|14.7|15.7       |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 14.5 | 14.2 | 14.8       | 15.9|15.5|16.2|16.2|15.8|16.7       |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 13.0 | 12.7 | 13.3       | 19.1**|17.5**|20.7**|16.0|15.1|16.9|99.8|1.00   |      |      |      |      |
| 13.6 | 14.0 | 13.1       | 15.1**|15.7**|14.5**|15.2|15.6|14.8       |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 14.1 | 14.4 | 13.9       | 20.0**|19.3**|20.7**|16.6|16.1|17.1       |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 15.3 | 14.9 | 15.7       | 15.9**|      |      |15.8**|15.2**|16.5**|      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 2.5  | 3.2  | 1.7        |      |      |      |      |      |      |     |      |      |      |      |      |
| 6.1  | 7.1  | 5.1        | 9.2**|9.3**|9.1**|9.2z|9.0z|9.3z       |      |      |      |      |      |      |
| 1.5  | 1.8  | 1.2        |      |      |      |      |      |      |     |      |      |      |      |      |
| 8.1  | 9.5  | 6.5        |      |      |      |      |      |      |     |      |      |      |      |      |
| 9.6  | 10.6 | 8.6        | 11.5**|12.1**|10.9**|12.5**|12.7**|12.2**|89.9|0.98   |      |      |      |

Page 1164 of 1373
Nicaragua
Panama
Paraguay
Peru
Saint Kitts and Nevis
Saint Lucia
St Vincent/Grenad.
Suriname
Trinidad and Tobago
Turks and Caicos Islands
Uruguay
Venezuela
Andorra
Austria
Belgium
Canada
Cyprus
Denmark
Finland
France
Germany
Greece
Iceland
Ireland
Israel
Italy
Luxembourg
Malta
Monaco
Netherlands
Norway
Portugal
San Marino
Spain
Sweden
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</table>

**Table 13 (continued)**

**GOAL 6**

Educational quality

**SCHOOL LIFE EXPECTANCY**

(expected number of years of formal schooling from primary to tertiary education)

**SURVIVAL RATE TO GRADE 5**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School year ending in 1991</th>
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<th>2004</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total GPI</td>
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<tr>
<td>(%) (F/M)</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total GPI</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(%) (F/M)</td>
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<td>(%) (F/M)</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>North America and Western Europe</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>South and West Asia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
</tr>
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</table>

112
113
114
115
116
117
118
119
120
| 31 27 20 53 53 58 ... 100 ...... 1.1z ...... 164.z ...... 556.z |
| ... 24 18.z ... 60 64.z 67 61.z ........................................... 39 39 40 14 23 30 46 31 ... 1.1** 1.3**,z ... 14.** 18.**,z ... 81.** 103.**,z |
| ... 37 27 ... 45 ............................................................ 31 ... 22 ... 79.** .................................................. 32 ............................................................ 36 53 52 25 23 19 58 72 ... 1.7**,y ... 47.**,y ... 124.**,y |
| 30 27 26 78 81 79 90 90.z .................................................. 57 49 49 27 25 28 ... 89 ........................................... 67 57.** 51 46 54.** 54 ... 1.5 1.4 1.7 16 11.** 11 59 64.** 83 |
| 51 52 54 30 36 40 ... 69 ... 1.2 ... 53 ... 158 ... 29.** 27 ... 62.** 67 ... 73 ...... 2.7 ...... 261 ...... 756 |

**GOAL 6**

Educational quality
PUPIL/TEACHER RATIO
IN PRIMARY EDUCATION
% FEMALE TEACHERS
IN PRIMARY EDUCATION
TRAINED PRIMARY
SCHOOL TEACHERS

as % of total
PUBLIC CURRENT EXPENDITURE
ON PRIMARY EDUCATION PER PUPIL
(unit cost) at PPP in constant 2003 US$
PUBLIC CURRENT EXPENDITURE
ON PRIMARY EDUCATION PER PUPIL
(unit cost) in constant 2003 US$
PUBLIC CURRENT EXPENDITURE
ON PRIMARY EDUCATION
AS % GNP
1991 1999 2004
School year ending in
1991 1999 2004
School year ending in
1991 1999 2004
School year ending in
1991 1999 2004
School year ending in
1991 1999 2004
School year ending in
1991 1999 2004
School year ending in
1999 2004
School year ending in
North America and Western Europe
South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa
112
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** indicates significant difference.
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Table 13 (continued)

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1. Based on headcounts of pupils and teachers.
2. Data on trained teachers (defined according to national standards) are not collected for countries whose education
statistics are gathered through the OECD, Eurostat or the World Education Indicators questionnaires.
Data in bold are for the school year ending in 2005.
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GOAL 6
Educational quality
PUPIL/TEACHER RATIO
IN PRIMARY EDUCATION
% FEMALE TEACHERS
IN PRIMARY EDUCATION
TRAINED PRIMARY
SCHOOL TEACHERS
as % of total
PUBLIC CURRENT EXPENDITURE
ON PRIMARY EDUCATION PER PUPIL
(unit cost) at PPP in constant 2003 US$
PUBLIC CURRENT EXPENDITURE
ON PRIMARY EDUCATION PER PUPIL
(unit cost) in constant 2003 US$
PUBLIC CURRENT EXPENDITURE
ON PRIMARY EDUCATION
AS % GNP
1991 1999 2004
School year ending in
1991 1999 2004
School year ending in
1991 1999 2004
School year ending in
1991 1999 2004
School year ending in
1991 1999 2004
School year ending in
1999 2004
School year ending in
Median Median Median Median Median Median
166
167
168
169
(z) Data are for the school year ending in 2003. (y) Data are for the school year ending in 2002. (x) Data are for the school year ending in 2001.
Most of the data on aid used in this Report are derived from the OECD’s International Development Statistics (IDS) database, which records information provided annually by all member countries of the OECD Development Assistance Committee (DAC). The IDS comprises the DAC database, which provides aggregate data, and the Creditor Reporting System, which provides project- and activity-level data. The IDS is available online at www.oecd.org/dac/stats/idsonline. It is updated frequently. The data presented in this Report were downloaded between May and June 2006. The focus of this section of the annex on aid data is Official Development Assistance. This term and others used in describing aid data are explained below to help in understanding the tables in this section and the data presented in Chapter 4. Private funds are not included.

Aid recipients and donors
Official Development Assistance (ODA) is public funds provided to developing countries to promote their economic and social development. It is concessional: that is, it takes the form either of a grant or of a loan carrying a lower rate of interest than is available in the market and, usually, a longer than normal repayment period. ODA may be provided directly by a government (bilateral ODA) or through an international agency (multilateral ODA). ODA includes technical cooperation (see below). Developing countries are those in Part I of the DAC List of Aid Recipients, which essentially comprises all low- and middle-income countries. Twelve central and eastern European countries, including new independent states of the former Soviet Union, plus a set of more advanced developing countries are in Part II of the list, and aid to them is referred to as Official Aid (OA). The data presented in this Report do not include OA unless indicated. Bilateral donors are countries that provide development assistance directly to recipient countries. The majority (Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany,
Greece, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States) are members of the DAC, a forum of major bilateral donors established to promote the volume and effectiveness of aid. Non-DAC bilateral donors include the Republic of Korea and some Arab states. Bilateral donors also contribute substantially to the financing of multilateral donors through contributions recorded as multilateral ODA. The financial flows from multilateral donors to recipient countries are also recorded as ODA receipts.

Multilateral donors are international institutions with government membership that conduct all or a significant part of their activities in favour of developing countries. They include multilateral development banks (e.g. the World Bank and the Inter-American Development Bank), United Nations agencies (e.g. UNDP and UNICEF) and regional groupings (e.g. the European Commission and Arab agencies). The development banks also make nonconcessional loans to several middle- and higher-income countries, and these are not counted as part of ODA.

Types of aid

Unallocated aid: some contributions are not susceptible to allocation by sector and are reported as non-sector-allocable aid. Examples are aid for general development purposes (direct budget support), balance-of-payments support, action relating to debt (including debt relief) and emergency assistance.

Basic education: the definition of basic education varies by agency. The DAC defines it as covering primary education, basic life skills for youth and adults, and early childhood education.

Aid tables

Introduction
Inroduction
Education, level unspecified: the aid to education reported in the DAC database includes basic, secondary and post-secondary education, and a subcategory called ‘education, level unspecified’. This subcategory covers aid related to any activity that cannot be attributed solely to the development of a single level of education.
Sector budget funding: funds contributed directly to the budget of a ministry of education are often reported by donors in this subcategory. Although this aid will in practice mainly be used for specific levels of education, such information is not available in the DAC database. This reduces accuracy in assessing the amount of resources made available for each specific level of education.
Technical cooperation (sometimes referred to as technical assistance): according to the DAC Directives, technical cooperation is the provision of know-how in the form of personnel, training, research and associated costs. It includes (a) grants to nationals of aid recipient countries receiving education or training at home or abroad; and (b) payments to consultants, advisers and similar personnel as well as teachers and administrators serving in recipient countries (including the cost of associated equipment). Where such assistance is related specifically to a capital project, it is included with project and programme expenditure and not separately reported as technical cooperation. The aid activities reported in this category vary by donor, as interpretations of the definition are broad.
Debt relief: this includes debt forgiveness, i.e. the extinction of a loan by agreement between the creditor (donor) and the debtor (aid recipient), and other action on debt, including debt swaps, buy-backs and refinancing. In the DAC database, debt forgiveness is reported as a grant. It raises gross ODA but not necessarily net ODA (see below).
Aid data
Commitments and disbursements: a commitment is a firm obligation by a donor, expressed in writing and backed by the necessary funds, to provide specified assistance to a country or multilateral organization.
The amount specified is recorded as a commitment. Disbursement is the release of funds to, or purchase of goods or services for, a recipient; in other words, the amount spent. Disbursements record the actual international transfer of financial resources or of goods or services valued by the donor. As the aid committed in a given year can be disbursed later, sometimes over several years, the annual aid figures based on commitments differ from those based on disbursements.

Gross and net disbursements: gross disbursements are the total aid extended. Net disbursements are the total aid extended minus amounts of loan principal repaid by recipients or cancelled through debt forgiveness.

Current and constant prices: aid figures in the DAC database are expressed in US$. When other currencies are converted into dollars at the exchange rates prevailing at the time, the resulting amounts are at current prices and exchange rates. When comparing aid figures between different years, adjustment is required to compensate for inflation and changes in exchange rates. Such adjustments result in aid being expressed in constant dollars, i.e. in dollars fixed at the value they held in a given reference year, including their external value in terms of other currencies. Thus, amounts of aid for any year and in any currency expressed in 2003 constant dollars reflect the value of that aid in terms of the purchasing power of dollars in 2003. In this Report, most aid data are presented in 2003 constant dollars. The indices used for adjusting currencies and years (called deflators) are derived from Table 36 of the statistical annex of the 2005 DAC annual report (OECD-DAC, 2006). Figures in previous editions of the EFA Global Monitoring Report were based on the constant prices of different years (the 2006 Report was based on 2002 constant prices), so figures for a given country for a given year in these editions differ from the figures presented in this Report for the same year.

For more detailed and precise definitions of terms used in the DAC database, see the DAC Directives, available at www.oecd.org/dac/stats/dac/directives

### Table 1: Bilateral ODA from DAC countries: total ODA, aid to education, aid to basic education, level unspecified (commitments), 1999-2004

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Table 2: Bilateral aid from DAC countries: total ODA, aid to education and basic education as percentage of gross national income (commitments), 1999-2004

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(OECD-DAC, 2006c), Table 5.
Notes:
(…) indicates that data are not available.
Aid to basic education as % of GNI excludes the part of ‘education, level unspecified’ that is allocated to basic education.
Sources: Total ODA, aid to education and aid to basic education: DAC online database (OECD-DAC, 2006c), Table 5. Data on GNI: DAC online database (OECD-DAC, 2006c), Table 1.
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Notes:
- (...) indicates that data are not available.
- Data for some donors for some years represent disbursements and others represent commitments.
- Totals do not include countries where data are not available.
- Aid to education does not count the part of general budget support that recipient countries may allocate to education.
- Aid to basic education does not count the part of education sector budget support (most of which is reported as ‘level unspecified’) that may benefit basic education.
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Note: (...) indicates that data are not available.

Source: CRS online database (OECD-DAC, 2006c), Table 2.
Table 4: ODA from multilateral donors by level of education (commitments), 1999-2004

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Notes:
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Totals do not include countries where data are not available.
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Basic education

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Basic education

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DPR Korea
Fiji
Indonesia
Kiribati
Lao PDR
Malaysia
Marshall Islands
Micronesia
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Nauru
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Palau
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Philippines
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annual average
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1999 2000 2001 2002 2003 2004 average
Aid to education
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Aid to education
per capita
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2003 US$)
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2003-2004
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1999 2000 2001 2002 2003 2004 average
Aid to basic education
(constant 2003 US$ millions)
Aid to basic education per
primary-schoolage child
(constant 2003 US$)
Table 5: ODA to education and basic education by recipient country, total amounts and per capita/per primary school-age child (commitments)
Country

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annual average
2003-2004
2003-
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1999 2000 2001 2002 2003 2004 average
Aid to education
(constant 2003 US$ millions)
Aid to education
per capita
(constant
2003 US$)
annual average
2003-2004
2003-
2004
1999 2000 2001 2002 2003 2004 average
Aid to basic education
(constant 2003 US$ millions)
Aid to basic education per primary-school-age child (constant 2003 US$) Table 5 (continued) Country
Sub-Saharan Africa
Angola
Benin
Botswana
Burkina Faso
Burundi
Cameroon
Cape Verde
Central African Republic
Chad
Comoros
Congo
Côte d’Ivoire
Democratic Rep. of the Congo
Equatorial Guinea
Eritrea
Ethiopia
Gabon
Gambia
Ghana
Guinea
Guinea-Bissau
Kenya
Lesotho
Liberia
Madagascar
Malawi
Mali
Mauritius
Mozambique
Namibia
Niger
Nigeria
Rwanda
Sao Tome and Principe
Senegal
Seychelles
Sierra Leone
Somalia
<table>
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<th>Country</th>
<th>Aid to Education (constant 2003 US$ millions)</th>
<th>Aid to Education per capita (constant 2003 US$)</th>
<th>Aid to Basic Education (constant 2003 US$ millions)</th>
<th>Aid to Basic Education per Primary-schoolage Child (constant 2003 US$)</th>
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Notes:
- (...) indicates that data are not available.
- ‘Country unspecified’ aid includes aid to a region, without specification of countries, or to an area (e.g. West Indies, countries of former Yugoslavia).
- Sources: Aid commitments to basic education from all DAC countries: CRS online database (OECD-DAC, 2006c), Table 2. Population: Annex, Statistical Table 1 and UIS database.
- School-age population: Annex, Statistical Table 5 and UIS database.
Country
Accreditation. Recognition and approval of the academic standards of an educational institution by some external, impartial body of high public esteem.

Achievement. Performance on standardized tests or examinations that measure knowledge or competence in a specific subject area. The term is sometimes used as an indication of education quality within an education system or when comparing a group of schools.

Adult education. Educational activities, offered through formal, non-formal or informal frameworks, targeted at adults and aimed at advancing, or substituting for, initial education and training. The purpose may be to (a) complete a given level of formal education or professional qualification; (b) acquire knowledge and skills in a new field (not necessarily for a qualification); and/or (c) refresh or update knowledge and skills. See also Basic education and Continuing education.

Adult literacy rate. Number of literate persons aged 15 and above, expressed as a percentage of the total population in that age group. Different ways of defining and assessing literacy yield different results regarding the number of persons designated as literate.

Age-specific enrolment ratio (ASER). Enrolment of a given age or age-group, regardless of the level of education in which pupils or students are enrolled, expressed as a percentage of the population of the same age or age group.

Basic education. The whole range of educational activities taking place in various settings (formal, non formal and informal), that aim to meet basic learning needs. According to the International Standard Classification of Education (see ISCED below), basic education comprises primary education (first stage of basic education) and lower secondary education (second stage).

Basic learning needs. Defined in the World Declaration on Education for All (Jomtien, Thailand, 1990) as essential tools for learning (e.g. literacy, oral expression, numeracy, problem
solving) as well as basic learning content (e.g. knowledge, skills, values and attitudes) that individuals should acquire in order to survive, develop personal capacities, live and work in dignity, participate in development, improve quality of life, make informed decisions and continue the learning process. The scope of basic learning needs, and how they should be met, varies by country and culture, and changes over time.

Child, or under-5, mortality rate. Probability of dying between birth and exactly 5 years of age expressed per 1,000 live births.

Cognitive development. The development of the mental action or process of acquiring knowledge through thought, experience and senses.

Compulsory education or attendance. Educational programmes that children and young people are legally obliged to attend, usually defined in terms of a number of grades or an age range, or both.

Constant prices. A way to express financial values in real terms, which enables comparisons over time. To measure changes in real national income or product, economists calculate the value of total production in each year at constant prices using a set of prices that applied in a chosen base year.

Continuing (or further) education. A general term referring to a wide range of educational activities designed to meet the basic learning needs of adults. See also Adult education and Lifelong learning.

Disability. A physical or mental condition which may be temporary or permanent, and which limits a person’s opportunities to take part in the community on an equal level with others.

Dropout rate by grade. Percentage of pupils or students who drop out from a given grade in a given school year. It is the difference between 100% and the sum of the promotion and repetition rates.

Glossary
Early childhood. The period of a child’s life from birth to age 8.

Early childhood care and education (ECCE). Programmes that, in addition to providing children with care, offer a structured and purposeful set of learning activities either in a formal institution (pre-primary or ISCED 0) or as part of a nonformal child development programme. ECCE programmes are normally designed for children from age 3 and include organized learning activities that constitute, on average, the equivalent of at least 2 hours per day and 100 days per year.

Education for All Development Index (EDI). Composite index aimed at measuring overall progress towards EFA. At present, the EDI incorporates four of the most easily quantifiable EFA goals – universal primary education as measured by the net enrolment ratio, adult literacy as measured by the adult literacy rate, gender parity as measured by the gender-specific EFA index, and quality of education as measured by the survival rate to grade 5. Its value is the arithmetical mean of the observed values of these four indicators.

Elementary education. See Primary education.

Enrolment. Number of pupils or students enrolled at a given level of education, regardless of age. See also gross enrolment ratio and net enrolment ratio.

Entrance age (official). Age at which pupils or students would enter a given programme or level of education – assuming they had started at the official entrance age for the lowest level, studied full-time throughout and progressed through the system without repeating or skipping a grade. The theoretical entrance age to a given programme or level may be very different from the actual or even the most common entrance age.

Equity: In education, the extent to which access and opportunities for children and adults are just and fair. This implies reduction in disparities based on gender, poverty, residence, ethnicity, language or other characteristics.
Fields of study in tertiary or higher education.
Education: teacher training and education science.
Humanities and arts: humanities, religion and theology, fine and applied arts.
Social sciences, business and law: social and behavioural sciences, journalism and information, business and administration, law.
Science: life and physical sciences, mathematics, statistics and computer sciences.
Engineering, manufacturing and construction: engineering and engineering trades, manufacturing and processing, architecture and building.
Agriculture: agriculture, forestry and fishery, veterinary studies.
Health and welfare: medical sciences and health related sciences, social services.
Services: personal services, transport services, environmental protection, security services.
Foreign students. Students enrolled in an education programme in a country of which they are not permanent residents.
Gender parity index (GPI). Ratio of female to male values (or male to female, in certain cases) of a given indicator. A GPI of 1 indicates parity between sexes; a GPI above or below 1 indicates a disparity in favour of one sex over the other.
Gender-specific EFA index (GEI). Composite index measuring relative achievement of gender parity in total participation in primary and secondary education as well as gender parity in adult literacy. The GEI is calculated as an arithmetical mean of the gender parity indices of the primary and secondary gross enrolment ratios and of the adult literacy rate.
General education. Programmes designed to lead students to a deeper understanding of a subject or group of subjects, especially, but not necessarily, with a view to preparing them for further education at the same or a higher level. These programmes are typically school-based and may or may not
contain vocational elements. Their successful completion may or may not provide students with a labour-market-relevant qualification.

Grade. Stage of instruction usually equivalent to one complete school year.

Graduate. A person who has successfully completed the final year of a level or sub-level of education. In some countries completion occurs as a result of passing an examination or a series of examinations. In other countries it occurs after a requisite number of course hours have been accumulated. Sometimes both types of completion occur within a country.

Gross enrolment ratio (GER). Total enrolment in a specific level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population in the official age group corresponding to this level of education. For the tertiary level, the population used is that of the five-year age group following on from the secondary school leaving age. The GER can exceed 100% due to early or late entry and/or grade repetition.

Gross intake rate (GIR). Total number of new entrants to a given grade of primary education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population at the official school entrance age for that grade.

Gross domestic product (GDP). The value of all final goods and services produced in a country in one year (see also Gross national product). GDP can be measured by adding up all of an economy’s (a) income (wages, interest, profits and rents) or (b) expenditure (consumption, investment, government purchases) plus net exports (exports minus imports). Both results should be the same because one person’s expenditure is always another person’s income, so the sum of all incomes must equal the sum of all expenditures.

Gross national product (GNP). The value of all final goods and services produced in a country in one year (gross domestic product) plus income that residents have received from abroad, minus income claimed by non residents. GNP may be much less than GDP if much of the income from
a country’s production flows to foreign persons or firms. But if the people or firms of a country hold large amounts of the stocks and bonds of firms or governments of other countries, and receive income from them, GNP may be greater than GDP.

Gross national product per capita. GNP divided by the total population at mid-year.

HIV/AIDS orphan. A child up to the age of 17 who has lost one or both parents due to HIV/AIDS.

HIV prevalence rate. Estimated number of people of a given age group living with HIV/AIDS at the end of a given year, expressed as a percentage of the total population of the corresponding age group.

Illiterate (see Literate)

Inclusive education. Education that addresses the learning needs of all children, youth and adults with a specific focus on those who are vulnerable to marginalization and exclusion.

Indigenous language. A language that originated in a specified territory or community and was not brought in from elsewhere. See mother tongue language and vernacular language.

Infant mortality rate. Probability of dying between birth and exactly 1 year of age, expressed per 1,000 live births.

Informal education. Learning that takes place in daily life without clearly stated objectives. The term refers to a lifelong process whereby every individual acquires attitudes, values, skills and knowledge from daily experiences and the educative influences and resources in his/her environment – e.g. family and neighbours, work and play, the marketplace, the library, mass media.

International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED). Classification system designed to serve as an instrument for assembling, compiling and presenting comparable indicators and statistics of education both within countries and internationally. The system, introduced in 1976, was revised in 1997 (ISCED97).

Labour force participation rate. Expresses the share of employed plus unemployed people in comparison with the working age population.
Language (or medium) of instruction. Language(s) used for teaching and learning in formal or non formal educational settings.

Least developed countries (LDCs). Low-income countries which, according to the United Nations, have human resource weaknesses and are economically vulnerable. A category used to guide donors and countries in allocating foreign assistance.

Life expectancy at birth. Theoretical number of years a newborn infant would live if prevailing patterns of age-specific mortality rates in the year of birth were to stay the same throughout the child’s life.

Lifelong learning. The concept of learning as a process that continues throughout life to address an individual’s learning needs. The term is used widely in adult education to refer to learning processes in many forms and at many levels. See also adult education and continuing education.

Literacy. According to UNESCO’s 1958 definition, the term refers to the ability of an individual to read and write with understanding a simple short statement related to his/her everyday life. The concept of literacy has since evolved to embrace multiple skill domains, each conceived on a scale of different mastery levels and serving different purposes. Many today view literacy as the ability to identify, interpret, create, communicate and compute, using printed and written materials in various contexts. Literacy is a process of learning that enables individuals to achieve personal goals, develop their knowledge and potential, and participate fully in the community and wider society.

Literate/illiterate. As used in the statistical tables, the term refers to a person who can/cannot read and write with understanding a simple statement related to her/his everyday life.

Literate environment. The term can have at least two meanings: (a) the availability of written, printed and visual materials in learners’ surrounding environment, enabling them to make use of their basic reading and writing skills; and/or (b) the
prevalence of literacy in households and communities, enhancing the prospects of successful literacy acquisition by learners.

Literate society. A social setting within which (a) the vast majority of the population acquires and uses basic literacy skills; (b) major social, political and economic institutions (e.g. offices, courts, libraries, banks) contain an abundance of printed matter, written records and visual materials, and emphasize the reading and writing of texts; and (c) the exchange of text-based information is facilitated and lifelong learning opportunities are provided.

Mother tongue language. Main language spoken in the home environment and acquired as a first language. Sometimes known as a home language. See indigenous language and vernacular language.

National language. Language spoken by a large part of the population of a country, which may or may not be designated an official language (i.e., a language designated by law to be employed in the public domain).

Net attendance rate (NAR). Number of pupils in the official age group for a given level of education who attend school in that level, expressed as a percentage of the population in that age group.

Net enrolment ratio (NER). Enrolment of the official age group for a given level of education, expressed as a percentage of the population in that age group.

Net intake rate (NIR). New entrants to the first grade of primary education who are of the official primary-school entrance age, expressed as a percentage of the population of that age.

New entrants. Pupils entering a given level of education for the first time; the difference between enrolment and repeaters in the first grade of the level.

New entrants to the first grade of primary education with ECCE experience. Number of new entrants to the first grade of primary school who have attended the equivalent of at least 200 hours of organized ECCE programmes, expressed as a percentage of the total number of new entrants to the first grade.
Non-formal education. Learning activities typically organized outside the formal education system. The term is generally contrasted with formal and informal education. In different contexts, nonformal education covers educational activities aimed at imparting adult literacy, basic education for out-of-school children and youth, life skills, work skills and general culture. Such activities usually have clear learning objectives, but vary by duration, in conferring certification for acquired learning, and in organizational structure.

Opportunity cost. Refers to the benefit foregone by using a scarce resource for one purpose instead of its next best alternative use.

Out-of-school children. Children in the official primary school age range who are not enrolled in either primary or secondary schools.

Pedagoge. Person trained in teaching skills. In early childhood professions a pedagoge works with the theory and practice of pedagogy, with emphasis on a relational and holistic approach. The distinction between pedagoge and teacher differs across countries.

Pedagogy. The profession, science or theory of teaching.

Post-secondary non-tertiary education (ISCED level 4). Programmes that lie between the upper secondary and tertiary levels from an international point of view, even though they might clearly be considered upper secondary or tertiary programmes in a national context. They are often not significantly more advanced than programmes at ISCED 3 (upper secondary) but they serve to broaden the knowledge of students who have completed a programme at that level. The students are usually older than those at ISCED level 3. ISCED 4 programmes typically last between six months and two years.

Pre-primary education (ISCED level 0). Programmes at the initial stage of organized instruction, primarily designed to introduce very young children, aged at least 3 years, to a school-type environment and provide a bridge between home and school. Variously referred to as infant
education, nursery education, pre-school education, kindergarten or early childhood education, such programmes are the more formal component of ECCE. Upon completion of these programmes, children continue their education at ISCED 1 (primary education).

Primary cohort completion rate. The number of pupils who complete the final year of primary school expressed as a percentage of the number who entered the first year.

Primary education (ISCED level 1). Programmes normally designed on a unit or project basis to give pupils a sound basic education in reading, writing and mathematics, and an elementary understanding of subjects such as history, geography, natural sciences, social sciences, art and music. Religious instruction may also be featured. These subjects serve to develop pupils’ ability to obtain and use information they need about their home, community or country. Also known as elementary education.

Private enrolment. Number of pupils/students enrolled in institutions that are not operated by public authorities but controlled and managed, whether for profit or not, by private bodies such as non-governmental organizations, religious bodies, special interest groups, foundations or business enterprises.

Process quality (of ECCE). Indicators of ECCE programme quality that focus on the nature of the relationships between carers and children, the inclusion of families, and the responsiveness to cultural diversity and to children with special needs.

Public enrolment. Number of students enrolled in institutions that are controlled and managed by public authorities or agencies (national/federal, state/provincial or local), whatever the origins of their financial resources.

Public expenditure on education. Total current and capital expenditure on education by local, regional and national governments, including municipalities. Household contributions are excluded. It covers public expenditure for both public and private institutions. Current expenditure includes expenditure for goods and services that
are consumed within a given year and have to be renewed the following year, such as staff salaries and benefits; contracted or purchased services; other resources, including books and teaching
materials; welfare services and items such as furniture and equipment, minor repairs, fuel, telecommunications, travel, insurance and rent. Capital expenditure includes expenditure for construction, renovation and major repairs of buildings and the purchase of heavy equipment or vehicles.

Pupil. A child enrolled in pre-primary or primary education. Youth and adults enrolled at more advanced levels are often referred to as students.

Pupil/teacher ratio (PTR). Average number of pupils per teacher at a specific level of education, based on headcounts for both pupils and teachers.

Purchasing power parity (PPP). An exchange rate that accounts for price differences among countries, allowing international comparisons of real output and incomes.

Quintile. In statistics, each of five equal groups into which a population can be divided according to the distribution of values of a variable.

Repetition rate by grade. Number of repeaters in a given grade in a given school year, expressed as a percentage of enrolment in that grade the previous school year.

Repeaters. Number of pupils enrolled in the same grade or level as the previous year, expressed as a percentage of the total enrolment in that grade or level.

School life expectancy (SLE). Number of years a child of school entrance age is expected to spend at school or university, including years spent on repetition. It is the sum of the age-specific enrolment ratios for primary, secondary, postsecondary non-tertiary and tertiary education.

School-age population. Population of the age group officially corresponding to a given level of education, whether enrolled in school or not.

School readiness. Children’s development in several interconnected domains relevant to starting school, including physical well-being and motor development, social and emotional development, approach to learning, language development, and cognitive development and general knowledge.
Secondary education. Programmes at ISCED levels 2 and 3. Lower secondary education (ISCED 2) is generally designed to continue the basic programmes of the primary level but the teaching is typically more subject-focused, requiring more specialized teachers for each subject area. The end of this level often coincides with the end of compulsory education. In upper secondary education (ISCED 3), the final stage of secondary education in most countries, instruction is often organized even more along subject lines and teachers typically need a higher or more subjectspecific qualification than at ISCED level 2.

Structural quality (of ECCE). Indicators of ECCE programme quality, often used by governments for regulatory purposes, which focus on class size, staff-child ratios, availability of materials and staff training.

Stunting. Proportion of under-5s falling below minus 2 and minus 3 standard deviations from the median height-for-age of the reference population. Low height for age is a basic indicator of malnutrition.

Survival rate by grade. Percentage of a cohort of students who are enrolled in the first grade of an education cycle in a given school year and are expected to reach a specified grade, regardless of repetition.
Teachers or teaching staff. Number of persons employed full time or part time in an official capacity to guide and direct the learning experience of pupils and students, irrespective of their qualifications or the delivery mechanism, i.e. face-to-face and/or at a distance. Excludes educational personnel who have no active teaching duties (e.g. headmasters, headmistresses or principals who do not teach) and persons who work occasionally or in a voluntary capacity. Teacher compensation consists of a teacher’s base salary and all bonuses. Base salary refers to the minimum scheduled gross annual salary for a full-time teacher with the minimum training necessary to be qualified at the beginning of his or her teaching career. Reported base salaries are defined as the total sum of money paid by the employer for the labour supplied minus the employers’ contribution to social security and pension funding. Bonuses that are a regular part of the annual salary, like a thirteenth month or holiday bonus, are normally included in the base salary.

Technical and vocational education. Programmes designed mainly to prepare students for direct entry into a particular occupation or trade (or class of occupations or trades). Successful completion of such programmes normally leads to a labour-market relevant vocational qualification recognized by the competent authorities (ministry of education, employers’ associations) in the country in which it is obtained.

Tertiary or higher education. Programmes with an educational content more advanced than what is offered at ISCED levels 3 and 4. The first stage of tertiary education, ISCED level 5, includes level 5A, composed of largely theoretically based programmes intended to provide sufficient qualifications for gaining entry to advanced research programmes and professions with high skill requirements; and level 5B, where programmes are generally more practical, technical and/or occupationally specific. The second stage of tertiary education, ISCED level 6,
comprises programmes devoted to advanced study and original research, and leading to the award of an advanced research qualification.

Total debt service. Sum of principal repayments and interest paid in foreign currency, goods or services on long-term debt, or interest paid on short-term debt, as well as repayments (repurchases and charges) to the International Monetary Fund.

Total fertility rate. Average number of children that would be born to a woman if she were to live to the end of her childbearing years (15 to 49) and bear children at each age in accordance with prevailing age-specific fertility rates.

Trained teacher. Teacher who has received the minimum organized teacher training normally required for teaching at the relevant level in a given country.

Transition rate to secondary education. New entrants to the first grade of secondary education in a given year, expressed as a percentage of the number of pupils enrolled in the final grade of primary education in the previous year.

Undernourished population. People whose food and nutritional intake is chronically insufficient to meet their minimum energy requirements.

Vernacular language. A language spoken by the people of a country or a region, as distinguished from official standards or global languages.

Youth literacy rate. Number of literate persons aged 15 to 24, expressed as a percentage of the total population in that age group.
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Annex


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* All background papers for EFA Global Monitoring Report 2007 are available at www.efareport.unesco.org
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ACEI Association for Childhood Education International
ADEA Association for the Development of Education in Africa
AIDS Acquired immune deficiency syndrome
AKF Aga Khan Foundation
ALL Adult Literacy and Lifeskills Survey
CENACEP Centros de Aprendizaje Comunitario en Educación Preescolar
CERI Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (OECD)
CGECCD Consultative Group on Early Childhood Care and Development
CIS Commonwealth of Independent States
CONFENEM Conférence des Ministres de l'Education des pays ayant le français en partage
CRC Convention on the Rights of the Child
CRS Creditor Reporting System
CSTC Community Skills Training Center (Ethiopia)
DAC Development Assistance Committee (OECD)
DeSeCo Definition and Selection of Key Competencies
DFID Department for International Development, United Kingdom
DHS Demographic and Health Surveys
DVD Digital versatile disc
E-9 Nine high-population countries (Bangladesh, Brazil, China, Egypt, India, Indonesia, Mexico, Nigeria, Pakistan)
EC European Commission
ECCD Early childhood care and development
ECCE Early childhood care and education
ECD Early childhood development
ECDVU The Early Child Development Virtual University
ECE Early childhood education
ECERS Early Childhood Environment Rating Scale
EDI Education for All Development Index
EFA Education for All
ESD Education for Sustainable Development
ESDP III Education Sector Development Programme III (Ethiopia)
EU European Union
EUROSTAT Statistical Office of the European Communities
FRESH Focusing Resources on Effective School Health
FTI Fast Track Initiative
G8 Group of Eight (Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Russian Federation, United Kingdom and United States, plus EU representatives)
GDP Gross domestic product
GEI Gender-specific EFA Index
GER Gross enrolment ratio

Abbreviations
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<tr>
<td>GIR</td>
<td>Gross intake rate</td>
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<td>GNI</td>
<td>Gross national income</td>
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<td>GNP</td>
<td>Gross national product</td>
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<td>GPI</td>
<td>Gender parity index</td>
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<tr>
<td>HIPPY</td>
<td>Home Instruction for Parents of Pre-School Youngsters</td>
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<tr>
<td>HIV/AIDS</td>
<td>Human immuno-deficiency virus/acquired immune deficiency syndrome</td>
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<tr>
<td>HOME</td>
<td>Home Observation for Measurement of the Environment</td>
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<tr>
<td>HSRC</td>
<td>Human Sciences Research Council</td>
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<tr>
<td>IALS</td>
<td>International Adult Literacy Survey</td>
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<td>IBE</td>
<td>International Bureau of Education (UNESCO)</td>
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<td>ICCPR</td>
<td>International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICDS</td>
<td>Integrated Child Development Services</td>
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<td>ICFES</td>
<td>Instituto Colombiano para el Fomento de la Educación Superior</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information and communication technology</td>
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<td>IDB</td>
<td>Inter-American Development Bank</td>
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<td>IDS</td>
<td>International Development Statistics (OECD-DAC)</td>
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<td>IEA</td>
<td>International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement</td>
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<td>IEA/PPP</td>
<td>IEA Pre-Primary Project</td>
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<td>IEQ</td>
<td>Improving Educational Quality</td>
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<td>IIIP</td>
<td>International Institute for Educational Planning (UNESCO)</td>
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<td>ILI</td>
<td>International Literacy Institute</td>
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<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Office/Organization</td>
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<td>IMF</td>
<td>International Monetary Fund</td>
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<td>INEE</td>
<td>Instituto Nacional para la Evaluación de la Educación</td>
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<tr>
<td>INEP</td>
<td>Instituto Nacional de Estudos e Pesquisas Educacionais Anísio Teixeira</td>
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<tr>
<td>I-PRSP</td>
<td>Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper</td>
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<tr>
<td>IQ</td>
<td>Intelligence Quotient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISCED</td>
<td>International Standard Classification of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JUNJI</td>
<td>Junta Nacional de Jardines Infantiles (National Board of Kindergartens, Chile)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LAMP</td>
<td>Literacy Assessment and Monitoring Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LDCs</td>
<td>Least developed countries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LLECE</td>
<td>Laboratorio Latinamericano de Evaluación de la Calidad de la Educación (Latin American Laboratory for the Assessment of Quality in Education)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSMS</td>
<td>Living Standard Measurement Surveys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MDG</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MICS</td>
<td>Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (UNICEF)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MoE</td>
<td>Ministry of Education (or equivalent national body)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NCERT</td>
<td>National Council of Educational Research and Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NER</td>
<td>Net enrolment ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFE</td>
<td>Non-formal education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFE-MIS</td>
<td>Non-Formal Education Management Information System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-governmental organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NICHD</td>
<td>National Institute of Child Health and Human Development</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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NIER National Institute for Educational Policy Research
NIPCCD National Institute of Public Cooperation and Child Development
NIR Net intake rate
OA Official Aid
OBE Open Basic Education
ODA Official Development Assistance
OECD Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OHCHR Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights
OREALC UNESCO Regional Bureau for Education in Latin America and the Caribbean
OVC Orphans and vulnerable children
PASEC Programme d’analyse des systèmes éducatifs de la CONFEMEN
(Programme of Analysis of Education Systems for Francophone countries)
PEAK Pursuing Excellence at Kindergartens
PIDI Proyecto Integral de Desarrollo Infantil (Integrated Child Development Project, Bolivia)
PILL Pacific Islands Literacy Level
PIRLS Progress in Reading Literacy Study
PISA Programme for International Student Assessment
PROMESA Proyecto de Mejoramiento Educativo, de Salud y del Ambiente
(Programme for the healthy physical, emotional and intellectual development of young children, Colombia).
PRSP Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
PTR Pupil/teacher ratio
SACMEQ Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium on Monitoring Educational Quality
SERVOL Service Volunteered for All (Trinidad and Tobago)
SNNP Southern Nations, Nationalities and People (Ethiopia)
STAR Programme Student–Teacher Achievement Ratio Programme
TIMSS Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
TVE Technical and Vocational Education
UIE UNESCO Institute for Education (now UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, UIL)
UIL UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning
UIS UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UNAIDS Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS
UNDP United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA United Nations Population Fund
UNGEI United Nations Girls’ Education Initiative
UNICEF United Nations Children’s Fund
UOE UIS/OECD/Eurostat
UPC Universal primary completion
UPE Universal primary education
USAID United States Agency for International Development
USSR Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
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This index is in word-by-word order. Page numbers in italics indicate figures and tables; those in bold refer to material in boxes. The letter ‘n’ following a page number indicates information in a note at the side of the page. The term ‘ECCE’ in subheadings refers to early childhood care and education. Definitions of terms can be found in the glossary, and additional information on countries can be found in the statistical annex.

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Early childhood is a time of remarkable transformation and extreme vulnerability. Programmes that support young children during the years before they go to primary school provide strong foundations for subsequent learning and development. Such programmes also compensate for disadvantage and exclusion, offering a way out of poverty. This Report focuses on the first Education for All goal, which calls upon countries to expand and improve early childhood care and education – a holistic package encompassing care, health and nutrition in addition to education. Disadvantaged children stand to benefit the most, yet too few developing countries, and too few donor agencies, have made early childhood a priority.

In other areas there is considerable progress toward Education for All, especially the key goal of universal primary education. More girls are attending school and international aid for education is increasing. As the Report demonstrates, however, much still needs to be done to meet the target date of 2015. Only if bold action is taken now can exclusion be overcome and comprehensive learning opportunities assured for everyone, in early childhood and throughout life.

Strong foundations
Early childhood care and education
Cover photo
Children at play in Kathmandu, Nepal.
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