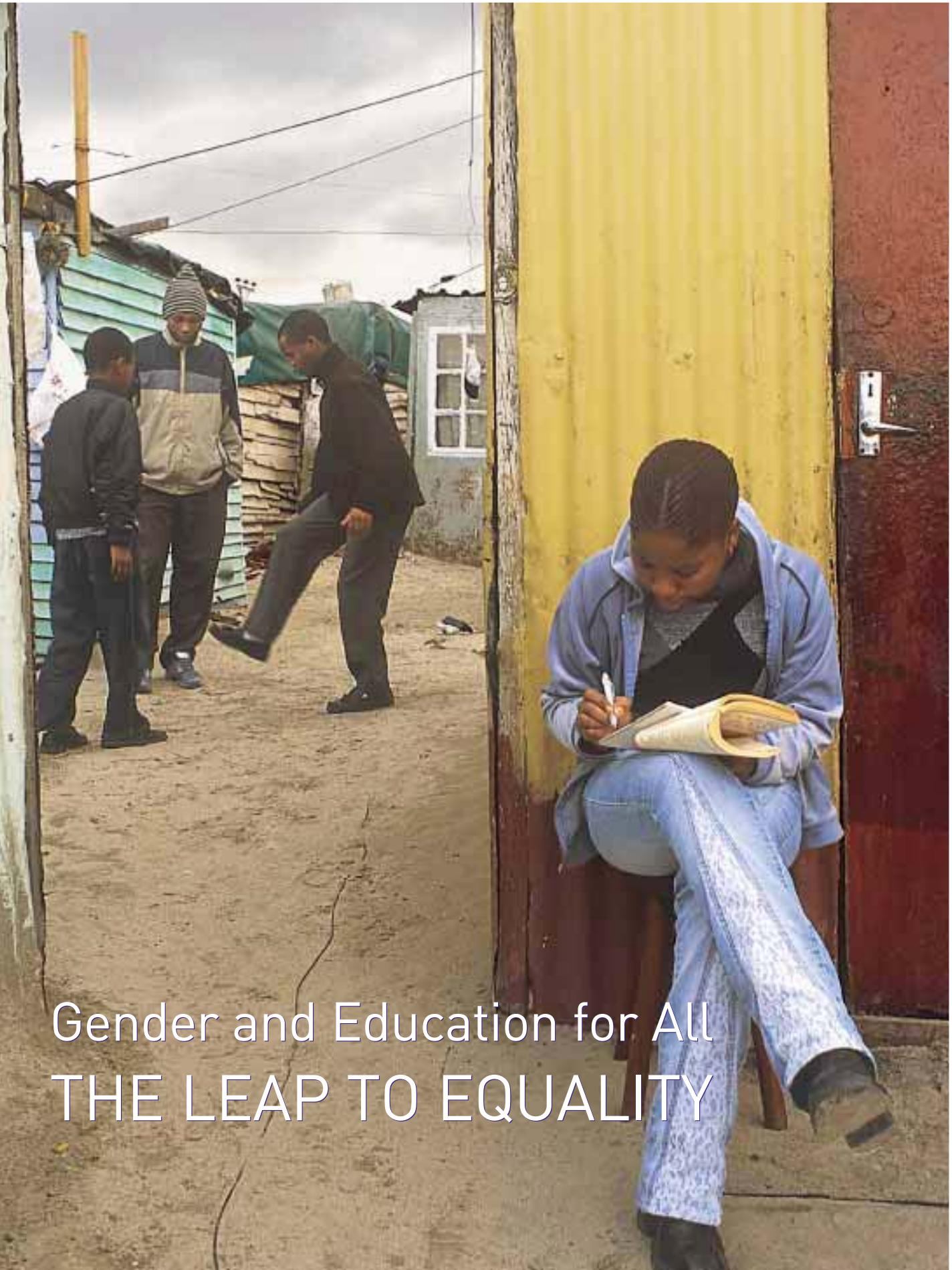
EFA Global Monitoring Report 2003/4

Education for All



Gender and Education for All
THE LEAP TO EQUALITY

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Foreword

The goals of Education for All (EFA) are centrally concerned with equality. If children are excluded from access to education, they are denied their human rights and prevented from developing their talents and interests in the most basic of ways. Education is a torch which can help to guide and illuminate their lives. It is the acknowledged responsibility of all governments to ensure that everyone is given the chance to benefit from it in these ways. It is also in the fundamental interests of society to see that this happens – progress with economic and social development depends upon it.

Nevertheless, millions of children around the world still fail to gain access to schooling, and even larger numbers among those who do enrol leave prematurely, dropping out before the skills of literacy and numeracy have been properly gained. A majority of such children are girls. As a result, the scourge of illiteracy still affects more than 860 million adults, almost two-thirds of whom are women.

The World Education Forum held in Dakar, Senegal, in April 2000 adopted six major goals for education, two of which also became Millennium Development Goals later in the same year. The Dakar goals covered the attainment of Universal Primary Education (UPE) and gender equality, improving literacy and educational quality, and increasing life-skills and early childhood education programmes, and were to be achieved within 15 years. However, the gender goal was judged to be particularly urgent – requiring the achievement of parity in enrolments for girls and boys at primary and secondary levels by 2005, and of full equality throughout education by 2015.

As this issue of the *Global Monitoring Report* goes to press, the world is two years away from the date by which the gender parity goal is to be achieved. It is, then, timely that the report should pay particular attention to the progress being made with its implementation – and with that of the longer-term goal of achieving gender equality in education. The report shows that, while many countries are likely to miss the 2005 goal, this circumstance could change quickly if appropriate changes in policy were made. However, achieving equality throughout education is more profoundly challenging. Educational inequality is caused by deeper forces in society that extend well beyond the boundaries of educational systems, institutions and processes. The report demonstrates that changes in a wide range of economic and social policies – as well as in education itself – will be needed if gender equality in education is to be attained.

I am convinced that the world is on the path towards gender equality in education, but there remains some way to travel. This report provides a map for at least the first part of the journey. The united efforts of governments, NGOs, civil society, the corporate sector and the international community will be crucial to ensure maximum possible progress as the route unfolds.



Koïchiro Matsuura
Director-General of UNESCO

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Executive summary

All countries have agreed to eliminate gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005. In its opening chapter, this second edition of the EFA Global Monitoring Report sets out the powerful human rights case for achieving parity and equality in education. Chapter 2 monitors progress towards the six EFA goals through a gender lens. The next two chapters look at why girls are still held back and highlight policies that can lift barriers and improve learning. Strategies to remove gender gaps in education are part of a much broader reform effort underway in many countries, as Chapter 5 shows. This agenda cannot be met without much bolder international commitments and better co-ordination, which is assessed in Chapter 6. It is in the interests of all states and peoples to remove the gender gap and it should be a top priority in all educational programmes, as the final chapter concludes.

Chapter 1.

Rights, equality and Education for All

The international community is committed to eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary schooling by 2005, and to achieving gender equality by 2015. This chapter highlights the solid human rights framework that underpins education and identifies the social and economic benefits of educating girls and women.

Education is a human right, enshrined in international treaties and conventions that are legally binding on signatory states. The two most recent conventions – the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW, 1979) and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1990) – contain the most comprehensive set of legally enforceable commitments on the right to education and gender equality. This legislation, however, has had only partial success in boosting equality. It was reinforced politically, in the 1990s, at a series of UN conferences, which reaffirmed, and in some cases extended, the gender and education provisions in the human rights treaties. The Dakar Framework for Action and the Millennium Declaration both established time-bound gender equality goals to which all states are committed. These help to drive outcome-related reforms, monitor progress, identify policy gaps and pinpoint where international assistance is needed most.

There is also a powerful developmental case for achieving gender equality. It is clearly in the private and social interest to eliminate gender inequalities in education wherever they exist. The personal and social benefits are immense. Livelihoods are improved, families are healthier and better nourished, education is valued, and civic responsibility is enhanced. It is an affordable investment with high pay-offs.

Chapter 2.

Towards EFA: assessing progress

Using the most recent data on education systems for the year 2000, this chapter monitors through a gender lens progress towards achieving the six EFA goals. The Report distinguishes between parity and equality. The first is a purely numerical concept. Equality is a more complex notion. Full gender equality in education would imply that girls and boys are offered the same chances to go to school and enjoy teaching methods, curricula and academic orientation unaffected by gender bias. And more broadly, equal learning achievement and subsequent life opportunities for similar qualifications and experience.

There has been a strong global move towards greater gender parity, particularly at primary level, where the ratio of girls to boys enrolled improved from 88% to 94% between 1990 and 2000. Girls' enrolment has increased faster than boys' and in the three regions where gender inequalities are greatest – sub-Saharan Africa, the Arab States and South and West Asia – disparities have eased substantially.

But many countries, despite great efforts, have made little progress. Population growth has remained strong, and partly because of this, the number of the world's out-of-school children declined by only about 3% over the decade. Girls continue to face sharp discrimination in access to schooling. Nations with the highest gender disparities tend to be the most disadvantaged, often with a per capita income of less than one dollar a day.

On the basis of past rates of change, the Report finds that 60% of the 128 countries for which data are available are likely to miss reaching gender parity at primary and secondary levels by 2005. Twenty-two countries should achieve parity in primary and secondary education by 2015. Forty-percent of countries are at risk of not achieving gender parity either at primary (9) or secondary level (33) or at both (12), even by 2015. In many of these countries, policies are available that can deliver parity within a few years, as the following chapters explain.

The report introduces a new EFA Development Index, which incorporates data on four indicators: UPE (measured by net enrolment ratio), adult literacy (literacy rate of the 15-and-over age group), gender parity (average value of the gender parity index in primary and secondary education and in adult literacy), and quality of education (survival to primary Grade 5). EDI can be calculated for 94 countries based on 2000 data. Results show that no country from sub-Saharan Africa, the Arab States and West Asia (except the Maldives) is close to achieving these goals. They also reveal that the gender parity variable is the most efficient predictor of achieving EFA.

Chapter 3.

Why are girls still held back?

A three-stage rights agenda is used to analyse the multiple dimensions of inequality. First, problems affecting the exercise of *rights to* education include constraints in the family and within society that affect girls' access to school. Countries in which there is strong cultural preference for sons also tend to have the greatest gender inequalities. Early marriage massively impedes the educational progress of girls. The global HIV/AIDS scourge, armed conflict and disability all play a part in curtailing their right to education.

Children's need to work is one of the main reasons they do not go to school. Parents are the main employers of children, a fact not necessarily reflected in statistics that omit those engaged in domestic chores, many of whom are girls. Policy must affect the circumstances and attitudes of parents if all girls are to have the chance to learn. School fees also act as a major barrier to schooling and are levied in at least 101 countries.

Second, *rights within* education focus on how school systems take girls' specific needs into account through curricula, teaching methods and the learning environment. The Report notes that girls are disproportionately the victims of sexual harassment and violence in school, leading to under-achievement and high drop-out rates.

Finally, *rights through* education concern how girls perform in school and how achievement translates into equal opportunities in social and economic spheres. Evidence that girls are outperforming boys in several developed countries has created a public stir. In many developing countries where gender parity is still far off, both boys and girls fare badly.

Boys' under-achievement in the educational arena has not yet resulted in their falling behind in economic and political spheres. Assessing the extent to which girls are held back at each stage of the rights agenda leads to specific policy answers. But achieving parity does not end with equal numbers: equal opportunities, treatment and outcomes in education and in society are the crucial yardsticks of progress.

Chapter 4.

Lessons from good practice

Although there is no 'magic bullet' for narrowing the gender gap and promoting equality in education, a wide range of international experience points to breakthroughs that have facilitated girls' access to schooling and improved performance.

Legislative change and reform is essential for gender equality. Establishing property rights and reforming family law can counteract entrenched social norms that also affect whether children go to school. In most countries, a strong general policy on gender equality is also needed so both women's and men's interests are explicitly considered in all legislation, policies and programmes.

The direct and indirect costs of schooling to households impede access to education for the most disadvantaged groups. Fees are still charged in 26 of the 35 countries unlikely to reach the gender parity goal for primary schooling in 2005. Measures to reduce or remove the need for child labour are a decisive way to increase school enrolment among girls and boys.

Policies can be designed specifically to change the balance of incentives that lead to girls, in particular, being excluded from school. Scholarships, income-support schemes and school feeding programmes are three types of targeting measures that have proved effective.

Schools must be places where stereotypes are undermined, not reinforced, through gender-aware curricula and professional teacher training. Recruiting women teachers, particularly for rural or isolated schools, remains a high priority. Locating schools closer to homes, providing sanitary facilities and furniture, together with acceptable class sizes, are all investments that encourage parents to send their daughters to school. HIV/AIDS prevention and sexual and reproductive health education should be a priority in its own right, with adequate support given to teachers.

Early childhood programmes and bridge courses for girls who get a late start in education are both fields deserving further attention. Literacy and skills training are vital to empower women and to further the chances of their daughters getting an education.

In most of the countries that have made considerable progress in promoting gender parity and equality in education, the state has played a leading role. Besides subsidies to reduce the cost of education for families, governments need to pursue a range of wider economic and social policies to remove the pernicious influence of child labour and discrimination in pay and work.

Chapter 5.

From targets to reform: national strategies in action

This chapter analyses national policies and reforms that can make a significant contribution to achieving EFA and monitors how far countries are translating their commitments into action through specific strategies and programmes.

Guided by international commitments, notably the Dakar Framework for Action and the United Nations Millennium Development Goals, governments are increasingly setting specific national education targets. Decentralization is often held up as one path towards responding more effectively to local needs, broadening the revenue base and giving civil society a stronger voice. One recent survey suggests that 80% of developing countries are experimenting with some form of decentralization. As this process gains pace in many countries, particular attention must be paid to the risk of increasing disparities in educational opportunities to the detriment of children.

Several countries in sub-Saharan Africa have recently abolished primary education fees. This is welcome and necessary. However, it must be managed carefully: studies show it often goes hand-in-hand with a substantial drop in per-student spending and a decline in quality. Countries concerned lack qualified teachers and report significant drop-out levels.

EFA is also on the agenda of industrialised and transition nations. In the first, attention to the language of instruction for minority children and to reaching youth who do not complete secondary education are pressing issues. In the second, many countries are fighting to reverse declining enrolment. As states grapple with extending educational rights to all their citizens, there is a clear case for mutual learning between different regions of the world.

Chapter 6.

Meeting our international commitments

Trends in aid flows to education and international initiatives provide two lenses through which to capture how global commitment to achieve the EFA goals has advanced over the past year.

Bilateral aid to education fell by 16% between 1998-99 and 2000-01, and from 10% to 8% of total aid commitments. Aid to basic education, however, is rising. Support for basic education from all OECD-DAC countries increased from 13% to 24% of bilateral education aid during this same period. Multilateral aid to basic education fell due to lower contributions from the regional development banks. Overall, however, the current level of US$1.5 billion of support needed for basic education is still far short of the US$5.6 billion per year required to meet the UPE and gender goals alone. A survey by the Report also reveals that aid is attracted by better-performing education systems. An analysis of 77 countries shows that bilateral aid per out-of-school child increases significantly with the level of net enrolment.

The Fast-Track Initiative designed to help achieve UPE by 2015 is at a critical juncture. By August 2003, the estimated financing gap for the first seven countries for 2003–05 remained at about US$118 million, compared with US$207 secured so far. Agreement is urgently needed on whether the Initiative is to be in the mainstream of aid to education, with the implications this has for levels of funding. Otherwise, this potentially important instrument to help secure EFA is likely to be at risk.

Mechanisms instituted by UNESCO to co-ordinate EFA – the High-Level Group and the Working Group – must be strengthened to have an international impact. If EFA is to compete successfully with other major development issues for the attention of world leaders, a strong, well-co-ordinated, well-publicized 'platform' for its messages is essential.

Chapter 7.

Gendered strategies for EFA

The removal of gender gaps should have first priority in all programmes of school expansion and quality improvements. The state has a fundamental role in making good-quality basic education a right and a reality for every citizen. It must create an enabling environment for promoting gender equality, invest in redistribution strategies and mitigate the burden of conflict, economic crisis and HIV/AIDS. The international community must boldly accompany this process, using a gender lens as a focus for all aid to education programmes.



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A girl in Guatemala reads the news to her grandmother.

Chapter 1

Rights, equality and Education for All

'Education for All' means what it says. The international community has committed itself, in the Dakar Framework for Action, to having all eligible children attending fee-free primary schooling by 2015. In addition, adult illiteracy is to be halved, early childhood education and programmes for out-of-school youth are to be increased, and the quality of education is to be much improved. 'All children' includes, of course, boys and girls. However, both the Framework and the Millennium Declaration emphasize that gender disparities in primary and secondary schooling are to be eliminated by 2005, and that equality throughout education is to be achieved within a further ten years. Gender equality, then, is given major prominence in the Dakar and Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Why is this?

In no society do women yet enjoy the same opportunities as men. They work longer hours and they are paid less, both in total and *pro rata*. Their choices as to how they spend their time, in both work and leisure, are more constrained than they are for men. These disparities generate substantial gaps between how much women and men can contribute to society, and how much they respectively share in its benefits. In most countries, a fundamental aspect of these disparities, which is both one of their causes and one of their continuing consequences, is inequality in access to and performance in education. These inequalities are deep-seated, and will require special attention and commitment if they are to be removed within the time-frame envisaged by the Education for All (EFA) goals. Accordingly, this report focuses on the main dimensions and causes of these educational inequalities and identifies strategies whereby they can be overcome.

Educational inequality is a major infringement of the rights of women and girls.

The continuing prevalence of educational inequality is a major infringement of the rights of women and girls, and it is also an important impediment to social and economic development. This first chapter is concerned not with philosophical questions about the appropriate nature or extent of these 'rights'. Rather it documents the extent to which such rights are already accepted as legally binding on states by virtue of international treaty, or are promised by international declarations which governments have approved. The important developmental case for securing educational equality is also briefly discussed.

Chapter 2 provides an assessment of the world's recent progress towards achieving the six EFA goals, giving particular attention to gender and to the ways in which it affects the implementation of all of Dakar's educational aims. Chapters 3 and 4 focus upon the causes of gender inequality in education and upon potential solutions, respectively. The following two chapters adopt a broader agenda – assessing progress with national EFA strategies in Chapter 5 and examining the extent to which international commitments in support of EFA are being met in Chapter 6. The final chapter pulls together these strands, outlining the major elements of national and international strategy towards achieving a genuinely equitable education for all.

Rights to education: legal obligations versus political commitments

In November 1948 the nations of the world made a declaration about the nature and extent of human rights which was remarkable in its detail. Amongst many others, the right to education was acknowledged for all people. Furthermore, it was declared that elementary education would be free and compulsory and that the higher levels of education would be accessible to all on the basis of merit (United Nations, 1948, Article 26). The task of transforming these undertakings into reality has continued to inspire and inform international action ever since.

Such action has taken two main routes. The first of these has used treaties as instruments to secure human rights observance. Between 1976 and 1990 a series of international covenants and conventions was promulgated which provided a comprehensive legal basis for required measures to protect and deliver human rights. Those which most affect education, and gender equality within it, are indicated in Box 1.1 and more detail is provided in Appendix 1. The earliest two of these, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), together with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, have been proclaimed by the United Nations to constitute the International Bill of Human Rights. They contain the provisions on compulsory and free primary education, and non-discrimination in education, that were first set out in the 1948 Declaration. The two more recent conventions – the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW, 1979) and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC, 1989) – contain the most comprehensive sets of legally enforceable commitments concerning both rights to education and to gender equality.

The first of these, CEDAW, includes wide-ranging provisions for ending gender discrimination. As indicated in Appendix 1, it says that there shall be no distinction in the extent of educational provision for women and men, that there will be equal opportunity for scholarships, for continuing education, literacy, sports and physical education, and that stereotyping in curricula

shall be eliminated. Further, it recognizes that special and unequal resource allocation, introduced for the express purpose of ending inequality, is not in itself discriminatory provided that such special measures are ended once equality has been achieved. By mid–2003, 173 countries had ratified this Convention. The exceptions notably included Bahrain, Botswana, Brunei Darussalam, Indonesia, the Islamic Republic of Iran, Somalia, the Sudan, the Syrian Arab Republic and the United States.

The Convention on the Rights of the Child is the most widely accepted human rights treaty and contains strong guarantees of the right to education. It reaffirms the right of every child, 'without discrimination of any kind' to free and compulsory primary schooling, and states that the higher levels shall be 'accessible to all'. Furthermore, it protects the child from exploitation, including from work that would otherwise interfere with education (Articles 32.1/32.2). The CRC has been ratified by all the nations of the world, with the exception of the United States and Somalia.[1]

The process of ratification is important, as it accords the treaty an internationally recognized legal status which obliges ratifying countries to implement its provisions. Accordingly, the great majority of countries in the world – as a consequence of having ratified – are legally obliged to meet the provisions for gender equality and for universal access to education which are set out in these two treaties.

Each of the human rights treaties listed in Box 1.1 entails a reporting procedure, which requires the government's periodic self-assessment of its compliance. Following ratification, an initial report from the government provides a baseline review of its conformity with the human rights guarantees. It also includes an assessment of the obstacles to implementation and specification of a strategy whereby they can be overcome. This product is issued as an official United Nations document, and is discussed with the relevant United Nations treaty body. Subsequent reports monitor progress or retrogression and, again, identify constraints and means of overcoming them. Governments are expected to publicize these reports, and to involve civil society institutions in both their production and dissemination.

These procedures are, in principle, robust. However, if governments do not submit reports, no information is made available to the treaty bodies whereby objective assessments about implementation can be made. In the case of CEDAW, for example, the reporting process obliges each state to submit an initial report within four years of ratifying the Convention, followed by periodic reports at least every four years. However, of the 173 countries that had ratified the convention, initial reports had not been received from 60 of them by mid–2003 (Tomasevski, 2003). Not surprisingly, those governments that are in breach of their reporting obligations are often also in breach of the treaty provisions themselves.

The purpose of the reporting process is to secure both domestic and international accountability of governments for implementing measures to guarantee human rights. Nevertheless, implementation of the rights to education and to gender equality within it is patchy, and the process of regulation, via reporting requirements placed on governments, though firm, has proved to be avoidable by about one-third of states.

The second route towards securing acceptance of and compliance with human rights obligations has been to use the declarations of international conferences, convened by the United Nations, as additional instruments. The outcomes of four of these – the Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action (1993), the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) (1994), the World Summit for Social Development (1995), and the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995) – are also summarized in Box 1.1. Each of them reaffirmed (in different ways and with different emphases) the gender equality provisions in education to which states were already committed by the earlier human rights conventions.

The educational commitments made in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights have also been reaffirmed on many occasions over the intervening years. Most notably, during the 1960s a set of regional conferences convened by UNESCO established target dates for the achievement of universal primary education (UPE) by 1980 in most of the developing regions of the world. By 1990, however, there was still far to go, and the World Conference on Education for All, held that year in Jomtien (Thailand), set out

The Convention on the Rights of the Child contains strong guarantees of the right to education.

1. The United States has taken the view that economic, social and cultural rights are goals that can only be achieved progressively, rather than guaranteed. Consequently, it is not party to human rights treaties dealing with economic and social rights, or gender discrimination.

Box 1.1. The 'gender commitment' instruments

There are two types of instrument that indicate international commitment to gender equality in education: *international treaties*, which are intended for ratification by individual countries giving them legal weight, and '*political promises*', developed by international consensus to be a further stimulus to promote 'action'. The following instruments (in chronological order) demonstrate the evolution of specific gender commitments in education. Appendix 1 provides more detail for each of them.

International treaties

International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR)

Adopted – 1966; came into force – 1976;
Number of countries which have ratified – 144

This instrument, the ICCPR (below), and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, have together been proclaimed by the United Nations to constitute the International Bill of Human Rights. This particular instrument has six entries in Appendix 1. Its commitment to non-discrimination is affirmed. It commits states to economic measures for free primary education and financial support, educational and other forms of support for families, and support for teachers.

International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR)

Adopted – 1966; came into force – 1976;
Number of countries which have ratified – 148

One of the three instruments to make up the International Bill of Human Rights, this international treaty has limited coverage of gender and education.

Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)

Adopted – 1979; came into force – 1981;
Number of countries which have ratified – 173

Unlike the two previous treaties, CEDAW was developed specifically with gender in mind. Its eleven entries in Appendix 1 indicate an emphasis on *rights to education* with provisions covering primary, secondary, higher education, non-formal education, sports education, and family planning information.

Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC)

Adopted – 1989; came into force – 1990;
Number of countries which have ratified – 190

The CRC ensures the rights of the child and includes provisions to guarantee rights to education. The CRC has twelve entries in Appendix 1. Like its predecessors, it reaffirms human rights in a context that does not discriminate based on sex. It contains a strong emphasis on measures to promote free primary education and financial support, human rights education, sex education and reproductive health information, educational counselling, and a gender-aware curriculum.

Political promises

Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action – 1993

The Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action was drafted at the World Conference of Human Rights as a reaffirmation of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. There are eleven entries in Appendix 1 spanning all relevant areas. The Vienna instrument places a strong emphasis on the state's obligations to promote gender equality, including in education.

International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) – 1994

The International Conference on Population and Development was held in order to assess progress in reaching the objectives of the 1974 World Population Plan of Action, to increase awareness of population issues within the international agenda, and to adopt a set of recommendations for the next decade. The nineteen entries span all areas of Appendix 1, demonstrating an increasing level of awareness of gender issues.

Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action – 1995

The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action reaffirms the fundamental principle set forth in the Vienna Declaration, that the human rights of women and of the girl child are an inalienable, integral and indivisible part of universal human rights. As an agenda for action, the Platform seeks to promote and protect the full enjoyment of all human rights and the fundamental freedoms of all women throughout their life cycle. There are twenty-two entries related to gender and education, which span most relevant areas.

World Summit for Social Development – Copenhagen 1995

The World Summit for Social Development represented a new consensus on the need to put people at the centre of development. Among the decisions made were ten commitments, two of which affect gender in education. These are: (a) to achieve equality and equity between women and men; and (b) to attain universal and equitable access to education and primary health care. The instrument results in nine entries in Appendix 1, reflecting that this instrument does not only address gender and education but social development in a much broader context.

an 'expanded vision for education' and restated the UPE goal for achievement by the year 2000. Although great progress had been made in most regions this, again, was not fully realized by all countries. Accordingly, in 2000, the Dakar Framework for Action and the Millennium Declaration respecified both the education and the gender goals in a more formal way (Box 1.2).

All these restatements of the rights to education have indicated their equal applicability for all people, without distinction of race, sex or nationality. However the notion of gender equality was increasingly emphasized over the years, and the achievement of gender parity and equality in education was given separate importance in the most recent statements of the development goals.

Extending the agenda

It is clear that human rights legislation has had only partial success in delivering equality in education. Perhaps, then, the benefits of separately securing government commitment to honour these same rights, using conference declarations as instruments, should be questioned. In what ways can these measures help, given that 'declarations' and other conference instruments carry merely political rather than legal authority? One short answer to this question is that, precisely because legal and political processes are distinct, it is more likely that implementation will be secured if they result in mutually consistent messages, rather than in contradiction.

In addition, however, both the Jomtien Declaration and the Dakar Framework – and the declarations from the other major United Nations conferences of the 1990s – provided some flesh for the rather minimalist bones of existing human rights legislation. They can thus be seen as not merely reconfirming a commitment to the treaties, but also as initiatives which go beyond them – sometimes substantially so.

The human rights treaties themselves mainly focus on the provision of free and compulsory primary schooling and the elimination of gender inequalities throughout education. It is notable that these two aspects are taken up as Goals 3 and 4 of the Millennium Declaration and that they, in turn, comprise the second and fifth of the Dakar goals (Box 1.2). The MDG targets for education, however, are cautiously phrased – they omit mention of 'free and compulsory' primary schooling, and restrict themselves to seeking the elimination of gender disparities in education rather than to achieving the more demanding gender equality espoused by the Dakar Framework. In these respects these two goals are, in fact, rather less fully reflective of human rights commitments, as set out in the relevant treaties, than are the Dakar goals.

Literacy is not mentioned in the MDGs, whereas there is a commitment to provide 'fundamental education for those who have not completed primary education' in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (Article 13.2). This too is reflected in the Dakar

Box 1.2. The Dakar Framework and Millennium Development Goals

EFA Dakar 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% 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.

Millennium Development Goals

Goal 2. Achieve UPE

Target 3. Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling.

Goal 3. Promote gender equality and empower women

Target 4. Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and to all levels of education no later than 2015.

Framework (Goal 4) which seeks a substantial improvement in literacy and in access to adult basic education. On the other hand, Dakar goes much further. In seeking to expand early childhood education (Goal 1), life skills programmes for all young people and adults (Goal 3) and an improvement in the quality of education at all levels (Goal 6), the Dakar Framework extends the agreed education commitments beyond those that are implied by human rights treaties. Accordingly, this represents an extension of the agenda, rather than merely its reconfirmation.

The Dakar goals go well beyond those set out in the human rights treaties: they establish a more ambitious agenda.

Time-bound targets

A further way in which the Dakar goals and the MDGs differ from state commitments under human rights legislation is that they include time-bound targets. This is useful in a number of ways. First, it softens the judgement of 'being in default' which is implied for those countries where some human rights targets have not yet been achieved. By introducing a dynamic dimension, it shifts attention from whether or not human rights are being violated, towards consideration of how they will be met over a discrete period of years. This allows space for planning and implementation and for the notion that what really counts is making progress towards the goals, rather than whether or not particular countries are currently in default of their obligations.

Second, it facilitates a potentially more inclusive process. Although those states that have not met their reporting obligations under the conventions are most likely to be recalcitrant in other ways, those furthest from guaranteeing human rights to their peoples are likely to be those which have not ratified the Conventions in the first place. In recognition of this, the Dakar goals are potentially able to facilitate dialogue with all governments, irrespective of whether they are signatories to CRC or CEDAW.

Third, time-bound targets make the process of goal achievement more tangible and they facilitate more explicit monitoring of progress. As this report demonstrates, it is thereby possible to anticipate how well regions and countries are doing, and to indicate priorities for national or international action in support of their efforts. A related, but important advantage of such an approach is the extent to which international as well as national agents can be held to account. The international community has consistently indicated that no country with a credible plan for achieving EFA will be prevented from implementing it owing to a lack of resources (UNESCO, 2000*f*). Accordingly the actions of aid agencies in providing resources can be judged in comparison with what is required, in ways that would be difficult if there were no notion of a target date for achieving the goals. In this sense, time-bound targets allow their responsibility to be more explicitly shared between developing and more developed countries, than would otherwise be allowed by a dependence only on the human rights legislative instruments.

In summary, the Dakar goals reflect the substance of government education commitments contained in four core human rights treaties, introduced by the United Nations over the years 1976 to 1990, which have subsequently been ratified by the great majority of the world's governments. The main purpose of supplementing these legally-binding commitments with the goals established in the Dakar Framework, and in the MDGs, is to provide a means whereby political messages and legal commitments – at least at international level – can become mutually reinforcing. While the two MDG education goals are fairly narrowly couched, in comparison with international legal commitments, the Dakar goals go well beyond those set out in the human rights treaties: they establish a more ambitious agenda. Both these sets of goals are time-bound, which brings a number of advantages for planning, for resource mobilization and for monitoring.

Impact of gender equality in education on other development objectives

There exist clear sets of legal and political commitments to achieve gender equality in education, which have been freely undertaken by a majority of countries. Thus the right to Education for All is well articulated and accepted internationally. The moral basis for these provisions is compelling. However, there is also a very strong instrumental case for so doing. A large body of evidence shows that it is in the

private and social interests of people and communities to reduce gender inequalities in education wherever they exist.

Economic analysis has consistently shown that the private rates of return to education – estimated on the basis of the relationship between the private costs of undertaking education at each level and the impact it subsequently has on lifetime earnings – are significant, and at least as high as returns from the other ways in which families might invest their money (Psacharopoulos and Patrinos, 2002). In most countries women experience discrimination in the labour market, as witnessed by their occupational earnings being less than men at given ages and levels of education. However, the proportionate increase in wages (and thus rates of return) associated with an additional year of schooling at each level tend to be about the same for both sexes. Where returns do differ, they more often favour women than men (King and Hill, 1993; Psacharopoulos and Patrinos, 2002; Schultz, 1995).

Furthermore, in countries where primary and junior secondary schooling is not yet universal, private returns to education are highest at primary level and tend to decline at secondary and higher levels. Where girls have less access to schooling than boys, this pattern of returns implies that closing the gender gap in school

Private rates of return to education are significant.

Box 1.3. Gender, education and citizenship

Nation-states have particular ways in which they shape young people as citizens. Some countries, based upon egalitarian and socially inclusive principles, have educated all children within a common school system, with the aim of assimilating social, ethnic and cultural/religious differences. Other societies have segregated, or differentiated the education received by different groups of children – either to recognize differences or, more negatively, to exclude certain categories in society. In all these contexts, education plays a key role in shaping future citizens' identities and lives.

The wish to transmit core values (or 'citizen virtues') across social groups in order to help unite members of a community has to be balanced against the need to provide them with diverse skills and knowledge, in preparation for economic life. Some education systems have prioritized national values and cultures through an emphasis on patriotism and key national institutions. Socialist countries have emphasized the importance of schooling in creating social equality and collectivity. Western European liberal democratic approaches have tended to focus on the development of individual potential. These principles change with shifts in societal values. However they all point to the key role of education systems in nourishing citizenship.

Normative models of the male and female citizen are learned as children progress through the levels, hierarchies and processes of the school. School rituals (assemblies, uniforms, celebrations), forms of discipline, relationships between teacher and pupil, and curriculum content, all help to shape male and female citizen identities. School staffing structures represent to pupils the principles of the social order. These normative models are not always conducive to the promotion of greater social equality. Ideally, learning environments should model democratic principles in all their aspects. If girls are able to learn, through schooling, that they can be in control of their own lives, they will be more likely not just to perform well but also to engage in political issues when they become adults.

Achieving full citizenship status for men and women is not a single event. Attention needs to be focused on how male and female civic participation can be encouraged through styles of teaching and learning. Opportunities are needed for both boys and girls to achieve a sense of agency – of being in control of their lives and of the social environment in which they are located. Boys tend to be offered more chance to negotiate their identities in school, whereas girls can be constrained by an overly protective environment. This difference can be expressed by the amount of physical, linguistic and pedagogic space taken up by boys in mixed classrooms and schools: much of the 'action' in schools is male. Girls and boys each need encouragement to experience the possibilities of human action, and they should be allowed to participate fully in the learning experience without fear of intimidation, violence, marginalization or silencing.

Source: Arnot (2003); see also Heater (1990); Gordon et al. (2000).

enrolments will provide higher returns than would expansion policies that left the existing gender gap unchanged.

From a more macro perspective, increasing female education has been shown to have a greater effect on overall labour supply by increasing the amount of time that women work. By contrast, the quantity of work men wish to do seems not to be influenced by their own educational level (Schultz, 2002). A further complication is that men's wages, and their educational level, tend to have a downward impact on the labour supply of women. Accordingly, strategies to increase women's education relative to that of men will tend to increase overall labour-force participation and have positive effects both on the tax base and on economic growth.

Increasing the education levels of girls has a favourable impact on economic growth.

Growth would also be promoted because, where access to education is skewed in favour of boys, many of the girls who are out of school will have higher levels of natural ability than many of the boys who are not.[2] Thus, redistributing school places towards achieving greater gender equality would raise the net ability levels of those at school and have a compounding effect on society's future stock of human capital.

Evidence suggests that gender parity – in terms of the relative 'stocks' of education held by men and women in the population – affects growth prospects independently of their absolute levels (Klasen, 2002), and that, particularly for countries at lower levels of income, increasing the education levels of girls has a favourable impact on economic growth (Dollar and Gatti, 1999). One of the likely reasons for the growth impact of female education in these circumstances is its positive effects on levels of agricultural productivity. This relationship has been well documented for many years (Jamison and Lau, 1982), but more recent evidence of its separately beneficial effects for the productivity of women and men in farming is beginning to emerge (Smith and Haddad, 1999; Quisumbing, 1996).

Education institutions also play a key role in the democratic process by giving women and men the opportunity, the knowledge and the commitment to influence the nature and direction of society. Individuals cannot develop their full potential without education, nor can they participate fully as citizens. Excluding girls from school badly affects their sense of agency and constrains civic and political life (Box 1.3).

A very important consequence of society investing more in the education of girls and women is the changes brought about in household behaviour and practice. Some of these changes are highly valued by society. For example, the improved sustenance of children has been shown to be more strongly associated with increased levels of education of the mother than of the father. This is so with respect to the birth weight of children, child mortality, nutrition, morbidity, school entry at early ages and longevity in school.[3] Equally, the schooling of parents (and in particular of female parents) increases the probability of their children – of both sexes – attending school. Thus, giving priority to educating girls during the move towards EFA is a better way of ensuring its future sustainability over the years when the present school-age generation will themselves have become parents.

2. This assumes that it is those with greater ability, among both sexes, who tend to have greater access to school.

3. Reviews are provided by Schultz (2002) and Abu-Ghaida and Klasen (2002). Although some of these effects may truly be more a function of joint determination of family outcomes between male and female partners than the literature conventionally acknowledges (see Behrman et al., 1997; Schultz, 2002, p. 214), such analytic niceties are likely only to reduce the positive behavioural impact of female education, in comparison with that of males, rather than to remove it completely.

A further welcome benefit of the schooling of women concerns its well-documented negative impact on rates of fertility (Cochrane, 1979; Schultz, 1997). In some societies, particularly in Africa, the first few years of schooling appear to have little effect on fertility. But elsewhere, education is associated with reductions in fertility, cumulatively for each additional year. The evidence suggests, moreover, that additional years of schooling of men are associated with increased fertility (for given years of education held by women).[4] So, in this context, targeting women and girls is particularly important.

The economic and social benefits of fertility decline are considerable. It lowers the dependency burden, which should increase national savings. It increases the labour force as a proportion of the population, and via its employment effects in turn helps to boost per capita incomes. The effect on economic growth can be considerable – some estimates suggest that up to 2 percentage points of annual per capita income growth in East and South-East Asian countries was due to this demographic effect of declining fertility (Bloom and Williamson, 1998). High female education in these countries could thus have contributed substantially to their economic boom.

All these direct and indirect benefits indicate that, where females have less access to schooling than males, society loses. In such circumstances, there is a clear case for the extension of greater subsidies to the education of females than of males, and for economic policy and investment to be targeted at that objective.

Conclusion

The rights-based arguments for achieving gender equality in education are of overriding significance. However, those countries that heed their moral, legal and political case also act strongly in their own economic and social interests. In this sense, strategies to achieve gender equality in education entail no unwelcome trade-offs. Arguments that equality cannot be afforded, or that it would generate pressures that conflict with other, more pressing, development priorities are largely false. On the contrary, a committed shift towards the creation of gender equality in education can deliver a wide range of associated benefits for economic growth and for other objectives of development policy. This report demonstrates that the task is not straightforward, and that it requires changes extending well beyond the boundaries of education policy. However, its potential benefits make it one of the most important challenges facing governments, and their societies, during these early years of the new century.

Arguments that equality cannot be afforded, or that it would generate pressures that conflict with other more pressing development priorities, are largely false.

4. See Schultz (1995, 2002). The negative impact of women's education on fertility is, of course, mediated by other variables. It is generally strong, but not automatic. See also the discussion in Chapter 4.


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Chapter 2

Towards EFA: assessing progress

This chapter provides an assessment of global progress towards achieving the six EFA goals. It uses the most recent data on education systems for 2000, updating last year's analysis and extending it in important respects.

Reflecting the report's theme, the analysis gives particular attention to the gender goals and how they affect the implementation of all Dakar's educational aims. Gender parity at primary and secondary levels is an objective for 2005, and equality throughout all education is to be achieved over the following decade. So the discussion of each of the goals adopts a gender focus wherever the data allow.

The chapter is in seven sections. After a look at trends in ECCE, three sections assess progress towards higher enrolments, quality and gender parity at the primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education. Discussion of life skills and literacy programmes is then followed by some recent evidence on trends in educational quality. The final section attempts to compare the overall progress being made by different nations and regions. It focuses on how far the goals for gender parity are within reach for 2005, and introduces a new EFA Development Index to give a more aggregated comparator of national progress towards the education targets.

Early childhood care and education

Goal 1. Expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children.

Early childhood care and education is a diverse area of learning. It ranges, on the one hand, from formal pre-primary education, which is integrated with the national education system, via kindergartens where care, play and education are all included, to more informal and often home-based activities. Internationally comparable data are currently available for formal pre-primary enrolments in around three-quarters (152) of all countries. Although efforts are being made to collect information on more informal activities for the pre-primary age group (usually 3 to 5 years), only fifteen countries are as yet able to supply these data (Statistical annex, Table 3). A third indicator – the percentage of new entrants to primary Grade 1 who have

Table 2.1. Pre-primary education: grouping of countries according to gross enrolment ratio (2000)
(in each box countries are listed in increasing order of GER)

	Levels of GER				
Regions	≤ 30%	30.1%-50%	50.1%-70%	70.1%-90%	Above 90%
Sub-Saharan Africa	D. R. Congo, Niger, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Mali, Comoros, Ethiopia, Togo, Rwanda, Côte d'Ivoire, Congo, Madagascar, Senegal, Guinea-Bissau, Sierra Leone, Uganda, Eritrea, Benin, Cameroon, Gabon, Lesotho, Gambia, Namibia, Equat. Guinea (24)	South Africa, Zimbabwe, Kenya (3)	Cape Verde, Ghana, Liberia (3)		Mauritius (1)
Arab States	Yemen, Djibouti, Algeria, Oman, Saudi Arabia, Iraq, Libyan A. J., Syrian A. R., Egypt, Tunisia, Sudan, Qatar (12)	Jordan, Palestinian A. T., Bahrain (3)	Morocco (1)	Lebanon, U. A. Emirates (2)	Kuwait (1)
Central Asia	Tajikistan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Azerbaijan, Mongolia (5)	Georgia (1)			
East Asia and the Pacific	Myanmar, Cambodia, Lao PDR, Papua New Guinea, Indonesia, China (6)	Philippines, Tonga, Samoa, Viet Nam, Brunei Darussalam, Malaysia (6)	Palau (1)	Vanuatu, Rep. of Korea, Thailand, Japan, Cook Islands (5)	Macao (China), Australia, Niue (3)
South and West Asia	Nepal, Isl. Rep. of Iran, Bangladesh, India (4)	Maldives (1)	Pakistan (1)		
Latin America and the Caribbean	Bahamas, Honduras, Nicaragua (3)	Belize, Colombia, Dominican Rep., El Salvador, Bolivia, Panama, Venezuela (7)	Guatemala, Argentina, Saint Lucia, Uruguay, Trinidad and Tobago, Brazil, Peru, Ecuador (8)	Mexico, Chile, Barbados, Jamaica, Paraguay, Costa Rica, Neth. Antilles (7)	Suriname, Aruba, Cuba, Guyana (4)
North America and Western Europe			Finland, Cyprus, United States, Canada, Portugal (5)	Greece, Sweden, Norway, United Kingdom, Austria, Denmark (6)	Switzerland, Italy, Netherlands, Malta, Spain, Germany, Iceland, Israel, Belgium, France, Luxembourg (11)
Central and Eastern Europe	Turkey, The FYR of Macedonia (2)	Serbia and Montenegro, Rep. of Moldova, Croatia, Albania, Poland (5)	Lithuania, Latvia, Bulgaria (3)	Romania, Slovenia, Hungary, Slovakia, Belarus, Russian Federation (6)	Czech Rep., Estonia (2)
Total number of countries 152	56	26	22	26	22

General note: See source table for detailed country notes.
Source: Statistical annex, Table 3.

attended some form of organized early childhood development programmes – is available for rather more (forty-three) countries. Although these broader indicators of participation are becoming increasingly available, the gross enrolment ratio (GER) in pre-primary education is still the main indicator that can be used to monitor progress towards the first Dakar goal.

Enrolment in pre-primary education

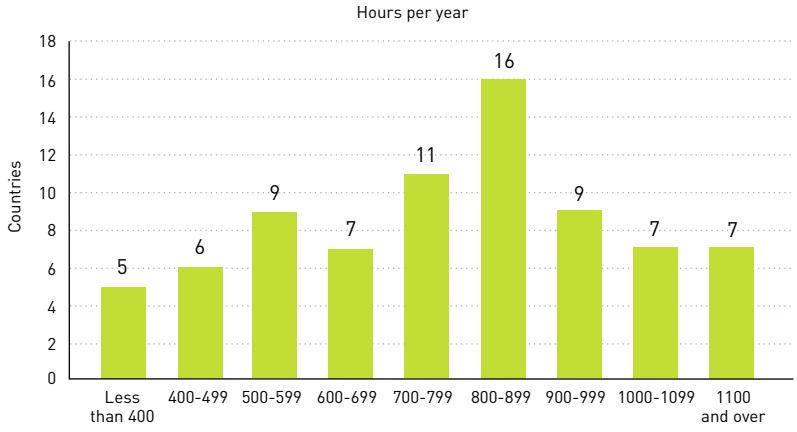
Pre-primary education is defined as programmes of organized instruction which are school- or centre-based, occupying at least two hours per day and 100 days per year. By their very nature these data are difficult to collect. First, many programmes are dispensed privately – accounting for all pre-school enrolments in some countries. Private providers, including NGOs, local communities and religious institutions, are not always easy to include in the surveys, and may often not be recognized by the authorities as valid providers.[1] Second, even in the public sector, programmes provided under the responsibility of authorities other than ministries of education – the main UNESCO counterpart with regard to annual statistical surveys – are not always reported in replies to surveys.

Thus it is possible that statistical information on pre-primary education does not give the full picture in many countries. Moreover, even within the relatively homogeneous category of programmes provided by the public sector, their duration, curriculum and teacher qualifications are so diverse as to make international comparisons difficult.

Table 2.1 shows countries grouped according to the level of their enrolment ratios in pre-primary education. More than one-third of the countries (56 out of 152) have very low pre-primary enrolments (fewer than 30% of the age group), almost half of these being in sub-Saharan Africa. With the exception of Georgia, all countries in Central Asia are also in this category, many of which have had declining enrolments since 1990. All countries in North America and Western Europe and most of those in Central and Eastern Europe have enrolments equivalent to more than half the pre-school age group. Half of the former group have GERs greater than 90%, indicating that pre-schooling in these richer nations is virtually universal.

The intensity of instruction also varies greatly between countries. Table 2.2. shows, for seventy-seven countries, the average numbers of hours taught during the pre-school year. The average duration of the school year varies from lows of 195 hours in Iraq and 231 hours in Tajikistan to highs of 1,260 to 1,560 hours in Colombia, Cuba and Saint Kitts and Nevis. As shown in Figure 2.1, almost half (thirty-six) of the countries fall within the range 700 to 999 hours.

Figure 2.1. Distribution of countries according to duration of pre-primary schooling, 1999 (in hours per school year)



Source: Answers to UIS workshop questionnaires on the duration of schooling (2000).

Comparisons between 1990 and 2000

Enrolments in pre-primary schooling have generally increased considerably over the last decade. Figure 2.2 shows that the GERs increased consistently between 1990 and 2000 in all regions, particularly in Latin America and the Caribbean, where pre-primary education provision – already well developed by the early 1990s – continued to grow. This trend has not, however, been universal. Enrolment ratios fell in one or two African and Latin American countries. But the setbacks were substantial and widespread in Central Asia and Central and Eastern Europe, where the real value of state expenditures in education, as in other sectors, has been in decline[2] (see Box 2.1).

1. In sub-Saharan Africa and in some Arab States, but also in countries with a large Muslim population, Koranic schools are particularly relevant in this category. In the Niger, for example, in 2001, of almost 34,000 new entrants who had experienced some kind of ECCE over 80% came from Koranic schools, and this proportion has been increasing over the last three years for which data are available (Niger, 2002*a*, p. 18). It is not always possible to ascertain to what extent the centres or institutions providing this type of instruction are included in the surveys.

2. This remains true over the decade despite some recovery in certain countries since 1998.

Table 2.2. Duration of schooling in pre-primary education, by country (1999)

Country	Hours per week (1)	Days per week (2)	Weeks per year (3)	Days per year (4)	Hours per year (5) = (1) x (3)
Sub-Saharan Africa					
Benin	23	4.5	34	154	782
Burkina Faso	21	6	37	222	777
Cameroon[1]	*30*	5	36	180	1 080
Ethiopia*	*23.1*	5	42	210	971
Gambia	20	5	39	195	780
Ghana	27.3	5	40	200	1 092
Guinea-Bissau	24	5	35	175	840
Kenya	...	5	39	195	...
Liberia	25	5	37	185	925
Mali	26	5	38	190	988
Mauritania	30	5	36	180	1 080
Mauritius	25	5	40	200	1 000
Namibia	...	5	39	195	...
Niger	25	5	36	180	900
Nigeria	20	5	40	200	800
Sao Tome/Principe	25	5	36	180	900
Senegal	22.3	5	35	175	781
Seychelles	26.2	5	40	200	1 046
Sierra Leone	20	5	35	175	700
South Africa	...	5	41	205	...
Togo	21.3	5	40	200	852
U. R. Tanzania	17.3	5	42	210	727
Zambia	17.3	5	34	170	588
Arab States					
Iraq*	*5*	6	39	234	195
Kuwait	25	5	34	170	850
Lebanon[2]	26.3	5	32	160	840
Libyan A. J.	21	6	28	168	588
Morocco*	*32.3*	6	35	210	1 131
Saudi Arabia	22.3	5	29	145	647
Sudan	21	6	39	234	819
Syrian A. R.	32	6	36	216	1 152
United Arab Emirates	22	5	33	165	726
Yemen	20	5	28	140	560
Asia and the Pacific					
Central Asia					
Kazakhstan[1]	24	5	33	165	792
Mongolia	10	5	34	170	340
Tajikistan	7	5	33	165	231
East Asia and the Pacific					
Cambodia[2]	12	5	38	190	456
Cook Islands	10	5	41	205	410
Fiji	15	5	41	205	615
Lao PDR[2]	10	5	36	180	360
Macao, China*	*14.2*	*5.3*	*40.5*	*213*	*575*
Marshall Islands	15	5	36	180	540
Myanmar	...	5	36	180	...
Niue	12	3	40	120	480
Papua New Guinea[2]	10	5	41	205	410
Palau	17.3	5	34	170	588
Samoa	15	5	40	200	600
Tuvalu	15	5	40	200	600
Vanuatu*	*15*	5	39	195	585
Viet Nam	15	5	33	165	495
South and West Asia					
Bangladesh	12	6	37	222	444
Bhutan	22	5	39	195	858
Maldives	7.3	5	40	200	292
Nepal	24	6	36.7	220	881
Pakistan*	*28*	5.5	30	165	840
Latin America and the Caribbean					
Anguilla	15	5	39	195	585
Antigua and Barbuda	25	5	39	195	975
Bahamas*	25	5	*38*	*190*	950
Barbados	25	5	38	190	950
Belize	15	5	36	180	540
Bolivia*	*25*	5	44	220	1 100
Colombia	30	5	42	210	1 260
Costa Rica	14	5	44	220	616
Cuba[3]	32	5	41	205	1 312
Dominica	25	5	40	200	1 000
Dominican Republic	20	5	44	220	880
Ecuador	20	5	40	200	800
El Salvador	30	5	40	200	1 200
Guatemala	17.3	5	36	180	623
Guyana	20	5	39	195	780
Jamaica	22.3	5	38	190	847
Netherlands Antilles*	*23*	5	40	200	920
Nicaragua	20	5	43.5	218	870
Panama	25	5	42	210	1 050
Peru	20	5	36	180	720
Saint Kitts and Nevis	40	5	39	195	1 560
Saint Lucia	20	5	40.4	202	808
Suriname	20	5	42	210	840
Trinidad and Tobago	22.3	5	39	195	870
Turks and Caicos Is	20	5	39	195	780

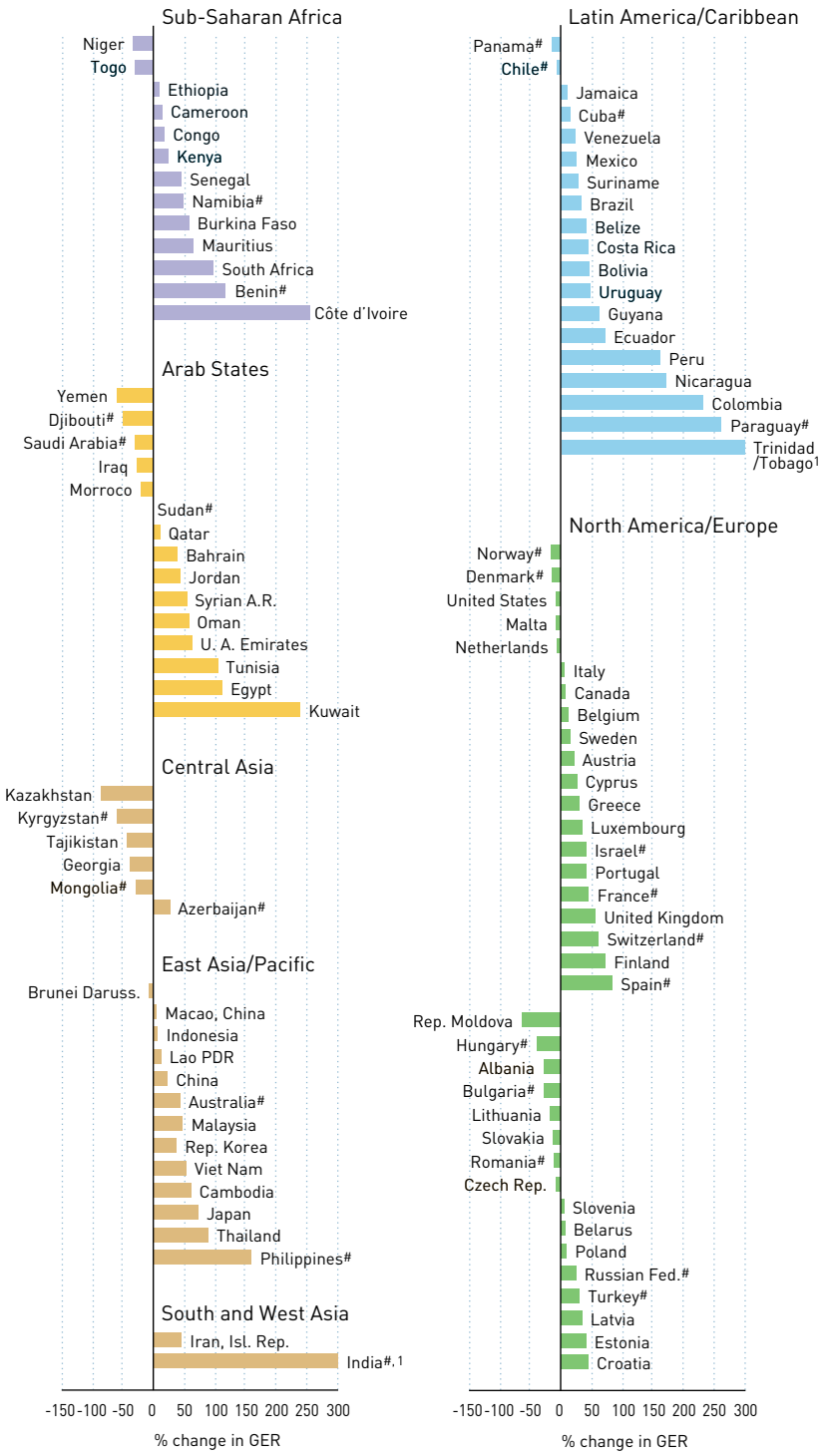
* Figures in italics are average durations calculated from varying durations at different grades, cycles or programmes.
1. The number of weeks per year is taken from the education database of the International Bureau of Education (UNESCO-IBE, 1999).
2. The number of hours per week has been recalculated, based on actual teaching time per hour.
3. Including playtime and time devoted to hygienic and cultural habits.
Source: Answers to UIS workshop questionnaires on the duration of schooling (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2000).

In North America and Western Europe, declines are evident for Norway and Denmark, probably explained by changes in the reference age groups used in the calculation of the ratios (see Table 2.3) as well as, to a more limited extent, in Malta, the Netherlands and the United States.

It must be emphasized, however, that some of these changes are more apparent than real. On the one hand, the definition of pre-primary education adopted in the revised International Standard Classification of Education (UNESCO, 1997) has slightly changed, and it is possible that new categories of pre-primary education provision, previously unreported, are now included in the replies to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) surveys, reflecting the growing emphasis since the Jomtien conference in 1990 on a broader notion of ECCE.

Of even greater significance, however, is that changes in the reference age groups used in the denominator of the GER will have significantly affected the reported value of the indicator. Table 2.3 shows the countries where such changes were made for the data shown for 1990 and 2000. For the Philippines, the GER in 1990 was calculated relative to the two-year age-group population (5–6). However, in 2000 it is obtained on the basis of the single year cohort of 5-year-olds, which, with no other changes, would roughly double the estimated GER. In Switzerland, the GER in 1990 was calculated with respect to those aged 4–6 years while the estimate for 2000 uses only the 5–6 age group. This explains a good amount of the reported 59% increase in the GER. India is a special case, where the increase exceeds the limits of the scale shown in Figure 2.2. Here, the change in the age group (which is increasing rather than decreasing) does not explain its more than six-fold increase in GER since 1990. It is probably the case that new categories of enrolment (particularly of children younger than 4 years) are included in the data, as well as signifying a real increase in pre-school activity. A closer analysis of the national situations is necessary to further explain such exceptional variations between the two years.

Figure 2.2. Pre-primary education: percentage changes in gross enrolment ratio between 1990 and 2000 (only countries with data available for the two years)



Indicates a change in the reference age group between 1990 and 2000 and therefore data for the two years are not strictly comparable. Precise changes in age groups are given in Table 2.3.

1. In India the change was 647% and in Trinidad and Tobago 612%.

Source: Statistical annex, Table 3.

Box 2.1. Trends in pre-primary education in countries in transition

By 1989, the enrolment of children in pre-schools was already quite uneven in transition countries, with high rates in Central Europe and much lower rates in the Caucasus and Central Asia. Across the region, pre-school enrolments fell as employment levels among the population decreased, fees were raised and more parents began to look after their children full time. In the countries of Central Europe and the Baltic states, pre-school enrolment rates began to recover in the mid-1990s and by 2000 had returned to their 1989 levels, although, as the population of young children in these countries had sharply declined, the number of pre-school places was considerably lower in 2000 than in 1989. More severe reductions occurred in the Republic of Moldova, Ukraine, the Caucasus and Central Asia. In Kyrgyzstan, pre-school education suffered greatly from funding cuts, resulting in the closure of large numbers of schools. In the Republic of Moldova, increased fees for pre-school education reduced the demand for places. On the other hand, by the late 1990s, Georgia and Azerbaijan had began to experience a revival in enrolment rates in pre-school education, albeit from very low levels.

Source: UNICEF (2002*a*).

Primary entrants with ECCE experience

The indicator for the percentage of pupils entering primary education who have experienced some form of ECCE was included in the 2000 assessment exercise and subsequent UIS surveys in order to appraise the coverage of ECCE programmes. The response rate was one of the lowest in the EFA assessment and it unfortunately remains rather low. Figure 2.3 shows the values for this indicator, for the forty-two countries with available data.[3] Given the important benefits provided by ECCE programmes in preparing children for basic education and helping with the socialization process, it can be seen that children entering primary schools in the various regions are very differently equipped to face their new environment.

Two contrasting patterns emerge. In sub-Saharan Africa, very few children have been exposed to ECCE, although Mauritius and the Seychelles report a proportion of 100%.

At the other extreme, the figures from Latin America and the Caribbean exceed 50% in most countries and approach 100% in Anguilla, Barbados, Cuba, Dominica, Guyana and the Turks and Caicos Islands. On the other hand, in the Arab States the figure is between 90% and 100% in Kuwait and Lebanon, but very low in Algeria and Djibouti.

As regards differences by gender, it can be seen from Figure 2.3 that girls receive ECCE

3. Data are not collected for North America and the European countries in the annual UIS survey, with the exception of the Russian Federation.

Table 2.3. Pre-primary education: age groups and gross enrolment ratio (1990 and 2000) and percentage changes in GER (1990–2000), selected countries

Region/country	1990 Age group	1990 GER (%)	2000 Age group	2000 GER (%)	% change in GER
Sub-Saharan Africa					
Namibia	6-6	14.4	3-5	21.4	49
Benin	3-5	2.6	4-5	6.1	131
Arab States					
Djibouti	4-5	0.7	3-5	0.4	-50
Saudi Arabia	4-5	7.2	3-5	5.0	-31
Sudan	5-6	19.7	4-5	*22.2*	13
Central Asia					
Kyrgyzstan	3-6	33.5	3-5	14.2	-58
Mongolia	4-7	39.1	3-7	28.7	-27
Azerbaijan	3-6	19.5	3-5	*24.1*	23
East Asia and the Pacific					
Australia	5-5	71.3	4-4	98.0	37
Philippines	5-6	11.7	5-5	30.2	159
South/West Asia					
India	4-5	3.5	3-5	*25.8*	647
LAC					
Panama	5-5	53.0	4-5	47.1	-11
Chile	5-5	82.4	4-5	77.5	-6
Cuba	5-5	101.1	3-5	108.8	8
Paraguay	6-6	27.1	3-5	*83.0*	206
N. America/W. Europe					
Norway	4-6	88.4	3-5	79.3	-10
Denmark	6-6	99.0	3-6	89.9	-9
Israel	2-5	85.4	3-5	112.6	32
France	2-5	83.3	3-5	114.4	37
Switzerland	4-6	59.7	5-6	95.2	59
Spain	2-5	59.4	3-5	101.8	71
Central/Eastern Europe					
Hungary	3-5	113.4	3-6	79.5	-30
Bulgaria	3-5	91.6	3-6	67.9	-26
Romania	3-5	76.0	3-6	73.0	-4
Russian Federation	3-6	74.0	4-6	87.2	18
Turkey	4-5	4.6	3-5	5.7	25

General note: See source table for individual country notes.
Source: Statistical annex, Table 3; UNESCO (1999).

proportionately slightly more than boys. This is so in just over half of the forty-two countries with available data by gender. In contrast, in only five countries is the female percentage lower than that for males, and in fifteen countries boys and girls with ECCE experience are in the same proportion.

The above information covers a broad variety of programmes offered to children of pre-school age. Closer examination of individual countries can provide insight as to the range and type of ECCE provision offered to pupils entering primary education. As Table 2.4 shows, in the case of the Niger, only 16.6% of new entrants to primary education in 2001 have received some form of ECCE. Much of this is provided in Koranic schools, which cater for over three-quarters of the pupils concerned. During a period of rapid expansion of primary entrants – by more than one-third over the three years 1999–2001 – the proportion having had some prior ECCE fell only slightly. Of the new entrants having had some ECCE, 43% were girls in 2001 – a slightly higher proportion than among new entrants as a whole.

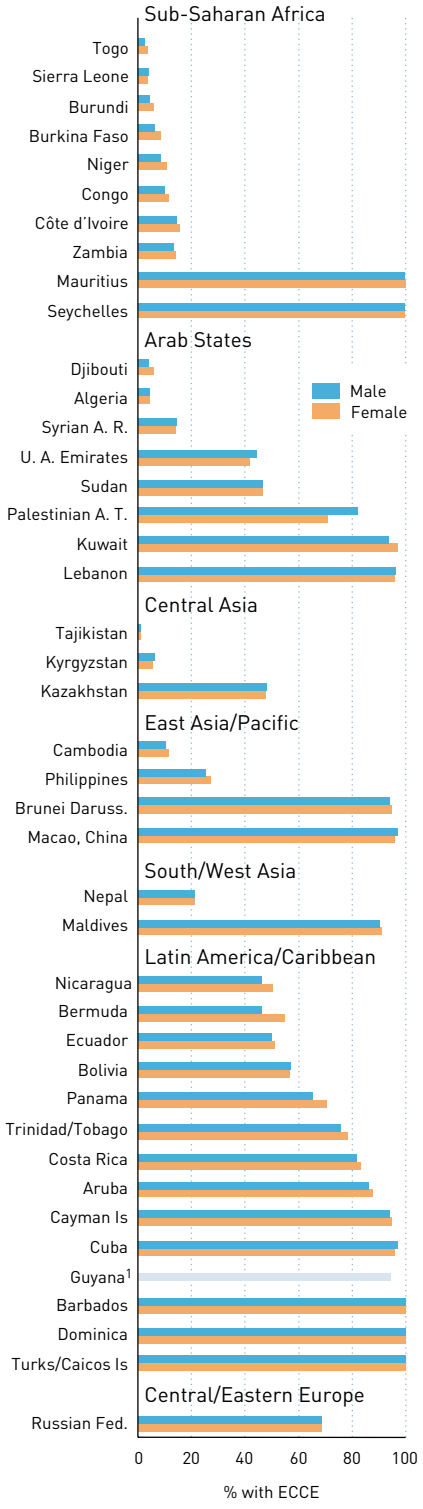
ECCE is often distributed very unequally within countries – more so than other levels of educational provision (see Box 2.2). Rural–urban differences are particularly marked, as indicated by data from the UNICEF Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) for 2000. Table 2.5 shows that differences between urban and rural attendance are generally more significant than the gender differences, which, in three of the five countries shown, favour girls.

Pre-primary enrolment in private institutions

The share of expenditure on pre-primary in comparison with other types of education is low in many developing countries. In OECD countries, where pre-primary education is well developed, the share of GDP devoted to pre-primary institutions is, on average, 0.4%, compared with 2.3% to primary and lower secondary education. In the World Education Indicators (WEI)[4] countries, where pre-primary is better established than in other developing countries, this proportion is 0.2% on average (UNESCO Institute for Statistics/OECD, 2003*a*, p. 184).

Private funding and management is high in pre-primary, compared with other levels of education.

Figure 2.3. New entrants in primary Grade 1 who have experienced some form of ECCE programme, by gender (2000)



1. Refers to both sexes.
Source: Statistical annex, Table 3.

ECCE is often distributed very unequally within countries – more so than other levels of education.

4. The World Education Indicators (WEI) programme was launched in 1997 by a number of countries together with UNESCO and OECD and with financial support from the World Bank. The aim of the programme is to contribute to the conceptual and developmental work carried out by OECD and UNESCO in the field of education indicators. Eighteen countries currently participate in this programme.

Table 2.4. The Niger: new entrants to primary education having experienced some form of ECCE programme (1999 and 2001)

	1999				2001				Increase 1999-2001 (%)
	Total	Boys	Girls	% girls	Total	Boys	Girls	% girls	
Kindergartens, pre-primary classes	6040	3126	2914	48.2	6762	3605	3157	46.7	12.0
Koranic schools	19553	11131	8422	43.1	27137	15794	11343	41.8	38.8
Total	25593	14257	11336	44.3	33899	19399	14500	42.8	32.5
Koranic schools as % of total	76.4	78.1	74.3		80.1	81.4	78.2		
Total number of new entrants	145581	87601	57980	39.8	204069	120563	83506	40.9	40.2
% having received some form of ECCE	17.6	16.3	19.6		16.6	16.1	17.4		

Source: Niger (2002*a*, p. 18).

Table 2.5. Percentage of children aged 3 to 5 attending some form of organized early childhood education programme, by urban/rural area and by gender (2000)

	Total	Boys	Girls	Urban	Rural
Azerbaijan	11.4	12.2	10.5	19.1	3.5
Bolivia	17.3	16.6	17.9	18.2	15.9
Côte d'Ivoire	6.2	6.8	5.7	12.9	1.2
Kenya	15.6	14.1	17.3	30.1	11.0
Philippines	29.2	25.9	32.5	33.7	25.5

Source: UNICEF (2000).

This reflects the fact that governments, especially those in developing countries, do not feel obliged to provide for this level of education. It is not usually included in the domain of compulsory schooling and, unlike primary and secondary education, pre-primary education has not been defined, historically, as a government responsibility in international human rights treaties (Tomasevski, 2003, p. 16). Across all countries, higher GERs are associated with lower proportions of pre-primary pupils in private schools.[5]

Figure 2.4 shows variation of the proportion of pre-primary pupils enrolled in privately managed institutions.[6] The median values are highest in the Arab States (85%), where ECCE is often provided by religious institutions. However, sub-Saharan Africa, and East Asia and the Pacific also have high median values (just above 60%). South and West Asia, and Latin America and the Caribbean each have a wide range of values (between 3% for India and 100% in the case of Bhutan and many Caribbean states. In North America and Western Europe, private institutions never cater for more than 70% of the total enrolment, with the lowest value being in Denmark (2.7%) where the share of public funding represented 82% in 1999 (UNESCO Institute for Statistics/OECD, 2003*a*, p. 185). As expected, the lowest shares of private enrolments are found in Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia, where these services have historically been provided by the state (Figure 2.5).

Box 2.2. National averages conceal considerable inequality

National averages can hide considerable variation in availability and use of ECCE opportunities within countries. Urban parents are more sensitized to the benefits of pre-primary-schooling provisions than are rural parents. From the supply point of view, pre-primary education provisions concentrate in urban and richer areas of a country. Thus, in Cameroon, enrolment ratios, which stand at 12% as a national average, vary from lows of 1% to 3% in the poorer Extrême-Nord and Adamaoua provinces, to highs of 41% and 32% in the richer Centre and Littoral provinces, as shown in the table below. The high costs of public pre-primary education, and the even higher costs of private education, make it a domain reserved for the richest segments of the population. Note, however, that gender parity across provinces does not vary as greatly as does the level of enrolment, with GPI ranging from 0.90 in Nord province to 1.08 in Est province.

Cameroon: gross enrolment ratio in pre-primary education, by province (1999)

Provinces	GER (%) Both sexes	GPI[1] F/M
Adamaoua	3	0.98
Centre	41	0.95
Est	19	1.08
Extrême-Nord	1	1.02
Littoral	32	0.99
Nord	4	0.90
Nord-Ouest	6	1.06
Ouest	15	0.97
Sud	19	0.97
Sud-Ouest	9	0.97
Country total	12	0.97

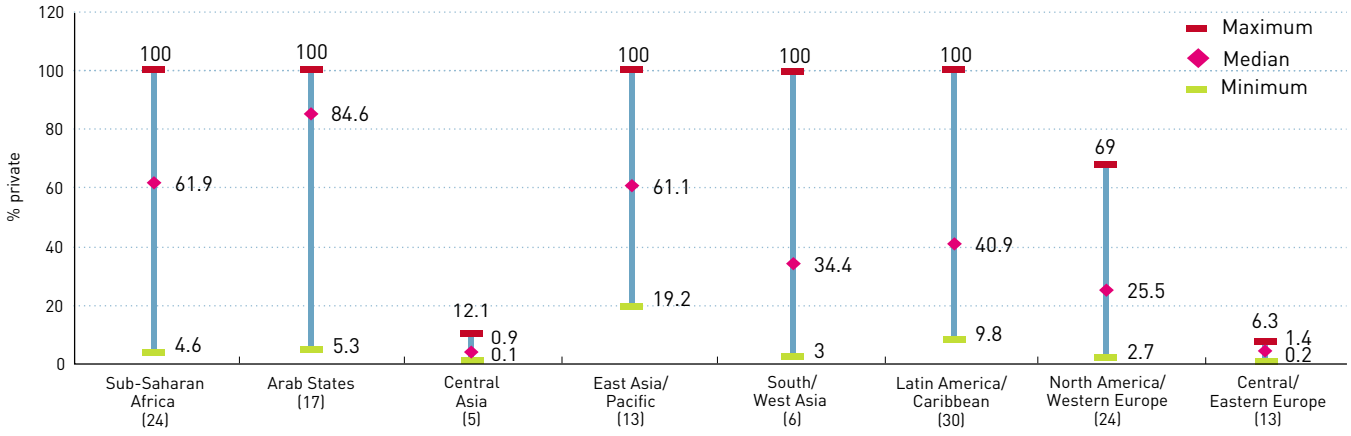
1. Calculated on female and male enrolments.

Source: Cameroon (2001).

5. This negative relationship, although not strong, holds for all countries and for developing countries separately ($R^2 = 0.1$).

6. Note that an institution is defined here as private if it is privately managed, whether or not it receives financial contributions from the state. Thus, countries with a high proportion of enrolments in private institutions may nevertheless provide substantial public support to ECCE.

Figure 2.4. Percentage of private enrolment in pre-primary education (2000): median values and variation within regions



Source: Statistical annex, Table 11.

Gender disparities

In most of the countries with available data, gender disparities in favour of boys are less pronounced in pre-primary education than other levels of education. Furthermore, marked disparities in favour of girls are reported in several countries. Less than one-third of countries (51 out of 145) report gender disparities where the gender parity index (GPI) – which measures the ratio of female-to-male value of a given indicator – is below 0.96 or above 1.04. Table 2.6 shows that in very few of these are the disparities really significant (below 0.90 or above 1.10). Morocco, where pre-primary education is purely private and mostly provided by Koranic schools, has the highest disparities in favour of boys (GPI = 0.57). The others are Liberia (GPI = 0.89), Tajikistan (0.84), Nepal (0.79) and Pakistan (0.74). In contrast, Djibouti reports the highest disparity in favour of girls (GPI = 1.44) but in relation to very low levels of enrolment. Other high disparities in favour of girls (GPI > 1.10) are found in sub-Saharan Africa (Namibia) and Asia and the Pacific (Bangladesh, Malaysia, Mongolia and Tonga).

As shown later in this chapter, girls' access to ECCE is considerably better than to primary education. How can this be explained?

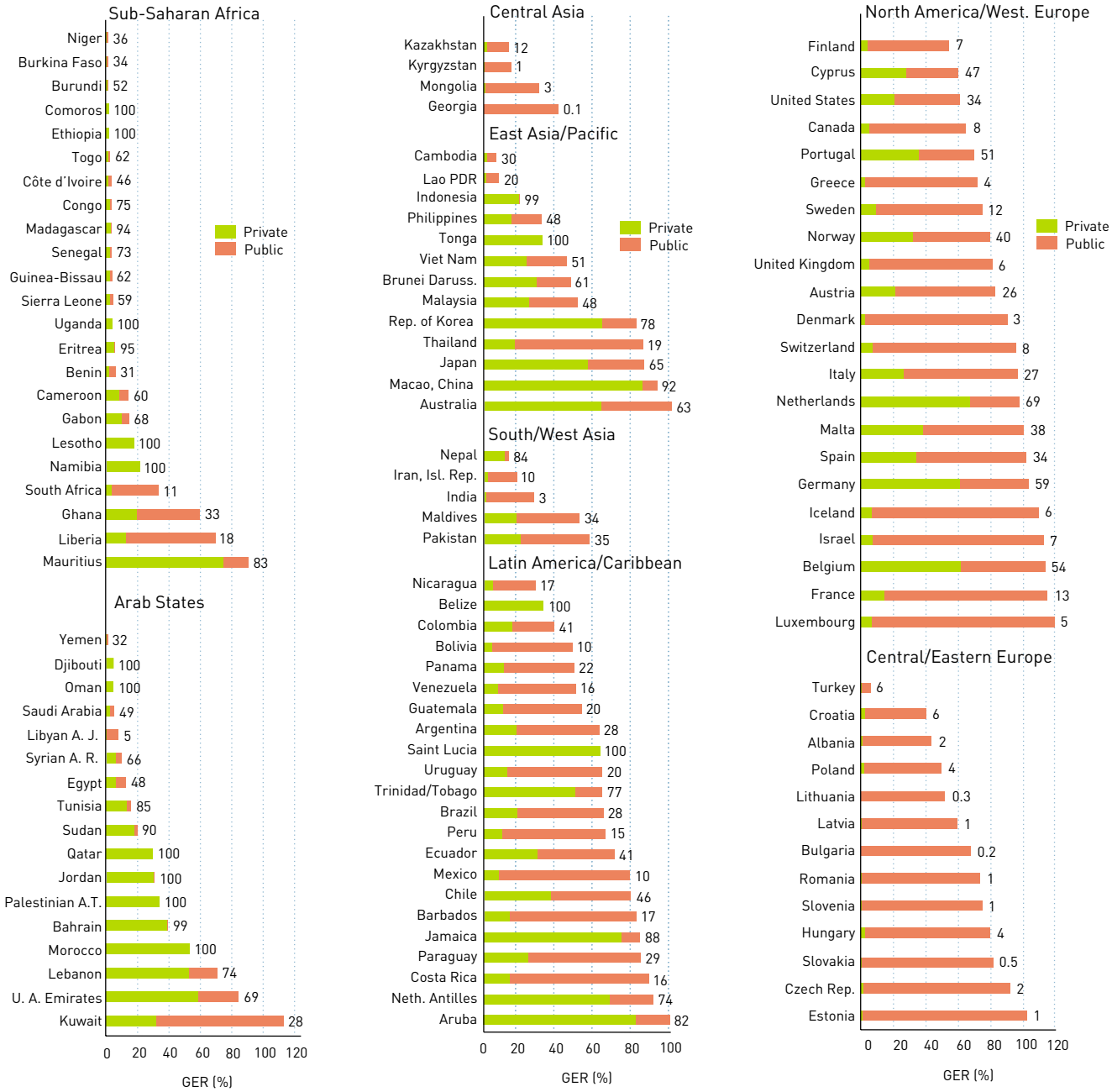
Data available for Senegal can help to address this question. In 1998, total enrolment in formal pre-school stood at 2.7% of all children. The private share accounted for 2 percentage points and the public share a mere 0.7. The GPI was in favour of girls, with a value of 1.06 (in 1999).

Table 2.6. Pre-primary education: gender parity index of gross enrolment ratio (2000) (countries with GPI below 0.96 and above 1.04)

Countries with GPI below 0.96 and above 1.04			
Countries with disparities in favour of boys		**Countries with disparities in favour of girls**	
Countries	**GPI**	**Countries**	**GPI**
Sub-Saharan Africa		Sub-Saharan Africa	
Liberia	0.89	Guinea-Bissau	1.05
Gambia	0.90	Congo	1.06
Eritrea	0.91	Cape Verde	1.06
Benin	0.95	Burkina Faso	1.07
Burundi	0.95	Comoros	1.08
		Namibia	1.15
Arab States		Arab States	
Morocco	0.57	Djibouti	1.44
Oman	0.90		
Jordan	0.91		
Yemen	0.92	Asia and the Pacific	
Syrian A. R.	0.93	*Central Asia*	
Qatar	0.93	Mongolia	1.11
Saudi Arabia	0.93	*East Asia and the Pacific*	
Palestinian A.T.	0.94	Philippines	1.05
Bahrain	0.94	Cambodia	1.07
Egypt	0.95	Lao PDR	1.09
		Vanuatu	1.09
Asia and the Pacific		Samoa	1.09
Central Asia		Palau	1.10
Tajikistan	0.84	Malaysia	1.18
East Asia and the Pacific		Tonga	1.30
Viet Nam	0.92	*South and West Asia*	
Niue	0.93	Iran, Isl. Rep.	1.07
Macao, China	0.93	Bangladesh	1.12
China	0.93		
Papua N. Guinea	0.94	LAC	
South and West Asia		Saint Lucia	1.05
Pakistan	0.74	Honduras	1.05
Nepal	0.79	Belize	1.06
		Barbados	1.07
Central/Eastern Europe		Bahamas	1.09
Turkey	0.94		
Latvia	0.94	N. America/W. Europe	
Russian Fed.	0.94	Norway	1.06
		Central/Eastern Europe	
		Albania	1.07

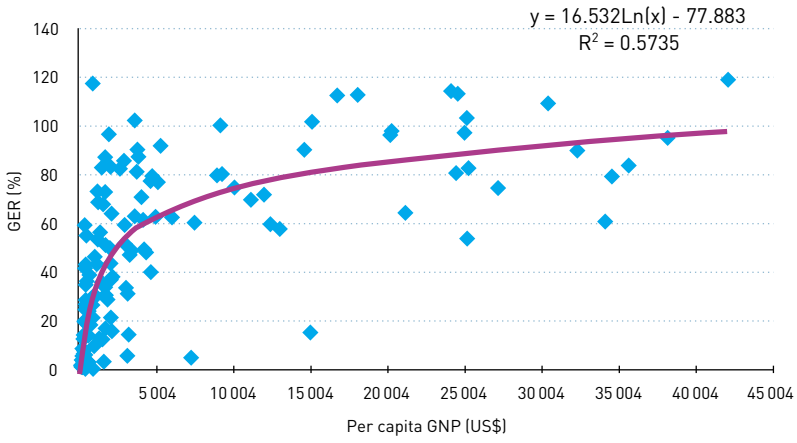
Source: Statistical annex, Table 3.

Figure 2.5. Pre-primary education: share of private and public enrolment in gross enrolment ratio (2000)



Note: The number next to each bar represents the percentage of pre-primary enrolments in private schools.
Source: Statistical annex, Table 11.

Figure 2.6. Pre-primary education: per capita GNP and gross enrolment ratio (2000)



Source: Statistical annex, Tables 1 and 5.

Much higher, at 8.1% of all children, stood enrolment in the non-formal sector, consisting of special NGO-supported programmes (UNESCO, 2003*b*). This larger group is not yet covered by official statistics, and the GPI is not known for it. However, girls are likely to enrol in roughly equal numbers to boys in such targeted programmes because reduction of gender inequality and empowerment of women are often among their explicit goals.

Senegal's large non-formal ECCE sector is not alone. The Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) project in India, for example, began as a small programme for the poorest groups and eventually served 16 million children in 1992 (Consultative Group on ECCD, 1993). These programmes typically consist of thousands of small locally managed projects, each serving fifteen to twenty children (Eming Young, 2002).

The formal ECCE sector tends to be rather small in poor countries, as Figure 2.6 clearly illustrates. Yet, as has been shown, the share of private provision can be high in countries with low overall enrolment (Figure 2.5). Gender ratios tend to be relatively balanced in private ECCE. Myers (2001) confirms that access to ECCE depends strongly on family income. Those parents who can afford to send their children to private ECCE centres are less likely to be forced to be selective by enrolling only their sons.

Two sub-sectors of ECCE are thus found in poorer regions where the greater part of total enrolments are concentrated: non-formal programmes, which often target poorer groups, and private formal provision. In both, gender parity is likely to be high, albeit for different reasons. This is much less so in the case of primary schooling, where there is little targeted support and where children of primary age are more at risk of being out of school for economic reasons than are younger children.

Girls' access to early childhood education is much better than their access to primary education.

Universal primary education and the gender goals

Goal 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.

Goal 5. Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality.

Parity and equality – what are the differences?

Gender parity and gender equality in education mean different things. The first is a purely numerical concept. Reaching gender parity in education implies that the same proportion of boys and girls – relative to their respective age groups – would enter the education system and participate in its different cycles.

Gender parity and gender equality in education mean different things.

Gender equality, on the other hand, means that boys and girls would experience the same advantages or disadvantages in educational access, treatment and outcomes. In so far as it goes beyond questions of numerical balance, equality is more difficult to define[7] and measure than parity.

The achievement of full gender equality in education would imply:

- *equality of opportunities*, in the sense that girls and boys are offered the same chances to access school, i.e. parents, teachers and society at large have no gender-biased attitudes in this respect;
- *equality in the learning process*, i.e. girls and boys receive the same treatment and attention, follow the same curricula, enjoy teaching methods and teaching tools free of stereotypes and gender bias, are offered academic orientation and counselling not affected by gender biases, profit from the same quantity and quality of appropriate educational infrastructures;
- *equality of outcomes*, i.e. learning achievements, length of school careers, academic qualifications and diplomas would not differ by gender;
- *equality of external results*, i.e. job opportunities, the time needed to find a job after leaving full-time education, the earnings of men and women with similar qualifications and experience, etc., would all be equal.

The last condition, while not strictly part of a notion of educational equality, is nevertheless entailed by it: the persistence of gender discrimination in the labour market prevents the attainment of equality of access, treatment and outcomes in education by affecting the relative costs and perceived benefits of educating girls and boys. Accordingly, if full gender equality in education were to be achieved, it is probably the case that ending labour market discrimination, in all its gendered forms, would be required.

These, then, are ambitious implications of the EFA gender goals, the fuller ramifications of which are explored in Chapters 3 and 4 of this report. For present purposes, the concern is how to assess progress towards them. Gender parity is measured by the ratio between the female and male values for a given indicator (such as enrolment or intake rates). This gender parity index indicates male advantage for values less than unity and female advantage for higher values. On the other hand, measuring gender equality in education is much more complicated. Indicators for some of its aspects are already available for some countries. These are being standardized and their application extended elsewhere, as with the indicators of educational outcomes and learning achievements (see 'Educational quality' below).

Other aspects, however, will need indicators of a more qualitative nature than those currently in use. These might include the perceptions of students, teachers and parents as regards treatment of girls and boys; their expectations with respect to the benefits of boys' and girls' schooling; the reasons offered by the same groups for boys' and girls' drop-out, non-attendance or incomplete schooling, and so on.

At present, most internationally comparable data focus on parity. These are discussed and compared for secondary and tertiary education

7. For a thorough discussion on equity and equality and on relevant indicators, see Hutmacher et al. (2001, Introduction p. 7).

in the next two sections of this chapter. The present section assesses progress towards gender parity at primary level and considers broader aspects of the progress being made towards universal primary education (UPE).

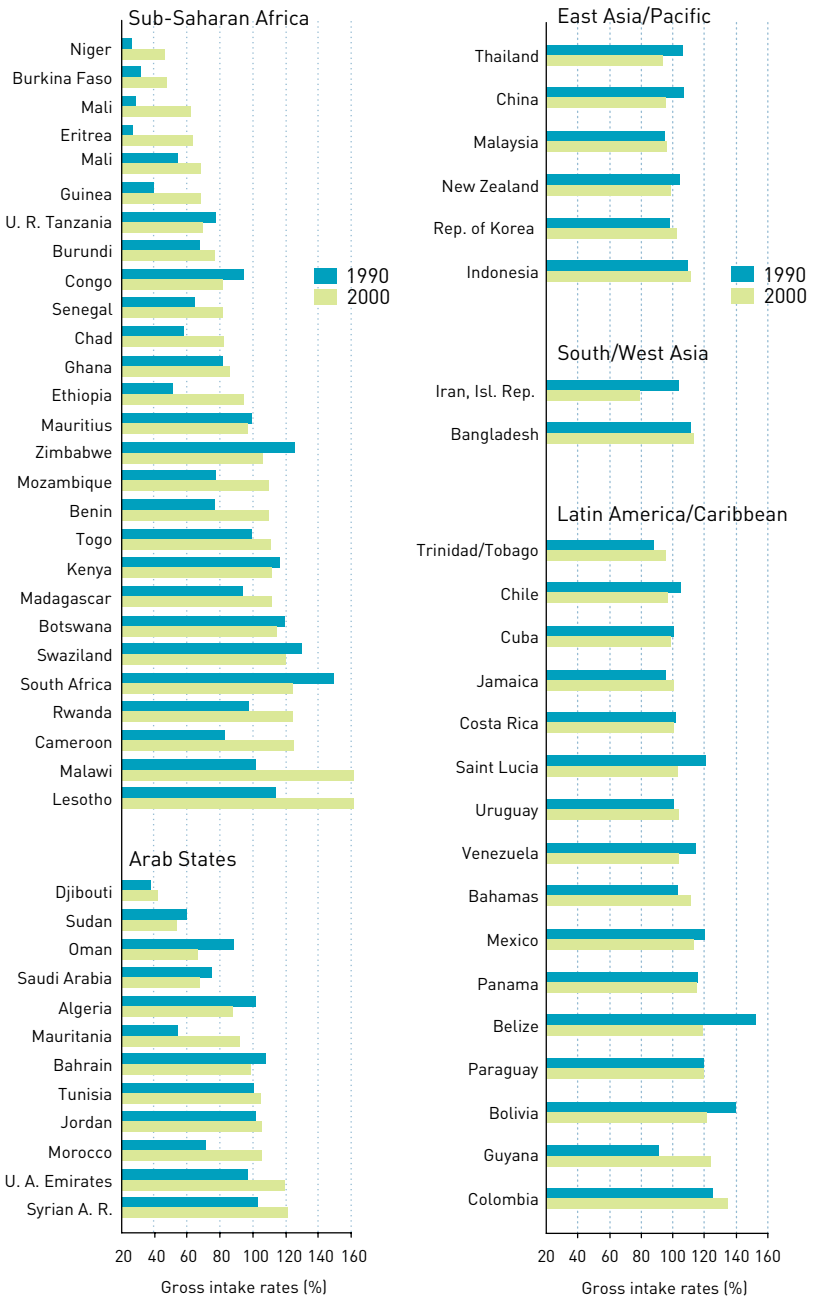
Access to primary education

Universal enrolment of children in school cannot be achieved unless first-grade intakes approximate 100% of the starting age range. Accordingly, gross and net intake rates provide useful indicators of one aspect of progress towards EFA. In what follows the focus is on the gross intake rate (GIR), mainly because age-adjusted net intake rates (NIR) are less widely available. Secondly, however, the NIR depends very much on the selection of the reference age. In many developing countries the 'official' entrance age means little. The high proportion of late entrants in sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America and the Caribbean implies that the NIR often underestimates the actual access. For example, in 1996 in Chile, where the official entrance age is 6 years, the NIR for 6-year-olds was 38%, as against 60% for 7-year-olds. In Lesotho (1996) the values were respectively 30% for the official entrance age and 35% for one year older. In other countries the proportion of under-age enrollees may be significant (Indonesia, Morocco, Ukraine) (UNESCO, 1999, Table II.10). On the other hand, when there are many early or late entrants the GIR may effectively overestimate access. Thus the two indicators have to be interpreted with care.

Figure 2.7 shows that, since 1990, school intakes expressed in terms of GIR have increased in the majority of developing countries (about 60% of those with comparable data). Some of these increases have been quite substantial, the most outstanding having occurred in Lesotho, where the GIR, already high in 1990 (114%), jumped to 183%, due to the introduction of fee-free education in 1999. Other notable increases (30 points or more) were reported in Benin, Cameroon – where school fees were abolished in 2000 – Eritrea, Ethiopia, Guyana, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Morocco and Mozambique.

Declines were however registered in about 40% of the countries, often where the GIR had exceeded 100% in 1990 and values moved back towards 100%. Some Latin American and Caribbean countries were among them (Bolivia,

Figure 2.7. Primary education: gross intake rate to Grade 1 (1990 and 2000)[1]
(countries with data for the two years, in increasing order of GIR in 2000)



General note: See source table for detailed country notes.
1. Not including North America and Europe.
Source: Statistical annex, Table 4.

Once enrolled in school, girls tend to perform as well as, or better than boys.

Chile, Saint Lucia, Venezuela) but also Bahrain, China, South Africa and Zimbabwe. Thus these decreases may partly reflect a regularization of the pupils' school-entrance age, through a reduction in the number of late entrants.[8]

On the other hand, some decreases in the GIRs reflect a real decline in access to school, as in the Congo and the United Republic of Tanzania in sub-Saharan Africa; the Islamic Republic of Iran and Thailand in Asia; and Algeria, Oman, Saudi Arabia and the Sudan among the Arab States. It is disturbing to note that in certain cases these values were already rather low in 1990, as in the United Republic of Tanzania, where the decline – which began in the 1980s with the introduction of school fees – has brought the GIR to only 70%. This compares with 95% in 1975, when UPE was within reach.

Variation within regions

Access to school is still extremely low in many countries, although wide variations can be observed across different regions. Figure 2.8 and Statistical annex Table 4 show that the range of GIRs is widest in sub-Saharan Africa, with exceptionally high values in Lesotho and Malawi, associated with measures abolishing school fees. In those transition countries for which data are available the GIR is always above 95%, with the exception of the Republic of Moldova (92%), and Georgia (88%) in Central Asia, and Serbia and Montenegro (67%) and Croatia (87%) in Central and Eastern Europe. Equally, GIRs in North America and Western Europe are seldom below 98% and, when this is so (e.g. 94% in Switzerland and 95% in Italy) it is not clear whether residual categories of children remain out of school, whether particular categories are not included in the reporting of primary pupils, or whether it is due to errors of reporting.

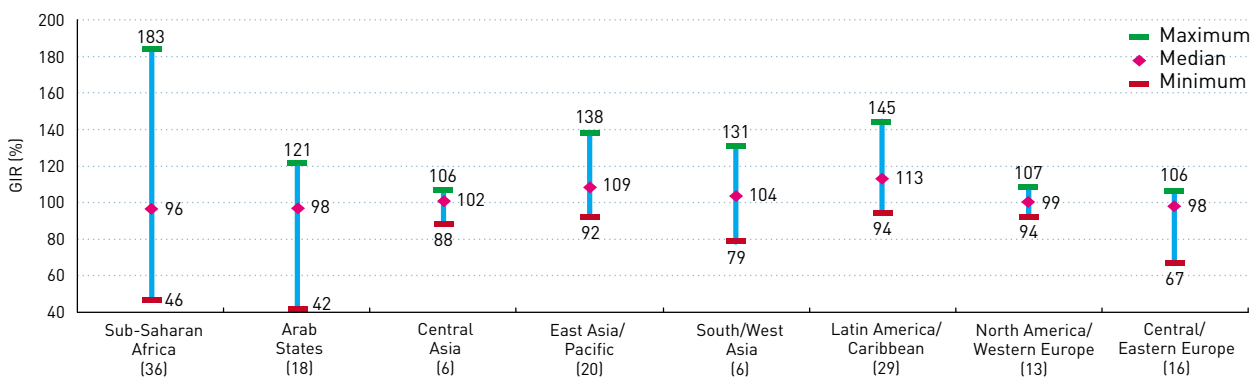
While the GIR can suggest an inflated picture of access to primary schooling (as in the case of Lesotho and Malawi), the net intake rate, which only includes official school-entrance age children in its calculation, may underestimate the extent to which children of different ages eventually enter school. The values are nevertheless disturbingly low in some countries (Yemen 28%, Burkina Faso 21%, Angola 17.5%).

Gender disparities in access to school

It is obvious that the relative schooling outcomes for girls and boys are heavily determined by whether parents send them to school in the first place. However, the circumstances determining access are given particular importance by the fact that once enrolled in school, girls tend to perform as well as, or better than, boys. As Figure 2.9 shows, there has been a significant shift towards greater gender parity of intakes since 1990. The most remarkable gains have been registered in Bangladesh, Benin, Chad, Guinea, Mali, Mauritania and Morocco. Rather unusually, girls' disadvantage has increased in Burundi and Djibouti and, to a lesser extent, in Cameroon. In some countries where the GPI showed an imbalance in favour of girls in 1990, the situation now appears to be in favour of boys (Colombia, Lesotho, Madagascar).

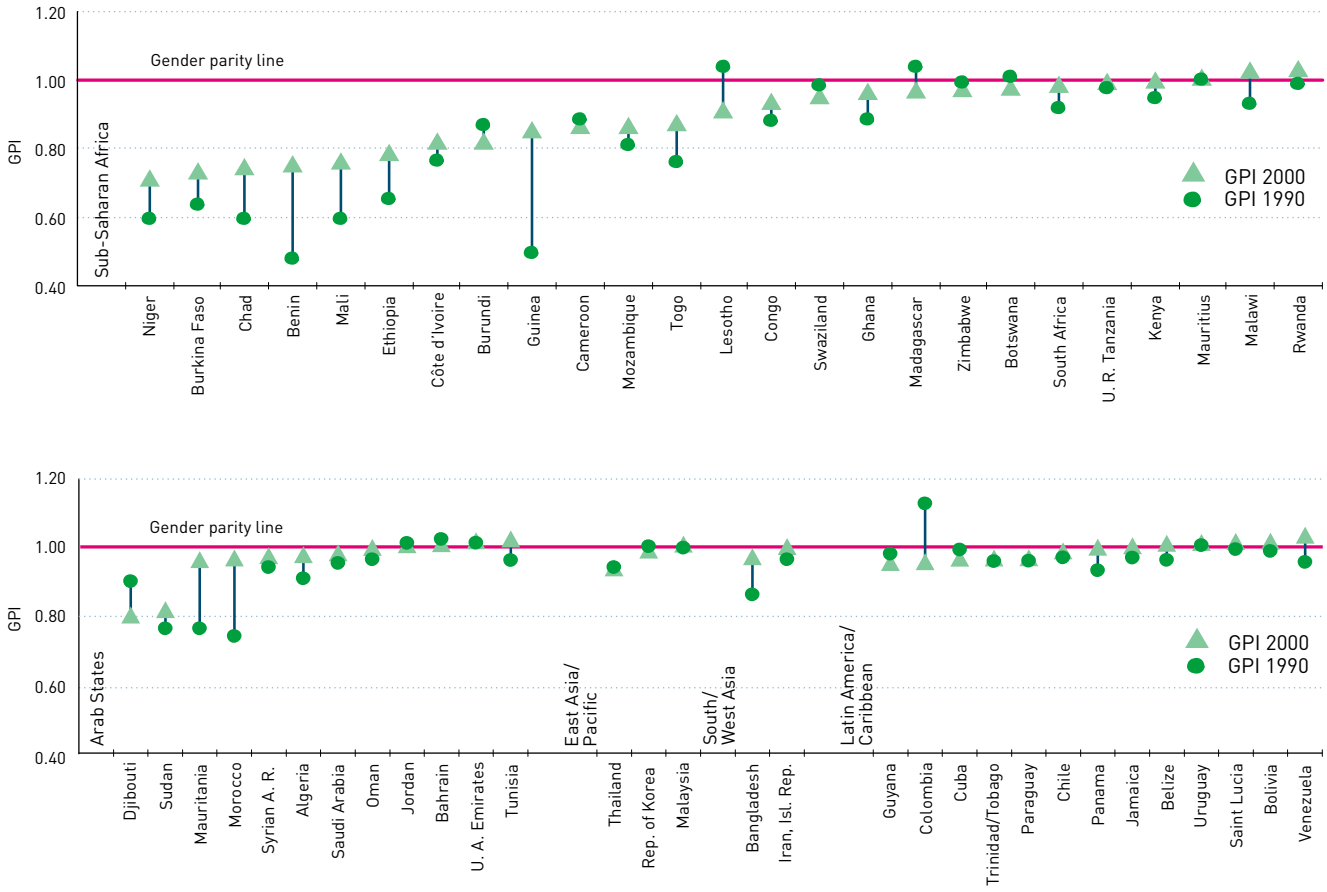
8. Although European countries are not shown in Figure 2.7, access to education is almost universal and GIRs were generally around 100% both in 1990 and 2000, with the exception of Serbia and Montenegro. The increase to 100% in Cyprus and Romania, up from GIRs of 88% and 85% respectively, is the most noteworthy over the decade.

Figure 2.8. Primary education: gross intake rate, median values and variation within regions (2000)



Source: Statistical annex, Table 4.

Figure 2.9. Primary education: gender parity index of gross intake rate (1990 and 2000)
(developing countries with data for 1990 and 2000)



Source: Statistical annex, Table 4.

Summary of the situation in 2000

Achieving gender parity in intake rates is a necessary, but not sufficient, condition to reach parity in participation in, and completion of, primary education.[9] This means that, in order for a country to achieve UPE by 2015, intakes to the first grade should reach 100% around the year 2010. Similarly, gender parity in primary enrolment by 2005 would have required intake parity by 2000.

Prospects for achieving these outcomes, therefore, are suggested by Table 2.7, which demonstrates clearly that discrimination in access to schooling is sharply concentrated on girls. Eleven countries, seven of which are in sub-Saharan Africa, report female intake rates which were less than 80% of the male rates in 2000. The lowest values of GPI (below 0.74) are found in three sub-Saharan African countries (Mali, the Niger, Burkina Faso) followed by Pakistan, Chad, Guinea-Bissau, Benin – all with GPI of 0.75 or just below. Yemen, Ethiopia, Suriname and Djibouti – with GPIs between 0.76 and 0.80 – also have far to go to achieve intake parity in primary schooling. Fourteen countries had GPIs between 0.80 and 0.90, most of which are in sub-Saharan Africa, but also include India, the Lao People's Democratic Republic and the Sudan. Here, although intake rates are higher it seems that parity of enrolments throughout the system cannot be achieved by 2005, given the present and historically unequal intake rates. In contrast, disparities to the disadvantage of boys appear to be a much less significant feature in primary education as the GPI in no case exceeds 1.04.

9. Although initial intake inequalities could be counterbalanced by later imbalances in rates of drop-out from school, this would not be a desirable way to achieve enrolment parity.

Table 2.7. Primary education: gender parity index of gross intake rate (2000)
(countries with GPI below 0.98 – in favour of boys; or above 1.02 – in favour of girls)[1]

Countries with GPI below 0.98

Countries	GIR GPI
Sub-Saharan Africa	
Niger	0.71
Burkina Faso	0.73
Chad	0.75
Guinea-Bissau	0.75
Benin	0.75
Mali	0.76
Ethiopia	0.78
Côte d'Ivoire	0.82
Burundi	0.82
Eritrea	0.84
Guinea	0.85
Comoros	0.86
Cameroon	0.86
Mozambique	0.86
Togo	0.87
Angola	0.88
Lesotho	0.91
Congo	0.93
Gambia	0.95
Swaziland	0.95
Ghana	0.96
Sierra Leone	0.97
Madagascar	0.97
Zimbabwe	0.97
Arab States	
Yemen	0.76
Djibouti	0.80
Sudan	*0.82*
Iraq	*0.89*
Mauritania	0.96
Morocco	0.97
Syrian A. R.	0.97
Egypt	0.97

Countries	GIR GPI
Asia and the Pacific	
Central Asia	
Tajikistan	0.94
Kyrgyzstan	0.96
East Asia and the Pacific	
Lao PDR	0.88
Philippines	0.94
Thailand	0.94
Cambodia	0.94
Indonesia	0.95
Viet Nam	0.95
Samoa	0.96
Fiji	0.96
Macao. China	0.97
South and West Asia	
Pakistan	0.74
India	*0.84*
Nepal	0.90
Bangladesh	0.97
Latin America and the Caribbean	
Suriname	0.77
Dominican Rep.	0.91
Bahamas	*0.92*
Nicaragua	0.94
Guyana	*0.95*
Colombia	0.96
El Salvador	*0.96*
Cuba	0.97
Trinidad/Tobago	0.97
Paraguay	0.97
Guatemala	0.97
Western Europe	
Malta	0.97
Central and Eastern Europe	
Estonia	0.96

GPI ≤ 0.80 | 0.80 < GPI ≤ 0.90 | 0.90 > GPI ≤ 0.97

Countries with GPI above 1.02

Countries	GIR GPI
Sub-Saharan Africa	
Cape Verde	1.03
Malawi	*1.03*
Rwanda	1.03
Namibia	1.03
Latin America and the Caribbean	
Venezuela	1.03

Countries	GIR GPI
Western Europe	
Luxembourg	1.04
Switzerland	1.04
Central and Eastern Europe	
Serbia and Montenegro	1.04

1.10 > GPI ≥ 1.03

1.The following countries have values between 0.98 and 1.02 (countries listed in increasing order of GPI):
Sub-Saharan Africa: Botswana, Gabon, South Africa, Senegal, United Republic of Tanzania, Kenya, Mauritius, Zambia.
Arab States: Algeria, Lebanon, Saudi Arabia, Oman, Kuwait, Jordan, Bahrain, Palestinian Autonomous Territories, United Arab Emirates, Tunisia.
Central Asia: Azerbaijan, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Mongolia.
East Asia and the Pacific: Republic of Korea, Myanmar, Tonga, New Zealand, Vanuatu, Malaysia, Brunei Darussalam, Palau.
South and West Asia: Maldives, Islamic Republic of Iran.
Latin America and the Caribbean: Costa Rica, Netherlands Antilles, Aruba, Chile, Ecuador, Barbados, Panama, Honduras, Argentina, Jamaica, Mexico, Peru, Belize, Uruguay, Saint Lucia, Bolivia.
North America and Western Europe: Austria, Iceland, Netherlands, Italy, France, Germany, Ireland, Finland, Denmark, Cyprus.
Central and Eastern Europe: Republic of Moldova, Albania, Belarus, Hungary, Bulgaria, Lithuania, Czech Republic, Croatia, Romania, Latvia, Slovenia, Poland, Slovakia, The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia.
General note: See source table for detailed country notes.
Source: Statistical annex, Table 4.

In conclusion, Figure 2.10 shows that countries with the highest disparities (GPI below 0.80) also tend to be those with the lowest values as regards intake rates to education. Those shown in Figure 2.10 are mainly West African countries. As indicated in an earlier report (UNESCO, 2002*b*), they tend also to be the most disadvantaged countries in economic terms: they belong to the group of least developed countries, having a per capita income of less than US$1 a day and decreasing, for most of them, during the last decade (see Statistical annex, Table 1). They are also part of the group of the heavily indebted poor countries (HIPC). As indicated later in this report, poverty is one factor, although not the only one, which negatively affects girls' access to and participation in education.

Participation: total enrolment by region

Total enrolment in primary education increased from 596 million in 1990 to 648 million in 2000, an overall increase of 8.7% in ten years (Table 2.8). This increase is essentially due to gains in developing countries. The highest relative increase occurred in sub-Saharan Africa (38%) with smaller but significant increases in South and West Asia (19%) and the Arab States (17%). In these regions the gains in enrolment significantly outpaced the increase in the school-age population, resulting in rising enrolment ratios over the decade (Table 2.9). Latin America and the Caribbean registered a decline of 6%, largely due to the changes in the classification of primary education occurring between 1990 and 2000 in many countries of the region (see Statistical annex, Table 5). Thus in Brazil and Chile the duration of primary education was taken to be eight grades in 1990. This compares with a duration of four grades in Brazil and six grades in Chile in 2000. In Venezuela the duration was nine years in 1990, compared with six years in 2000, which explains why enrolment ratios show an increase during the period. In countries in transition, on the other hand, a substantial decrease in enrolment was registered (–21% in Central and Eastern Europe) owing largely, but not exclusively, to the parallel demographic decline.

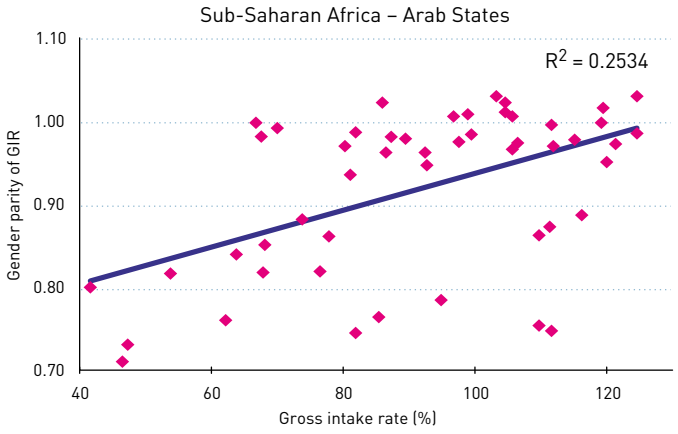
Nevertheless, sub-Saharan Africa remains furthest from achieving UPE. Enrolment gains in South and West Asia and the Arab States have been significant, but almost 20% of the age group in these regions remain out of school. East Asia

and the Pacific was in 1990 one of the regions closest to UPE, but the increases in enrolment over the decade were insufficient to prevent the NER falling from 96% to 93%. China accounted for most of this disappointing progress. Latin America and the Caribbean registered striking GER and NER gains of 18 points and 10 points respectively. Net enrolments of 97% by 2000 indicate that the region as a whole is very close to having achieved UPE.

The gender ratios of enrolments (as with the intake rates discussed earlier) are lowest in South and West Asia, sub-Saharan Africa and the Arab States. In each of these regions the gender parity index for GERs remains less than 0.9. Table 2.9, however, shows that the GPIs are consistently better for NERs than GERs – implying that pupils outside the official age range tend more often to be boys than girls. This is partly generated by repetition rates being higher for boys.

At the global level, girls' enrolments have increased faster than those of boys over the decade to 2000. As a result, the GPI for GER increased from 0.89 to 0.93 and for NER from 0.88 to 0.94. More particularly, in the three regions where gender inequalities are greatest (sub-Saharan Africa, Arab States and South and West Asia) disparities seem to have eased substantially, especially as regards the NER in South and West Asia, where the GPI rose from 0.67 to 0. 85. Gains have also been significant in East Asia and the Pacific, where the gender gap in GER has now been removed. Furthermore, in developed and transition countries, a GPI of around unity for both GER and NER indicate that, here too, gender parity in primary education has been achieved in these countries since 1990.

Figure 2.10. Primary education: intake rate and gender parity (2000)



Source: Statistical annex, Table 4.

Out-of-school children

An estimated 104 million children of primary-school age (as defined by each country) were not enrolled in school at the turn of the millennium.[10] Almost all these children lived in developing countries. Overall, their numbers fell by around

An estimated 104 million children of primary-school age were not enrolled at the turn of the millennium.

Table 2.8. Enrolment (millions) in primary education, by region (1990 and 2000)

	Enrolment					
	1990			2000		
	Total	Female	% F	Total	Female	% F
World	595.5	273.2	45.9	647.5	302.7	46.7
Developing countries	505.0	229.1	45.4	562.2	261.2	46.5
Developed countries	61.3	29.8	48.6	62.3	30.3	48.7
Countries in transition	29.3	14.3	48.9	23.0	11.1	48.6
Sub-Saharan Africa	62.0	28.0	45.2	85.8	39.9	46.5
Arab States	30.5	13.2	43.4	35.7	16.4	46.0
Asia and the Pacific						
Central Asia	5.1	2.5	49.1	6.7	3.3	48.7
East Asia and the Pacific	206.7	97.4	47.1	211.2	100.9	47.8
South and West Asia	134.9	56.0	41.5	160.5	70.7	44.1
Latin America and the Caribbean	75.0	36.6	48.8	70.3	34.1	48.5
North America and Western Europe	50.1	24.3	48.6	52.7	25.7	48.7
Central and Eastern Europe	31.2	15.1	48.5	24.5	11.8	48.0

Note: Comparisons between the two years should be made with caution as the classification of primary education has changed for many countries. In particular, some countries reported a duration of more than six years in 1990, often equating primary to basic education. The duration for these countries has now been reduced to six grades or less. See indications of changes by country in the source table.
Source: Statistical annex, Table 5.

10. The numbers of out-of-school children have been re-estimated by the UIS in 2003, based on the latest data revision. They include all children of official primary-school age, in each country, who are not enrolled in school. The present estimate of 104 million out-of-school children in 2000 is considerably lower than the estimate of 115 million for 1999, given by the *EFA Report 2002* (UNESCO 2002*b*: p. 52). This is a consequence of a change in the duration of primary schooling in China, India and Russia, amongst other countries. In each of these cases, the official length of the primary span was reduced by one year, thereby reducing the size of the school-age population and, thus (for any given enrolment ratio), the number of children counted as being out-of-school.

Table 2.9. Gross and net enrolment ratio in primary education, by region (1990 and 2000)

	1990				2000				1990				2000			
	GER (%)			GPI	GER (%)			GPI	NER (%)			GPI	NER (%)			GPI
	Total	Female	% F	F/M	Total	Female	% F	F/M	Total	Female	% F	F/M	Total	Female	% F	F/M
World	99	105	93	0.89	101	104	97	0.93	82	87	77	0.88	84	86	81	0.94
Developing countries	99	106	92	0.87	101	105	96	0.92	80	86	73	0.86	82	85	79	0.93
Developed countries	103	103	102	0.99	102	102	102	1.00	97	97	97	1.01	97	97	97	1.01
Countries in transition	95	95	94	0.99	100	100	99	0.99	88	88	88	1.00	90	89	91	1.02
Sub-Saharan Africa	74	81	67	0.83	82	87	76	0.88	55	59	51	0.86	58	61	56	0.92
Arab States	87	97	78	0.80	92	97	86	0.89	76	84	68	0.82	81	85	77	0.90
Asia and the Pacific																
Central Asia	85	86	85	0.99	100	100	99	0.99	81	82	81	0.99	91	91	90	0.99
East Asia and the Pacific	117	120	114	0.94	110	111	109	0.99	96	98	94	0.96	93	93	93	1.00
South and West Asia	92	104	79	0.76	96	104	87	0.84	73	87	58	0.67	81	87	74	0.85
Latin America and the Caribbean	105	106	104	0.98	123	125	122	0.97	87	87	86	0.99	97	97	96	0.99
North America and Western Europe	103	104	103	0.99	102	103	102	1.00	96	96	97	1.01	96	96	97	1.01
Central and Eastern Europe	98	98	97	0.98	100	101	98	0.97	90	90	89	0.99	92	92	92	1.00

Source: Statistical annex, Table 5.

The number of African children out of school increased by 17% over the decade.

4% over the decade 1990–2000 – but their regional characteristics differ strongly across the world (Table 2.10). First, out-of-school children are strongly concentrated in the countries of sub-Saharan Africa and South and West Asia: fully three-quarters of them live in these two regions. The trend within these regions is, however, different. In South and West Asia, schooling systems expanded rapidly over the 1990s such that, notwithstanding population growth, the number of out-of-school children fell by about 20%. In sub-Saharan Africa, on the other hand, expansion was slower, and population growth stronger. Accordingly, the number of African children out of school increased by 17% over the decade.

Second, girls comprise 57% of all out-of-school children, down 6 points from the level a decade ago. The steepest reduction occurred in East Asia and the Pacific, where the percentage has fallen from 71% to 49%; the negative side of this apparently favourable trend is the more than threefold increase in the number of out-of-school boys in that region, compared with a more moderate increase in the corresponding number of girls. The number of out-of-school girls is highest in sub-Saharan Africa (23 million), followed by South and West Asia (21 million). The latter region, however, still has the highest share of out-of-school girls, who account for two-thirds of its out-of-school children (down from three-quarters in 1990). In other regions the out-of-school numbers are mainly falling – with the exception of East Asia and the Pacific, where the

Table 2.10. Estimated number of out-of-school children, by gender and by region (1990 and 2000)

	Out-of-school children (thousands)							
	1990				2000			
	Total	Male	Female	% F	Total	Male	Female	% F
World	108782	40169	68613	63	104189	45144	59045	57
Developing countries	103301	37311	65990	64	100169	42862	57307	57
Developed countries	1831	1020	811	44	1829	1035	794	43
Countries in transition	3649	1837	1812	50	2191	1247	944	43
Sub-Saharan Africa	37647	17225	20422	54	44025	20797	23228	53
Arab States	8531	3121	5410	63	7408	2971	4437	60
Asia and the Pacific								
Central Asia	1120	555	566	50	623	323	300	48
East Asia and the Pacific	7091	2046	5044	71	14023	7114	6909	49
South and West Asia	39917	10087	29830	75	32411	11094	21317	66
Latin America and the Caribbean	9390	4558	4832	51	1949	850	1099	56
North America and Western Europe	1809	1001	807	45	1808	1021	788	44
Central and Eastern Europe	3278	1576	1702	52	1943	974	969	50

Source: UIS estimates, 2003 revision.

figure doubled from 7 million to 14 million over the 1990s. This is almost entirely explained by the reduction of primary-school enrolments in China – which has caused its NER to decrease from 97% to 93% over the decade.

A closer look: analysis of primary GER by country

No single statistic is adequate for the task of monitoring progress towards UPE. Historically, the GER has been used since 1980 (the year of the Addis Ababa plan) as the leading indicator of progress. More recently, however, as countries progress towards UPE, more and more of them have GERs exceeding 100%, their values being inflated by the number of early and late entrants and repeaters in school.

The NER also has drawbacks. Thus, where the official entrance age is different from the usual entrance age, an underestimation of actual school participation results. By including only children of primary-school age, the NER does not take into account other children who will eventually complete primary education. Thus, both indicators need to be examined in relation to each other and together with other parameters, such as the percentage of over-age pupils, the percentage of repeaters, and the survival and completion rates. Each of these tells important and complementary parts of the story.[11]

11. For further discussion, see 'Measuring and monitoring UPE' (UNESCO 2002*b*, Box 2.2, p. 55).

Table 2.11. Primary education: grouping of countries according to gross enrolment ratio (2000)
(in each box countries are listed in increasing order of GER)

Regions	Levels of GER			
	≤ 80%	80.1%-95%	95.1%-100%	Above 100%
Sub-Saharan Africa	Niger, Burkina Faso, Eritrea, Mali, U. R. Tanzania, Ethiopia, Burundi, Guinea, Chad, Angola, Senegal, Central African Rep., Zambia, Côte d'Ivoire (14)	Ghana, Gambia, Guinea-Bissau, Comoros, Mozambique, Kenya, Zimbabwe (7)	Benin, Congo (2)	Madagascar, Cameroon, Botswana, Mauritius, South Africa, Namibia, Lesotho, Rwanda, Liberia, Equatorial Guinea, Togo, Swaziland, Uganda, Malawi, Cape Verde, Gabon (16)
Arab States	Djibouti, Sudan, Saudi Arabia, Oman, Yemen (5)	Mauritania, Kuwait, Morocco (3)	Lebanon, U. A. Emirates, Egypt (3)	Jordan, Iraq, Bahrain, Qatar, Palestinian A. T., Syrian A. R., Algeria, Libyan A. J., Tunisia (9)
Central Asia			Georgia, Kazakhstan, Mongolia (3)	Azerbaijan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan (3)
East Asia and the Pacific		Papua New Guinea, Myanmar, Thailand (3)	Cook Islands, Malaysia, Niue, New Zealand (4)	Japan, Rep. of Korea, Australia, Samoa, Macao (China), Brunei Darussalam, Viet Nam, Vanuatu, Fiji, Indonesia, Cambodia, Palau, Philippines, Tonga, Lao PDR, China, Kiribati (17)
South and West Asia	Afghanistan, Pakistan (2)	Isl. Rep. of Iran (1)		Bangladesh, India, Nepal, Maldives (4)
Latin America and the Caribbean		Bahamas, Grenada (2)	Jamaica (1)	Trinidad and Tobago, Venezuela, Cuba, Guatemala, Chile, Nicaragua, Honduras, Costa Rica, Neth. Antilles, El Salvador, Uruguay, Barbados, Aruba, Panama, Saint Lucia, Colombia, Paraguay, Mexico, Ecuador, Bolivia, Guyana, Argentina, Dominican Rep., Suriname, Peru, Belize, Brazil (27)
North America and Western Europe			Cyprus, United Kingdom, Greece, Canada (4)	Italy, Luxembourg, United States, Norway, Finland, Denmark, Iceland, Austria, Germany, France, Belgium, Spain, Malta, Switzerland, Netherlands, Sweden, Israel, Ireland, Portugal (19)
Central and Eastern Europe	Serbia and Montenegro (1)	Rep. of Moldova, Croatia (2)	Romania, The FYR of Macedonia, Poland (3)	Slovenia, Latvia, Turkey, Lithuania, Hungary, Slovakia, Estonia, Bulgaria, Czech Rep., Albania, Belarus, Russian Fed. (12)
Total number of countries 167	22	18	20	107

Source: Statistical annex, Table 5.

Countries where the number of repeaters and over-age pupils is high are still far from having all their children in school.

As regards the GER, it can be seen from Table 2.11 that twenty-two countries still have GERs that are lower than 80%. Two-thirds of them are in sub-Saharan Africa and a further quarter are Arab States. For some of them the situation is particularly critical: not only is their GER very low but participation is exaggerated by the presence of a high proportion of repeaters (e.g. Burundi, Chad, Côte d'Ivoire). However, almost two-thirds of the countries with available data have a GER above 100%. Yet countries in this group with high GERs are not necessarily close to UPE. Some countries, where the number of repeaters and over-age pupils is high (e.g. Cambodia, Cameroon, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Madagascar, Nepal, Rwanda, Togo), remain far from having all their school-age children enrolled.

Table 2.12. Primary education: grouping of countries according to net enrolment ratio (2000)
(in each box countries are listed in increasing order of NER)

Regions	Levels of NER			
	≤ 60%	60.1%-80%	80.1%-95%	Above 95%
Sub-Saharan Africa	Niger, Burkina Faso, Angola, Eritrea, U.R. Tanzania, Ethiopia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Burundi, Mozambique, Central African Rep., Comoros, Chad, Ghana (14)	Côte d'Ivoire, Senegal, Zambia, Madagascar, Kenya, Gambia, Benin, Equatorial Guinea, Lesotho, Zimbabwe (10)	Namibia, Botswana, Gabon, South Africa, Togo, Swaziland, Mauritius (7)	Cape Verde (1)
Arab States	Djibouti, Sudan, Saudi Arabia (3)	Mauritania, Oman, Yemen, Morocco (4)	Kuwait, Lebanon, U. A. Emirates, Egypt, Iraq, Jordan (6)	Bahrain, Syrian A. R., Palestinian A. T., Algeria, Tunisia (5)
Central Asia			Kyrgyzstan, Kazakhstan, Mongolia, Azerbaijan (4)	Georgia, Tajikistan (2)
East Asia and the Pacific			Lao PDR, Myanmar, Papua New Guinea, Cook Islands, Macao (China), Cambodia, Thailand, Vanuatu, Tonga, Indonesia, China, Philippines (12)	Viet Nam, Australia, Samoa, Malaysia, Niue, Palau, Fiji, New Zealand, Rep of Korea, Japan (10)
South and West Asia		Pakistan, Nepal, Isl. Rep. of Iran (3)	India, Bangladesh (2)	Maldives (1)
Latin America and the Caribbean			Nicaragua, Bahamas, Grenada, Guatemala, Honduras, Venezuela, Colombia, Chile, Uruguay, Costa Rica, Neth. Antilles, Paraguay, Trinidad and Tobago, Dominican Rep., Jamaica (15)	Brazil, Bolivia, Aruba, Cuba, Guyana, Belize, Suriname, Ecuador, Mexico, Argentina, Barbados, Saint Lucia, Peru, Panama (14)
North America and Western Europe			Ireland, Austria, United States, Cyprus (4)	Luxembourg, Greece, Malta, United Kingdom, Switzerland, Denmark, Netherlands, Sweden, Spain, Italy, France, Canada, Israel, Norway, Belgium, Iceland, Finland, Portugal (18)
Central and Eastern Europe	Serbia and Montenegro (1)	Rep. of Moldova (1)	Croatia, Slovakia, Hungary, Czech Rep. Latvia, The FYR of Macedonia, Romania, Slovenia, Bulgaria, Lithuania (10)	Albania, Estonia, Poland, Belarus (4)
Total number of countries 151	18	18	60	55

Source: Statistical annex, Table 5.

Net enrolment ratios

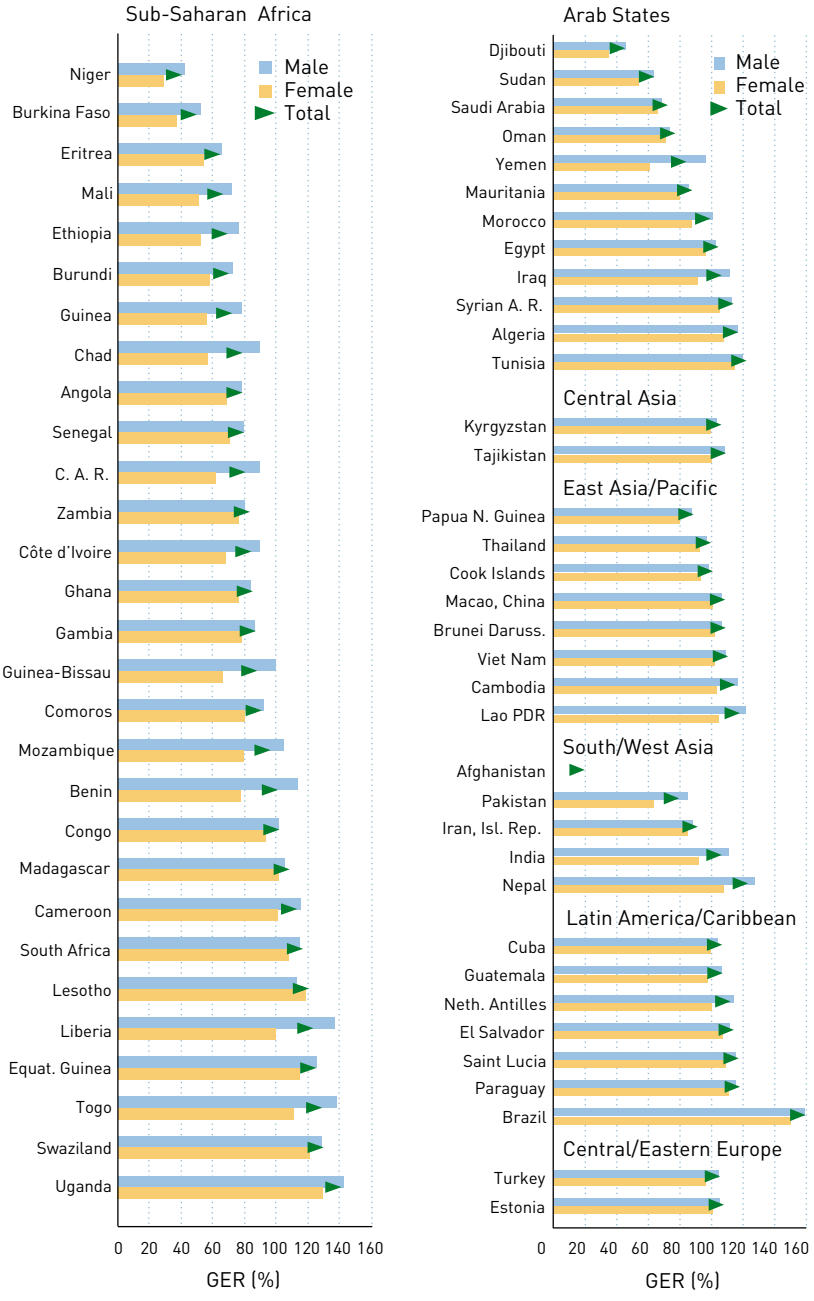
Table 2.12 shows primary net enrolment ratios (NER). One-quarter of the countries with available data have less than 80% of the primary age-group enrolled in school. Fourteen of these countries, with a NER of 60% or less, are African. They remain very far from reaching the UPE goal. African countries also comprise over half of those with a NER between 60% and 80%, where children are frequently out of school. In contrast, almost all countries of North America and Western Europe have high NERs, in excess of 95%, as do half of those from Latin America and the Caribbean and a number from East Asia and the Pacific.

Gender disparities in gross enrolment ratios

Figure 2.11 presents gross enrolment ratios by gender for 2000. In order to highlight countries with the greatest inequalities, only those with a GPI of 0.96 and below and those with a GPI of 1.04 and above are included. Those countries which are very close to achieving gender parity do not appear in the graph.

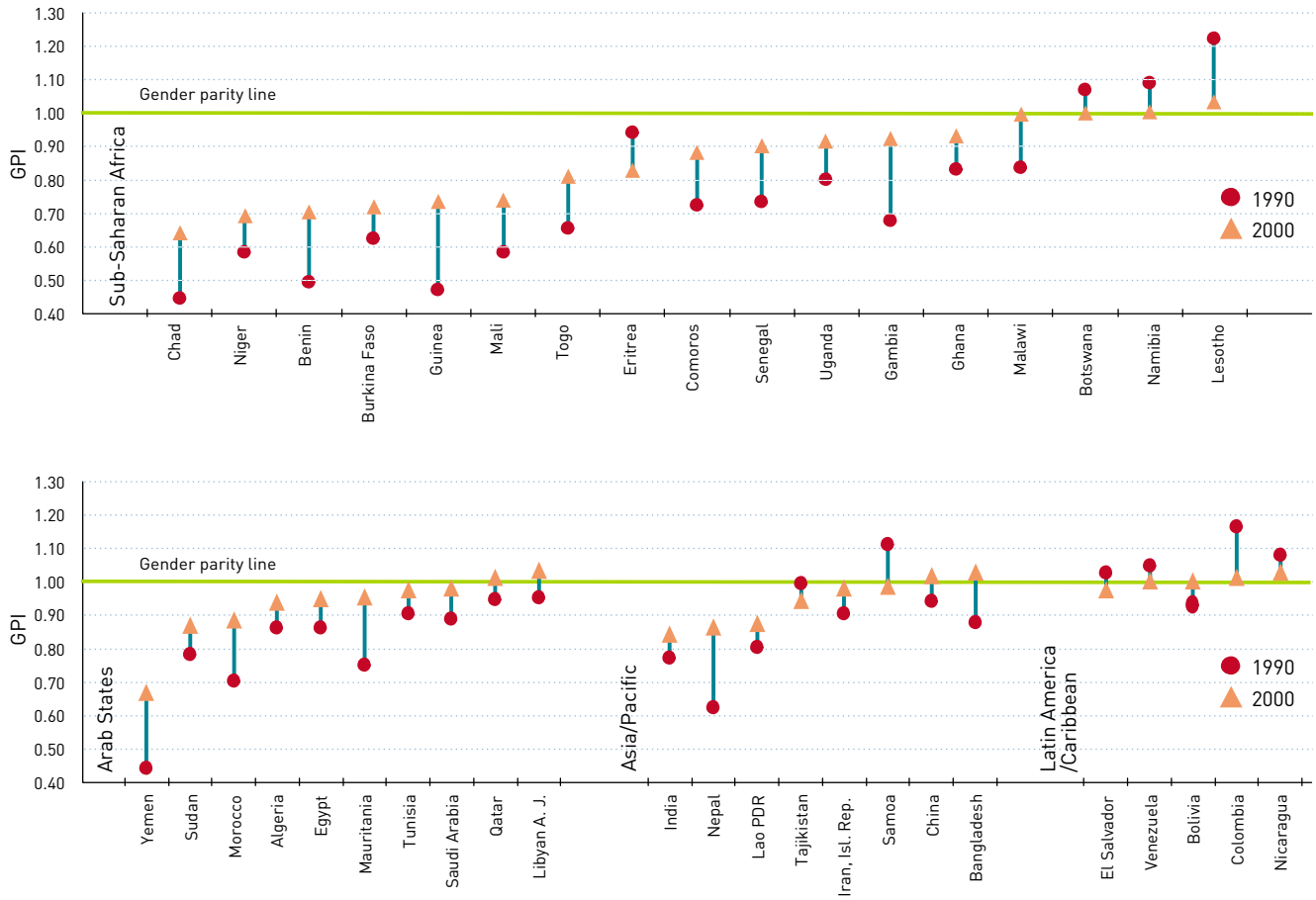
Gender disparities in primary enrolment are overwhelmingly to the disadvantage of girls. Sub-Saharan Africa has low GERs and strong inequalities in enrolments. In one-third of the countries shown, female ratios are around three-quarters of the male ratio or less (a GPI below 0.76). These are Chad, Burkina Faso, Mali, Ethiopia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Benin, the Central African Republic and Liberia. Of the remaining seventeen countries having significant gender disparities, only one (Lesotho), shows a disparity in favour of girls. The Arab States have some of the lowest GERs (Djibouti and the Sudan) and the largest gender disparities (Yemen and Djibouti, with a GPI of 0.63 and 0.76 respectively). In Asia and the Pacific, a majority of countries have reached gender parity, or are close to doing so. However very large disparities remain in South and West Asia, especially in Pakistan (GPI = 0.74), followed by Nepal (0.85) and India (0.83). Values below 0.90 are also found in Cambodia (0.88) and the Lao People's Democratic Republic (0.86). In Latin America and the Caribbean, almost all countries have reached gender parity in primary education. This is also the case in North America and Europe except for Turkey, with a GPI of 0.92.

Figure 2.11. Primary education: gross enrolment ratio by gender (2000)
(not including countries with GPI between 0.97 and 1.03, i.e. very close to parity, in increasing order of total GER)



General note: See source table for detailed country notes.
Source: Statistical annex, Table 5.

Figure 2.12. Changes in gender disparities of gross enrolment ratios between 1990 and 2000
(countries with changes of 5 percentage points or more, in increasing order of GPI in 2000)



Source: Statistical annex, Table 5.

In summary, significant gender disparities to the disadvantage of girls are widespread in sub-Saharan African countries, certain Arab States and several countries of South and West Asia. Not surprisingly, these are the same group of low-income countries for which gender disparities in school access are most pronounced and access levels are themselves the lowest.

Many countries do not appear in Figure 2.11 because they are at, or very close to, gender *parity*. As indicated above, this does not, of course, mean that gender *equality* has been reached. An example of the distance that can separate the two concepts is given by Saudi Arabia. This country, with a GPI of 0.96, up from 0.87 in 1990, is on the verge of reaching gender parity. However, when examining the national orientation of the education system, one may wonder whether gender equality is progressing in the same way. Thus the country's national report on the development of education (Saudi Arabia, 2001, pp. 17, 18) sees the aim of girls' education as follows: 'The aim of girls' education is to bring her up in a sound Islamic way so that she can fulfil her role in life as an ideal wife and good mother, and to prepare her for other activities that suit her nature, such as teaching, nursing and medicine'. Similar obstacles in the progress towards equality in education can be found in some other countries fairly close to achieving gender parity (see Chapter 3).

Comparisons with 1990

Comparisons between the two reference years should be made with caution due to the introduction of the revised ISCED and particularly to the different classification approaches adopted by UIS. Even though the ISCED revision has affected primary education less than other levels of education (particularly secondary and tertiary,

see Box 2.5), a stricter approach has been adopted to reporting the duration of primary education in order to make it closer to the ISCED definitions. Consequently, in sixty-three countries the duration of primary schooling and/or the school age group changes between 1990 and 2000. In some cases this is a consequence of changes at the country level, and in others it is a result of more careful reporting.[12] These differences pose problems for comparing enrolment growth over the decade, but less so for gender disparities, which are not so strongly affected by changes in duration.

Figure 2.12 shows countries that have had significant success or failure in making progress towards gender parity (i.e. where changes in GPI have been of at least 5 percentage points over the 1990s). It can be seen that such improvements were, in certain cases, quite substantial. This was particularly so in Benin, the Gambia and Guinea in sub-Saharan Africa; Mauritania, Morocco and Yemen among the Arab States; in Nepal and, to a lesser extent, Bangladesh in South and West Asia. These are promising examples showing that well-focused policies aiming at improving girls' participation in school can yield satisfactory results.[13] Decreases in the GPI have almost all occurred in countries where the disparity was in favour of girls (Botswana, Lesotho and Namibia in sub-Saharan Africa, Colombia, and Samoa) thereby resulting in a shift closer towards gender parity. It is, however, disturbing to note the extent to which the conflict in Eritrea resulted in a major increase in gender disparities in its education system.

The conflict in Eritrea sharply increased gender disparities in the country's education system.

Enrolment and attendance

Estimated enrolment ratios, both gross and net, are based on the number of pupils formally registered, usually surveyed at a date close to the beginning of the school year. This does not, however, convey information about actual school attendance, which is collected during censuses or sample surveys. A comparison of net enrolment ratios and attendance indicators for twenty-two African countries shows that the attendance rates are lower in sixteen cases (Table 2.13).[14] Differences in some cases exceed 25 points (Angola and Togo).

12. The countries affected are shown in the Statistical annex, Table 5.

13. For examples of policy measures taken in some of these countries, see Cussó (2003). See also the discussion of Bangladeshi experience in Chapters 3 and 4.

14. See also UNESCO (2002*b*) for a comparison with earlier data.

Table 2.13. Estimates of primary-school enrolment and attendance (2000)

Country	MICS and DHS year	Age group	UIS NER (%) Total	UIS NER (%) Male	UIS NER (%) Female	UIS GPI F/M	MICS and DHS NAR (%) Total	MICS and DHS NAR (%) Male	MICS and DHS NAR (%) Female	MICS and DHS GPI F/M	Difference NAR-NER (Percentage points)	Difference GPI NAR - GPI NER
Angola	2000	6-9	36.9**	38.6**	35.1**	0.91**	64.2	63.8	64.6	1.01	27.3	0.10
Burundi	2000	7-12	53.7	58.8	48.7	0.83	46.5	49.3	43.8	0.89	-7.2	0.06
Central African Republic	2000	6-11	54.7**	64.3**	45.0**	0.70**	42.9	46.5	39.1	0.84	-11.8	0.14
Chad	2000	6-11	58.2	69.6	46.7	0.67	39.2	45.5	32.8	0.72	-19.0	0.05
Comoros	2000	6-11	56.2**	60.0**	52.3**	0.87**	33.7	33.6	33.8	1.01	-22.5	0.13
Côte d'Ivoire	2000	6-11	62.2	70.9	53.6	0.76	57.3	61.5	52.4	0.85	-4.9	0.10
Egypt	2000	6-10	92.6**	94.9**	90.3**	0.95**	85.1	87.0	83.1	0.96	-7.5	0.00
Ethiopia	2000	7-12	46.7	52.8	40.7	0.77	30.2	32.8	27.5	0.84	-16.5	0.07
Gambia	2000	7-12	68.7	71.1	66.3	0.93	46.3	48.5	44.2	0.91	-22.4	-0.02
Guinea	1999	7-12	47.0	52.4	41.5	0.79	39.3	45.3	33.3	0.74	-7.7	-0.06
Guinea-Bissau	2000	7-12	*53.5*	*62.6*	*44.5*	0.71	41.1	44.4	37.7	0.85	-12.4	0.14
Kenya	2000	6-12	68.5	67.8	69.3	1.02	73.8	72.7	74.8	1.03	5.3	0.01
Lesotho	2000	6-12	78.4	75.0	81.8	1.09	65.0	62.1	68.0	1.10	-13.4	0.00
Namibia	2000	6-12	81.6	78.8	84.5	1.07	86.2	85.9	86.5	1.01	4.6	-0.07
Niger	2000	7-12	30.4	36.3	24.4	0.67	30.2	35.8	24.6	0.69	-0.2	0.01
Senegal	2000	7-12	63.1**	66.3**	59.9**	0.90**	47.3	50.6	44.0	0.87	-15.8	-0.03
Sudan[1]	2000	6-11	49.5**	54.0**	44.7**	0.83**	55.2	56.6	53.8	0.95	5.7	0.12
Swaziland	2000	6-12	92.8**	92.1**	93.6**	1.02**	70.7	70.8	70.6	1.00	-22.1	-0.02
Togo	2000	6-11	92.3	100.0	83.3	0.83	63.0	67.0	58.9	0.88	-29.3	0.05
United Rep. of Tanzania	1999	7-13	46.7**	45.8**	47.6**	1.04**	48.9	47.2	50.7	1.07	2.2	0.04
Zambia	1999	7-13	65.5	65.8	65.2	0.99	60.1	60.0	60.2	1.00	-5.4	0.01
Zimbabwe	1999	6-12	79.6	79.6	79.6	1.00	84.9	84.0	85.8	1.02	5.3	0.02

1. Northern Sudan for MICS data.
** UIS estimate.
Explanatory notes: Net attendance rate (NAR): UNICEF Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS); USAID Demographic and Health Survey (DHS).
Net enrolment ratio (NER): UIS data. See Statistical annex, Table 5, for detailed country notes.

Box 2.3. Gender disparities in attendance across Indian states

India's two National Family Health Surveys (NFHS), undertaken in 1992–93 and 1998–99, reveal that school attendance rates among 6- to 14-year-olds have improved from 68% at the time of the first survey to 79% by the second. They also show that, during the 1990s, gains have been particularly evident for girls, thereby reducing India's gender gap in education. However, these all-India data can be misleading because – as with other national, social and economic indicators – they mask considerable differences in educational performance at the state level. The table below summarizes the recent state-level experience for school attendance rates, for the population aged 6–10 – the age corresponding to primary schooling – for boys and girls separately.

It can be seen that variation is considerable, particularly for girls: attendance levels in Kerala and Himachal Pradesh, for example, are almost twice the levels in Bihar. More generally, it is clear that the four large northern states of Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh are the laggards in terms of overall educational attendance and gender parity. However, the table also shows that a recent process of catch-up has occurred among the lagging states. Attendance rates increased particularly strongly for girls in Rajasthan, Bihar and Uttar Pradesh, which resulted in their female/male attendance ratios (as measured by the GPI) increasing by 21, 16 and 17 percentage points, respectively. The table also illustrates Kerala's well-documented educational superiority, although it shows that Himachal Pradesh appears to have had an even more successful record in recent years, and that other southern states, particularly Tamil Nadu, are no longer far behind.

India: School attendance rate by state and gender, population aged 6–10 (1992–93 and 1998–99)
(states ranked in increasing order of attendance GPI in 1998–99)

	Male			Female			GPI		
	1992-93	1998-99	increase (% points)	1992-93	1998-99	increase (% points)	1992-93	1998-99	increase (% points)
Rajasthan	72.4	87.7	15.3	42.4	69.6	27.2	0.59	0.79	0.21
Bihar	60.6	69.3	8.7	38.5	55.0	16.5	0.64	0.79	0.16
Uttar Pradesh	71.1	83.7	12.6	50.2	73.7	23.5	0.71	0.88	0.17
Andhra Pradesh	73.4	88.2	14.8	59.9	82.6	22.7	0.82	0.94	0.12
Madhya Pradesh	66.0	83.1	17.1	55.2	77.1	21.9	0.84	0.93	0.09
Orissa	77.9	85.4	7.5	65.5	81.2	15.7	0.84	0.95	0.11
Gujarat	82.6	86.8	4.2	70.5	80.4	9.9	0.85	0.93	0.07
Haryana	87.5	92.5	5.0	76.7	89.9	13.2	0.88	0.97	0.10
Assam	75.7	81.8	6.1	67.3	77.9	10.6	0.89	0.95	0.06
Karnataka	79.9	87.7	7.8	71.1	85.2	14.1	0.89	0.97	0.08
West Bengal	72.5	83.7	11.2	66.6	82.1	15.5	0.92	0.98	0.06
Maharashtra	87.5	92.7	5.2	82.2	90.3	8.1	0.94	0.97	0.03
Himachal Pradesh	94.4	98.9	4.5	89.1	98.9	9.8	0.94	1.00	0.06
Tamil Nadu	92.0	95.8	3.8	87.4	95.6	8.2	0.95	1.00	0.05
Punjab	85.7	94.1	8.4	81.6	94.1	12.5	0.95	1.00	0.05
Kerala	95.2	97.0	1.8	95.5	98.0	2.5	1.00	1.01	0.01
India		85.2			78.3			0.92	

Source: Derived from Goujon and McNay (2003).

The two sets of data also allow a comparison of gender parity estimates for the two indicators. The GPI is higher for the attendance rate in sixteen cases out of twenty-two; the most significant differences – 10 percentage points or more in the GPI – are found for Angola, the Central African Republic, the Comoros, Côte d'Ivoire, Guinea-Bissau and the Sudan. This seems to suggest that, once enrolled, girls' attendance rates are higher than those of boys in these countries. The 'Educational quality' section of this chapter further investigates differences between boys and girls in the motivation for learning and the time invested in it.

National examples of geographical disparities

National GERs are, of course, for the country as a whole. Particularly in the poorer countries, there is often tremendous variation in enrolments in different parts of the country.

Box 2.3 shows the strong variation in school attendance rates among different Indian states. Similarly, for Cameroon, Table 2.14 shows that those areas and provinces with difficult living conditions (landlocked areas, hard climatic conditions, housing difficulties) have the lowest enrolment ratios. Thus, while GERs of over 100%

Table 2.14. Cameroon: gross enrolment ratio and GPI in primary education, by province (1999/2000)

	GER (%) Both sexes	GPI F/M*
Adamaoua	54	0.89
Centre	123	0.89
Est	84	0.79
Extrême-Nord	53	0.77
Littoral	116	0.74
Nord	56	0.75
Nord-Ouest	67	0.97
Ouest	107	0.93
Sud	123	1.03
Sud-Ouest	64	0.83
Country total	83	0.91

Source: Cameroon (2001).
* GPI data re-estimated from source by EFA Report Team.

are found in well-off provinces such as Centre, Littoral, Ouest and Sud, they compare with ratios of only 53%–56% in Extrême Nord and Nord. Also, the gender parity index (0.91 at the national level) varies between 0.74 and 1.03 among provinces, in ways that seem unrelated to the general level of education availability.

Geographical disparities interact with socio-economic status. Thus while urban areas are usually considered privileged in relation to rural areas, inequalities are, of course, significant within urban areas too. Recent statistics and survey results from Burkina Faso demonstrate that while the capital, Ouagadougou, is the best-off town in terms of school provisions and enrolment ratios, peripheral areas differ significantly from central areas (Kaboré and Pilon, 2003). Although peripheral areas vary greatly in terms of socio-economic status, they are characterized by a higher percentage of immigrants from rural areas, heads of household active in the agricultural sector, often illiterate, and frequently of Muslim faith. In these areas the demand, taking into account the school-age population, exceeds the supply. Thus in peripheral areas, where the supply of public schools is insufficient, parents have the choice between sending their children to costly private schools, as do parents in more residential peripheral areas, or letting them remain out of school.

Repetition in primary education

High levels of access and enrolment do not themselves guarantee that the achievement of Goal 2 is at hand. In order for 'all children ...' to 'have access to and complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality ...' it is necessary that pupils proceed through the educational ladder as smoothly and efficiently as possible. All countries, particularly those with very low levels of primary participation, are concerned that their limited resources are well utilized. While time spent by pupils repeating grades is not necessarily wasted, it is undeniable that efforts to reduce rates of repetition and drop-out are crucial parts of any UPE strategy.

In most countries, boys repeat more than girls.

In countries where resources are limited, school places occupied by repeaters may keep others out of school. Figure 2.13 shows that the incidence of repetition is highest in sub-Saharan Africa – above 15% in about half of the countries – with repeaters sometimes one-quarter of the enrolment. Repetition rates tend to be particularly high where access has expanded rapidly, perhaps in response to abolishing fees (as in Cameroon), or in post-conflict situations (as in Burundi, Chad, Mozambique and Rwanda). In North America and Europe, a policy of automatic promotion is applied in most countries. There, for countries with available data, only Albania and France have repeat rates as high as 4%.

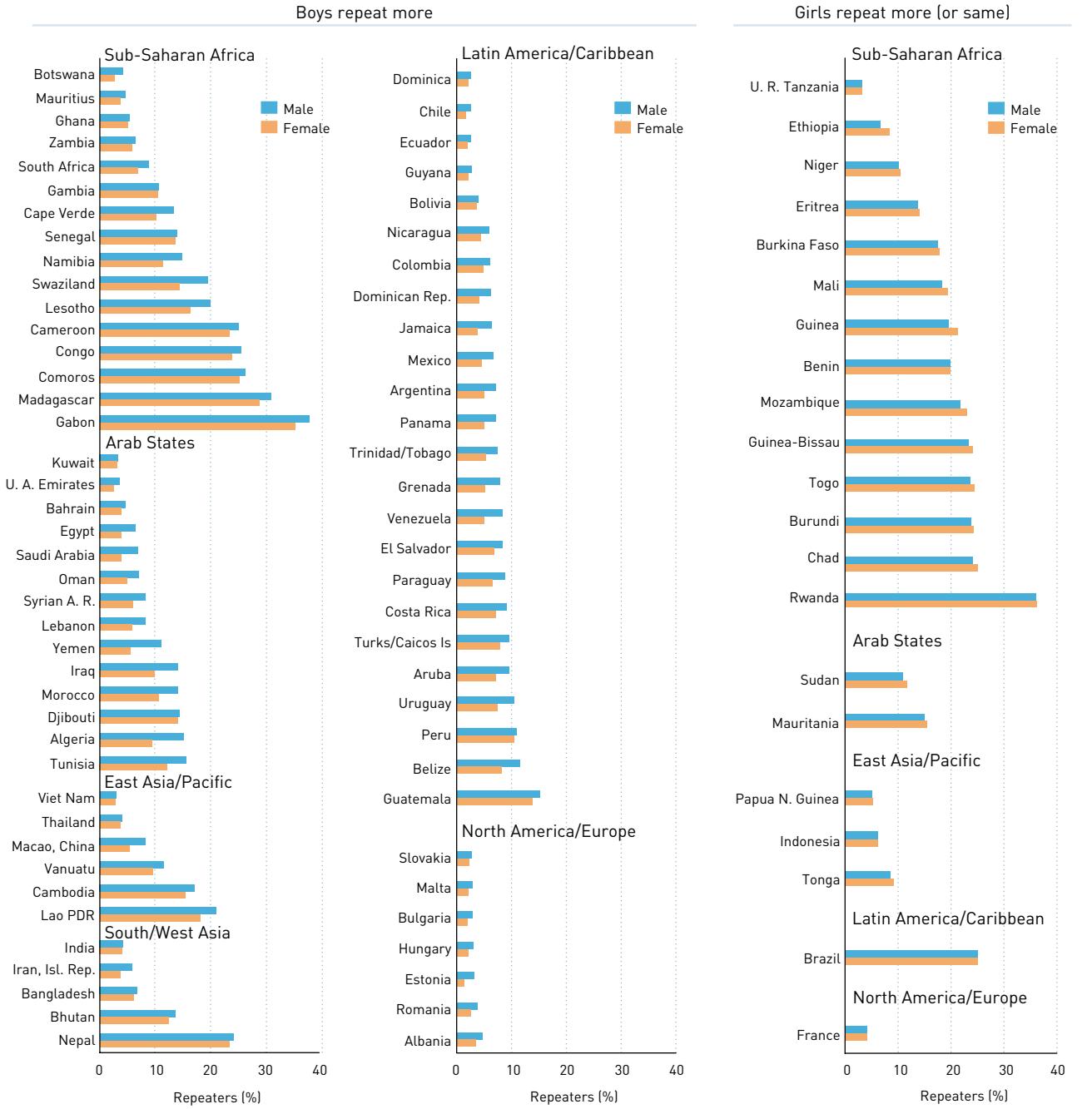
As regards gender disparities, in most countries, boys repeat more than girls. Gender gaps are particularly large in some sub-Saharan African countries, some Arab States and Latin America and the Caribbean. The countries where girls repeat more than boys are almost exclusively in sub-Saharan Africa, and most of them have high repetition rates (15% or more). Finally, in North America and Europe, where rates are very low, boys repeat as much as or more than girls, in all countries with the exception of The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia.

The overall percentage of repeaters in primary education is the total number of repeaters in primary education in a given year, expressed as a percentage of the total enrolment at the same level *in the same year*.

The repetition rate by grade is the number of repeaters in a given grade in a given year, expressed as a percentage of the total enrolment in the same grade *in the previous year*.

Figure 2.13. Primary education: percentage of repeaters by gender (2000)

(not including countries where repeaters are less than 2% of enrolment[1], in increasing order of male repeaters)



1. Countries where repeaters are less than 2%:
Sub-Saharan Africa: Seychelles;
Arab States: Jordan, Palestinian Autonomous Territories;
Central Asia: all countries;
East Asia and the Pacific: Brunei Darussalam, China, Myanmar, Philippines, Samoa;
Caribbean: Anguilla, British Virgin Islands, Cuba, Montserrat, Saint Lucia;
Western Europe: Austria, Cyprus, Finland, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Switzerland;
Central and Eastern Europe: Belarus, Croatia, Czech Republic, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Serbia and Montenegro, Republic of Moldova, Slovenia, The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia.

General note: See source table for individual country notes.
Source: Statistical annex, Table 6.

Repetition rates by grade

Repetition varies from one grade to another, but, across countries, some important patterns emerge. Table 2.15 shows that the highest rates are usually found in Grade 1. This is particularly so in East Asia and the Pacific and South and West Asia: in Nepal almost half of the pupils repeat Grade 1, while Cambodia and the Lao People's Democratic Republic have repetition rates around 30%. Repetition is also common in Latin America and the Caribbean, but more mixed patterns emerge elsewhere.

For example, while about one-third of the countries of sub-Saharan Africa and the Arab States have their highest repetition rates in Grade 1 – being particularly high in Rwanda (42.5%), Chad, the Comoros, Lesotho, Madagascar and Togo – for roughly another third of the countries they are found in the last grade of primary school. In Burkina Faso, Burundi, Djibouti, Mozambique and the Niger, repeaters account for about one-third of primary pupils in the last grade (Table 2.15).

School survival

School survival is a crucial indicator of the system's ability to retain pupils. Table 2.16 shows that survival rates to Grade 5 in sub-Saharan Africa are lower than elsewhere. Equally, this is the only region where they are more often higher for boys than for girls, particularly in Guinea-Bissau, Malawi and Mozambique. Very low survival rates (at or below 50%) are also found in several Asian countries, notably India, the Lao People's Democratic Republic and Myanmar. India has the highest survival disparity in favour of boys (GPI = 0.81). In the Arab countries for which data are available, the rates are all above 90% with the exception of Mauritania and Morocco. In contrast, in Latin America and the Caribbean, where universal primary access is almost attained, survival rates are often below 80% and are an obstacle to the full achievement of UPE.[15] For industrialized countries, rates of survival are not systematically calculated. However, the few data available show levels close to 100% and values of GPI close to parity.

Survival and completion

Survival rates have been the main measure of progress through education systems for many years. More recently, attention has been given to the calculation of completion rates, partly in response to the prominence given to the notion of primary completion in the Dakar and Millennium goals.

The main difference between these two concepts is that the first measures the survival to Grade 5 *among children who enrol in school*. It therefore does not take into account the sometimes large proportion of children who do not have access to primary school. The second measures the proportion *of all children* who 'complete' primary school. However, because of data problems, a proxy is typically used, which measures the proportion who reach Grade 6, or Grade 5 in the case of shorter systems (Box 2.4).

There are a number of problems with the ways in which it is proposed to measure and use the primary completion rate. First, and most obviously, the proxy statistic does not, in fact, provide a measure of primary completion because it ignores those children who reach the final year, but who drop out of school before the end of it. Thus, it provides an estimate of access to the final grade, just as the gross intake rate measures access to Grade 1. Work is under way in the UIS to investigate the possibility of collecting useful data on 'graduates' from primary school. This concept is not necessarily

School survival is a crucial indicator of the system's ability to retain pupils.

15. This is notwithstanding the fact that survival rates in Latin America and the Caribbean increased during the 1990s, owing to the enlargement of pre-school education and the introduction of automatic promotion in many countries.

Box 2.4. Survival and completion rates

The survival rate to Grade 5 is the percentage of children starting primary school who eventually attain Grade 5. The estimate is based on transition rates derived from data on enrolment and repeaters for two consecutive years.

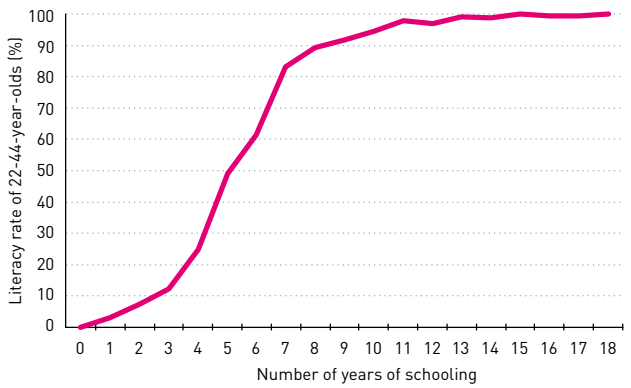
The primary completion rate (PCR) is the total number of students successfully completing, or graduating from, the last year of primary school in a given year, expressed as a proportion of the total number of children of official graduation age in the population.

Because it is difficult to obtain reliable and comparable data on completion or graduation, a proxy primary completion rate (PPCR) has been agreed as follows:

The PPCR is the total number of students enrolled for the first time in the final year of primary school – i.e. enrolment minus repeaters – as a proportion of the total number of children of official graduation age in the population.

Sources: UNESCO (1998*b*), UIS (2003).

Figure 2.14. Literacy rate of 22- to 44-year-olds in the Central African Republic, according to years of schooling (2000)



Source: UNICEF MICS data (2000).

comparable across countries, partly because practice differs as regards certification at primary level. It may be that the notion of school-leavers would be a simpler one to operationalize statistically. Meanwhile the estimates of access to the final grade that are currently available (Bruns, B. et al.; 2003) are generally over-estimates of 'true' rates of primary completion.

Second, the emphasis on completion of primary schooling as the sole indicator of Millennium Development Goal (MDG) achievement is unsatisfactory. This is partly because the statistic cannot fully take account of the quality of schooling. The clear link between finishing the primary cycle and educational achievement is supported by UNICEF MICS data. Nevertheless, taking the standard ISCED 1 primary cycle of six years, among those who have finished six years of education the literate proportion is still well below 100%. In sub-Saharan Africa, for example, this figure is 70% in the Central African Republic (see Figure 2.14) and 85% in Togo.

Third, as the completion rate focuses on only one year in the primary-school system, variations in enrolment over the previous five years are ignored. Because enrolment fluctuations can be quite sharp (in both directions), the statistic fails to provide a reliable guide to the coverage of the system at any particular time. As currently measured, the completion rate is a useful indicator of historical access to schooling and retention within the system.[16] However, both the GER and the NER (measured over time) are indispensable additional criteria to use in assessing progress towards goal achievement.[17]

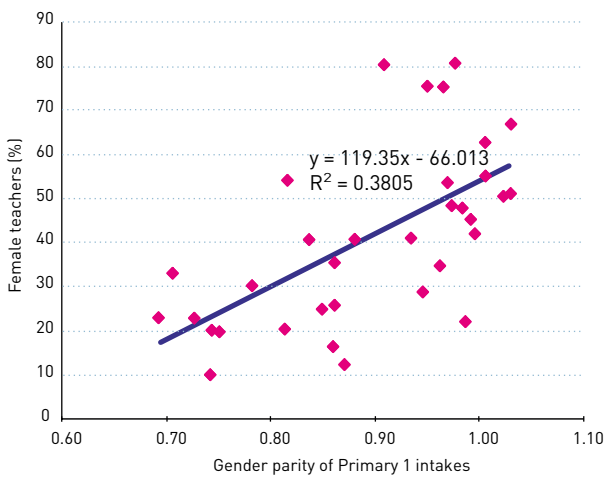
16. The statistical background document for MINEDAF VIII uses an indicator corresponding to the proxy primary completion rate which it calls 'Access rate to Grade 6' (see UNESCO-BREDA, 2002).

17. For further discussion of these latter issues see 'Measuring and monitoring UPE' (UNESCO, 2002*b*, Box 2.2, p. 55).

Gender balance among teaching staff and its relationship to gender parity in enrolments

One indicator potentially important for gendered outcomes in schooling is the proportion of primary-school teachers who are female. Girls' enrolments rise relative to boys as the proportion of female teachers rises from low levels. Figure 2.15 indicates that in sub-Saharan Africa those countries with roughly equal proportions of male and female primary teachers also tend to have rough equality in primary intakes between boys and girls. In contrast, where the proportion of female teachers is around 20% of the total, school intakes are much more unequal, with intakes of only seven or eight girls for every ten boys. Cause and effect here are difficult to disentangle: increasing proportions of educated women emerging from the schools will affect the number of women available to work as teachers, as well as household demand for girls' schooling. Nevertheless, the relationship appears to be robust, at least in Africa, after controlling for other relevant variables such as per capita income (Colclough et al., 2003, pp. 69–70). Thus, there is strong suggestive evidence that moves towards equalizing gender balance among teachers will promote gender parity (see Chapters 3 and 4).

Figure 2.15. Sub-Saharan Africa: percentage of female teachers and gender parity in access to schools (2000)



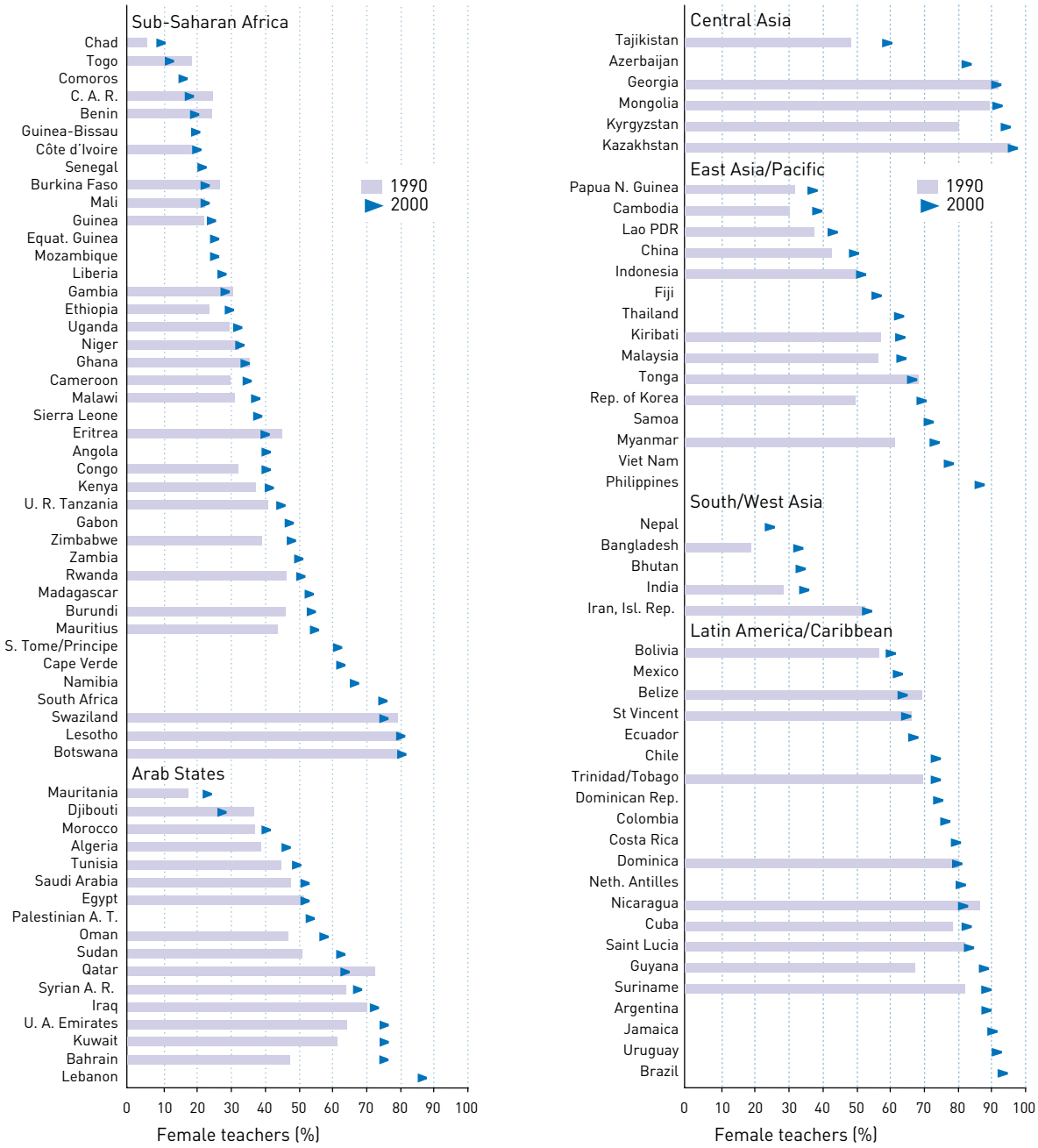
Source: Statistical annex, Tables 4 and 10.

Table 2.15. Primary education: repetition rate by grade (1999/2000)

	Duration of primary	Repetition rates (%)						
		Gr. 1	Gr. 2	Gr. 3	Gr. 4	Gr. 5	Gr. 6	Gr. 7
Sub-Saharan Africa								
Angola	4	25.2	**26.2**	25.0	20.5			
Benin	6	14.7	21.2	25.5	24.0	**29.8**	28.3	
Botswana	7	4.3	2.5	1.9	**10.7**	1.6	1.2	0.3
Burkina Faso	6	12.2	12.8	17.4	16.0	18.6	**41.6**	
Burundi	6	24.1	23.3	22.9	22.8	32.2	**39.7**	
Cameroon	6	*31.2*	*24.2*	***32.2***	*24.6*	*28.4*	*26.5*	
Chad	6	**31.4**	26.9	26.5	24.9	21.0	28.7	
Comoros	6	**33.9**	27.7	26.3	21.8	20.5	27.7	
Congo	6	32.8	21.6	**38.5**	33.5	28.6	14.2	
Côte d'Ivoire	6	19.6	18.8	21.4	19.0	**24.1**		
Eritrea	5	**22.2**	11.1	11.1	11.8	6.4		
Ethiopia	6	**16.2**	6.9	6.4	8.5	8.7	5.7	
Gambia	6	***16.1***	*10.6*	*10.3*	*9.0*	*8.6*	*6.6*	
Ghana	6	**8.0**	5.1	4.6	4.1	3.6	3.8	
Guinea	6	20.9	19.8	23.1	20.2	21.4	**27.9**	
Guinea-Bissau	6	*23.9*	*26.9*	*24.4*	*23.9*	*20.6*	***27.9***	
Lesotho	7	**30.0**	21.9	20.0	20.4	15.7	12.4	17.4
Madagascar	5	**39.1**	27.4	29.5	24.1			
Mali	6	*11.1*	*11.7*	*18.2*	*21.3*	***26.0***		
Mozambique	5	26.9	25.4	25.5	21.4	**31.2**		
Namibia	7	15.6	12.0	11.2	12.0	**19.3**	11.5	10.1
Niger	6	1.1	6.5	9.6	10.5	15.3	**38.8**	
Rwanda	6	**42.5**	31.0	32.3	37.2	41.7	30.4	
Senegal	6	10.0	12.5	12.5	12.9	16.1	**29.5**	
Seychelles	6	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	**0.3**	...	
South Africa	7	**11.6**	7.6	7.1	7.4	6.7	5.3	4.5
Swaziland	7	19.5	17.7	**20.0**	18.3	16.5	16.7	10.5
Togo	6	**30.7**	25.4	26.5	20.5	20.8	19.7	
U. R. Tanzania	7	3.3	2.2	1.5	**12.7**	0.1	0.0	0.0
Zambia	7	4.3	4.8	5.0	6.3	6.3	7.0	**12.3**
Arab States								
Algeria	6	12.2	9.9	10.5	11.5	12.0	**17.0**	
Bahrain	6	4.6	4.0	3.7	4.3	4.6	**4.8**	
Djibouti	6	*8.9*	*9.3*	*9.9*	*9.5*	*9.7*	***33.7***	
Jordan	6	*0.3*	*0.2*	*0.2*	*0.6*	*1.3*	***1.4***	
Kuwait	4	3.3	3.1	**4.0**	2.5			
Lebanon	6	4.8	6.1	7.2	**9.3**	7.5		
Mauritania	6	14.1	13.9	14.1	12.9	15.4	**25.8**	
Morocco	6	**16.9**	14.5	14.6	11.7	10.1	7.0	
Oman	6	7.0	**7.8**	6.1	6.2	4.8	3.9	
Palestinian A. T.	4	1.1	1.1	2.2	**3.4**			
Saudi Arabia	6	**8.2**	5.6	7.1	5.1	5.0	1.6	
Sudan	6	*10.0*	*10.5*	*12.1*	***14.0***	*13.1*	*11.4*	
Syrian A. R.	6	**13.4**	9.8	6.8	4.1	3.5	4.2	
Tunisia	6	10.8	12.5	13.4	11.3	15.7	**18.0**	
U. A. Emirates	6	3.4	3.4	2.3	**4.0**	3.4	2.4	
Asia and the Pacific								
Central Asia								
Azerbaijan	4	***0.5***	*0.4*	*0.4*	*0.4*			
Georgia	4	0.2	0.3	0.2	**0.3**			
Kyrgyzstan	4	0.2	0.2	**0.3**	0.2			
Mongolia	4	**1.0**	0.6	0.3	0.3			
Tajikistan	4	0.2	0.5	0.5	**0.6**			
East Asia and the Pacific								
Brunei Darussalam	6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
Cambodia	6	**29.5**	18.0	15.1	9.3	5.8	2.9	
China	5	**1.9**	1.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	
Cook Islands	6	***5.1***	*0.5*	*0.3*	*2.4*	*1.7*	*3.2*	
Indonesia	6	**12.2**	7.9	6.6	5.0	3.5	0.4	
Lao PDR	5	**34.3**	19.9	11.9	7.5	5.4		
Macao, China	6	2.4	3.4	5.8	8.0	**10.5**	8.7	
Myanmar	5	**1.3**	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.2		
Philippines	6	***4.3***	*2.3*	*1.5*	*0.9*	*0.8*		
Samoa	6	**2.8**	0.7	0.4	0.6	0.5		
Thailand	6	***9.2***	*3.8*	*2.1*	*2.1*	*1.9*		
Vanuatu	6	11.5	10.7	9.9	8.8	6.5	**17.2**	
Viet Nam	5	**5.9**	3.0	2.1	2.2	0.4		
South and West Asia								
Bangladesh	5	6.7	5.6	**7.9**	6.7	5.4		
Bhutan	7	**15.6**	14.7	14.7	12.3	14.6	13.2	9.7
India	5	*3.7*	*2.7*	***5.6***	*4.3*	*3.9*		
Iran, Isl. Rep.	5	**7.9**	5.4	3.6	4.0	2.5		
Nepal	5	**45.9**	15.8	12.1	12.2	10.1		
Latin America and the Caribbean								
Argentina	6	**9.8**	6.9	6.1	5.2	4.6	3.8	
Aruba	6	**14.1**	10.3	8.7	7.2	7.1	3.0	
Belize	6	**14.1**	8.3	8.3	9.8	8.8	9.1	
Bolivia	6	**6.3**	2.8	2.8	3.0	3.0	4.6	
Chile	6	0.9	**3.8**	0.8	2.5	2.3	1.6	
Colombia	5	**9.6**	5.2	4.2	3.3	2.4		
Costa Rica	6	**14.7**	8.5	6.8	8.4	6.4	0.9	
Cuba	6	1.9	**2.7**	0.3	1.8	0.9	0.3	
Dominica	7	5.0	0.8	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.8	**6.1**
Dominican Rep.	6	*2.6*	*3.0*	***11.0***	*6.1*	*4.8*		
Ecuador	6	**4.3**	3.2	2.0	1.6	0.9	0.5	
El Salvador	6	***18.6***	*7.3*	*4.4*	*3.3*	*2.3*	*2.1*	
Grenada	7	*3.9*	*5.2*	*4.3*	*4.2*	*3.7*	***8.4***	
Guatemala	6	**27.5**	14.4	11.0	7.7	4.9	2.0	
Guyana	6	***4.0***	*2.6*	*2.6*	*1.7*	*1.2*	*2.0*	
Jamaica	6	6.0	2.4	2.0	**10.5**	2.0	5.9	
Mexico	6	**8.9**	8.3	6.0	4.6	3.2	0.4	
Nicaragua	6	**8.5**	4.9	4.5	4.2	3.2	1.8	
Panama	6	**10.7**	9.4	6.4	4.0	2.9	1.0	
Paraguay	6	**13.1**	10.1	7.9	5.9	3.6	1.7	
Peru	6	5.9	**18.3**	15.0	10.4	8.3	4.0	
Trinidad and Tobago	7	**10.4**	6.2	5.9	5.2	6.7	6.8	1.3
Uruguay	6	**17.3**	12.1	7.5	6.5	4.9	2.5	
Venezuela	6	**9.5**	7.6	8.8	6.8	4.6		
North America and Western Europe								
Austria	4	**1.8**	1.7	1.4	1.2			
Cyprus	6	**1.6**	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
Finland	6	0.9	**1.0**	0.5	0.2	0.2	0.2	
France	5	*5.6*	***6.2***	*3.1*	*2.5*	*3.4*		
Germany	4	1.7	**2.3**	1.6	1.2			
Ireland	6	1.2	**3.4**	2.3	1.3	1.0	0.9	
Italy	5	**0.4**	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.4		
Malta	6	0.8	0.8	1.3	1.2	0.6	**8.4**	
Switzerland	6	1.1	**2.5**	2.4	2.0	1.6	1.0	
Central and Eastern Europe								
Albania	4	**5.2**	4.2	3.0	3.3			
Bulgaria	4	1.6	**3.5**	2.0	2.0			
Croatia	4	**1.0**	0.4	0.3	0.2			
Czech Republic	5	**1.5**	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.1		
Estonia	6	1.0	1.2	1.7	2.1	2.6	**4.0**	
Hungary	4	**4.7**	2.1	1.5	1.6			
Latvia	4	**4.0**	1.4	1.1	1.0			
Lithuania	4	**1.5**	0.4	0.3	0.3			
Poland	6	0.7	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.9	**1.0**	
Romania	4	**5.3**	2.6	2.1	1.9			
Slovakia	4	**4.3**	1.9	1.5	1.7			
The FYR of Macedonia	4	**0.1**	0.0	0.1	0.1			

General note: See source table for detailed country notes. Bold figures indicate the grade where the repetition rate is highest.
Source: Statistical annex, Table 6.

Figure 2.16. Primary education: percentage of female teachers (1990 and 2000)



General note: See source table for detailed country notes.
Source: Statistical annex, Table 10.

Table 2.16. Primary education survival rate to Grade 5, by gender (1999) (countries shown in increasing order of GPI within regions)

Higher survival for boys					Same survival rates					Higher survival for girls				
	Survival rate to Grade 5 (%)					Survival rate to Grade 5 (%)					Survival rate to Grade 5 (%)			
Regions	Total	Male	Female	GPI		Total	Male	Female	GPI		Total	Male	Female	GPI
Sub-Saharan Africa														
Malawi	49.0	55.3	42.6	0.77	Mali	*79.3***	*79.7***	*78.7***	0.99	Namibia	92.2	91.5	92.9	1.02
Mozambique	42.7	47.0	37.2	0.79	Eritrea	60.5	60.8	60.1	0.99	Madagascar	*51.1*	*50.7*	*51.6*	1.02
Guinea-Bissau	*38.1***	*41.2***	*33.8***	0.82	Côte d'Ivoire	77.7	77.9	77.4	0.99	Swaziland	84.2**	82.9**	85.4**	1.03
Gambia	*69.2***	*75.2***	*62.8***	0.83	Ethiopia	63.8	63.9	63.8	1.00	U. R. Tanzania	81.8**	80.4**	83.2**	1.03
Chad	53.9	57.5	48.3	0.84						Rwanda	39.1	38.3	39.9	1.04
Guinea	84.4	90.4	77.0	0.85						Burkina Faso	69.1	67.6	71.3	1.06
Benin	84.0	88.7	77.5	0.87						Botswana	86.6	84.3	89.0	1.06
Togo	73.8	78.1	68.7	0.88						Lesotho	74.5	68.2	80.5	1.18
Senegal	72.3	75.0	69.3	0.92										
Niger	74.0	75.8	71.2	0.94										
South Africa	64.5**	66.5**	62.5**	0.94										
Zambia	80.6	83.1	78.1	0.94										
Ghana	66.3	67.3	65.2	0.97										
Burundi	58.4	58.9	57.9	0.98										
Arab States														
Mauritania	61.2	67.6	55.0	0.81	Jordan	*97.7*	*98.0*	*97.4*	0.99	Oman	95.9	95.2	96.7	1.02
Bahrain	98.9**	100.0**	97.8**	0.98	Saudi Arabia	93.7	93.9	93.5	1.00	Morocco	80.0	79.1	81.0	1.02
					Syrian A. R.	92.1	92.2	92.0	1.00	Sudan	*86.8***	*85.6***	*88.2***	1.03
					U. A. Emirates	98.1	98.1	98.2	1.00	Lebanon	96.9	95.2	98.8	1.04
					Egypt	99.0**	98.8**	99.2**	1.00					
					Algeria	97.2	96.9	97.5	1.01					
					Tunisia	93.1	92.4	93.8	1.01					
East Asia/Pacific														
Samoa	*82.6*	*89.0*	*77.3*	0.87	Cambodia	62.8	62.9	62.7	1.00	Lao PDR	53.2	52.6	53.9	1.02
Vanuatu	82.9**	84.4**	81.3**	0.96	Myanmar	55.2	55.3	55.2	1.00	Thailand	*94.1***	*92.3***	*96.0***	1.04
					Brunei Daruss.	91.8	91.9	91.8	1.00	Indonesia	95.1**	90.8**	100.0**	1.10
					Macao, China	99.4	98.9	100.0	1.01					
South/West Asia														
India	46.8**	51.2**	41.7**	0.81	Iran, Isl. Rep.	97.5	98.2	96.8	0.99	Bhutan	90.4	88.9	92.2	1.04
										Bangladesh	64.9	60.3	70.1	1.16
										Nepal	62.2	56.8	70.1	1.23
Latin America/Caribbean														
Guyana	*94.8*	*100.0*	*89.6*	0.90	Chile	99.9	100.0	99.9	1.00	Cuba	95.3	94.5	96.2	1.02
Uruguay	90.8	93.3	88.4	0.95	Belize	81.5	81.5	81.5	1.00	Mexico	88.5	87.5	89.5	1.02
Bolivia	83.0**	84.5**	81.5**	0.96	Argentina	90.3	90.1	90.5	1.00	Trinidad/Tobago	98.2	96.5	100.0	1.04
Dominica	86.2	87.5	84.9	0.97	Panama	91.9	91.5	92.4	1.01	Aruba	98.1	96.5	100.0	1.04
Peru	87.4	88.2	86.6	0.98						Ecuador	77.8	76.4	79.4	1.04
										El Salvador	*70.7***	*69.4***	*72.2***	1.04
										Jamaica	88.9	87.0	90.8	1.04
										Paraguay	78.1**	76.2**	80.2**	1.05
										Guatemala	56.0	54.5	57.7	1.06
										Venezuela	*90.8*	*87.6*	*94.3*	1.08
										Colombia	66.6	64.0	69.3	1.08
										Costa Rica	80.2	76.7	84.2	1.10
										Dominican Rep.	*75.1***	*71.4***	*79.1***	1.11
										Nicaragua	48.4	44.6	52.6	1.18
Europe														
Italy	99.2	100.0	98.5	0.98	France	*98.0*	*98.4***	*97.5***	0.99	Ireland	98.5	97.6	99.4	1.02
Czech Rep.	99.2**	100.0**	98.4**	0.98	Switzerland	99.6	100.0	99.2	0.99					
					Estonia	99.2	99.7	98.5	0.99					
					Poland	99.3	99.4**	99.2**	1.00					
					Cyprus	99.4	99.2	99.6	1.00					
					Malta	99.5	99.1	99.8	1.01					
					Finland	99.4	98.8	100.0	1.01					

General note: See source table for detailed country notes. ** UIS estimate.
Source: Statistical annex, Table 6.

The lowest level of feminization of primary teachers is in countries where gender disparities are highest.

Figure 2.16 shows the degree of feminization of the teaching staff and the changes that occurred between 1990 and 2000.

The figure confirms that the lowest levels of feminization of primary teaching staff are found in countries where overall enrolment levels are the lowest and gender disparities highest. Women hold only one-third, or less, of teaching posts in sixteen countries of sub-Saharan Africa – representing 40% of those having the data. With the exception of Nepal, there are no countries in any other region of the world where the gender ratios among teachers are as low as this.[18] In the primary-school systems of fourteen of these sixteen African countries, the average GPI for net primary enrolments is 0.79, and the highest such value is 0.93 (in the Gambia). In contrast, in the southern African countries of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland, where gender ratios in school enrolments in favour of girls are found, the teaching profession is strongly feminized too, with over three-quarters of teachers being women.

Outside sub-Saharan Africa, low levels of female representation are also found in some Arab States (Djibouti and Mauritania); East Asia and the Pacific (Cambodia and Papua New Guinea), as well as South and West Asia (Bangladesh, Bhutan, India and Nepal).

Finally, a very different situation exists in thirteen out of seventeen Arab States, where female teachers are in the majority. This is also true throughout Latin America and the Caribbean and in most Central and East Asian countries, where feminization of the teaching profession reaches levels similar to those observed in the industrialized countries, at four-fifths, or more, of the total.

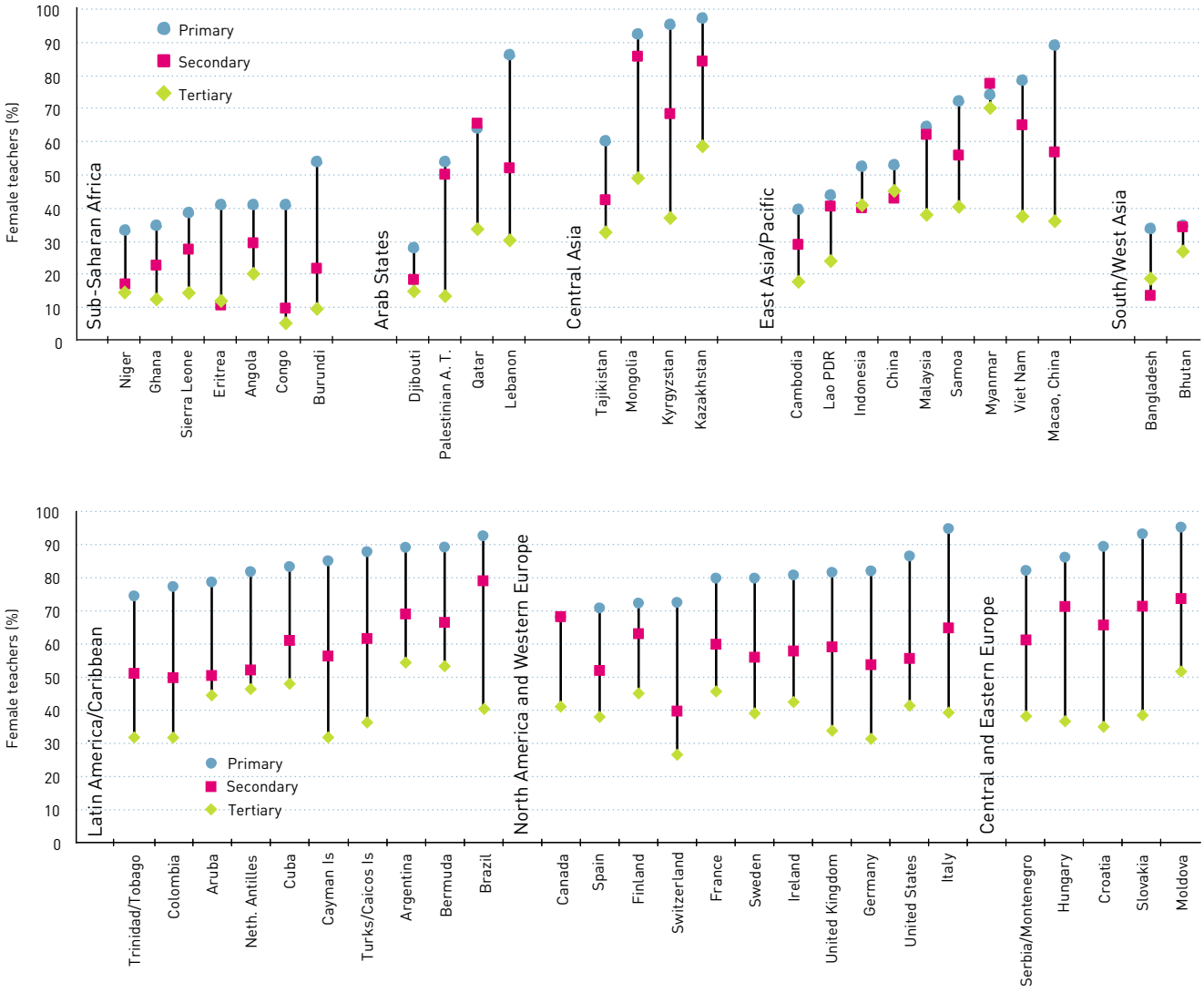
As regards trends since 1990, female participation in the teaching profession has increased in almost all countries where data are available for both years. In some cases – as in Bangladesh – this is the result of deliberate, well-focused policy measures designed to encourage girls' schooling by increasing the number of women teachers, particularly in remote or difficult areas (Cussó, 2003).

More worryingly, it appears that a decrease has occurred in a number of countries where the percentages of women were already among the lowest in 1990 (Benin, Burkina Faso, the Central African Republic, Djibouti and Togo).

In countries where women have low socio-economic status, the feminization of the teaching profession provides a means of empowering women and, at the same time, some encouragement both for parents to educate girls and for young women to pursue their studies. In more developed regions, where the teaching profession at lower levels of education has been highly feminized for many years, salaries at primary level are often less attractive. In contrast, at higher levels of education, where teachers are more highly paid, women remain comparatively less numerous, as shown in Figure 2.17. It can be seen that in all countries their presence decreases as one moves from primary to secondary to higher education, where women teachers are generally in the minority. The only exceptions, among countries in the graph, are Argentina, Bermuda, Kazakhstan, Myanmar and the Republic of Moldova.

18. Note, however, that the values of the gender ratios for teachers in Bangladesh and India are only slightly higher than one-third.

Figure 2.17. Percentage of female teachers by level of education (2000)
(in increasing order of percentage female in primary education)



General note: See source table for detailed country notes.
Source: Statistical annex, Table 10.

Transition rates where girls are in the majority are not uncommon, particularly in Latin America and the Caribbean.

Secondary education and the gender goals

As shown earlier in this chapter, there was a substantial increase in primary enrolment during the 1990s, which outpaced population growth in some developing regions, including sub-Saharan Africa, the Arab States and South and West Asia. The continued priority given to the achievement of UPE by national plans and internationally established goals is set to intensify the existing demand for secondary education provision in many countries over the coming years as larger cohorts of pupils leave the primary system.

Transition from primary to secondary education

Rates of transition from primary education indicate the percentage of a cohort of pupils which proceeds from the last year of primary to the first year of secondary education. The calculation is based on data on new entrants (enrolment minus repeaters) to secondary education in a given year, expressed as a percentage of enrolment in the last grade of primary school the previous year.

Transition rates to secondary schooling are almost always above 95% in industrialized and transition economies, and almost always above 50% in other regions except for sub-Saharan Africa, where much lower rates are often found.[19] Figure 2.18 shows that disparities in transition rates in favour of boys are frequent in sub-Saharan Africa and some Arab States. However, transition rates where girls are in the majority are not uncommon – particularly in Latin America and the Caribbean.

A comparison of the gender parity of primary and secondary intakes reveals that those at secondary level are much more equally balanced between the sexes than are intakes to primary schooling. This is particularly so in regions where primary enrolments are low and gender imbalances at primary level are high. Figure 2.19 compares the GPI of primary intake and secondary transition rates in sub-Saharan Africa and the Arab States.

In most of the countries shown, the gender disparities in intake rates are much reduced at secondary level in comparison with primary. This suggests that the difficulties hindering girls' access to primary education do not prevent them from performing as well as, or better than, their male peers once they are enrolled.[20] This does not imply, however, that a smooth school career in secondary education for girls will automatically follow. At this level of education other problems – puberty, early marriage, pregnancy – have a strong influence on the gendered patterns of school participation and retention.

Participation in secondary education

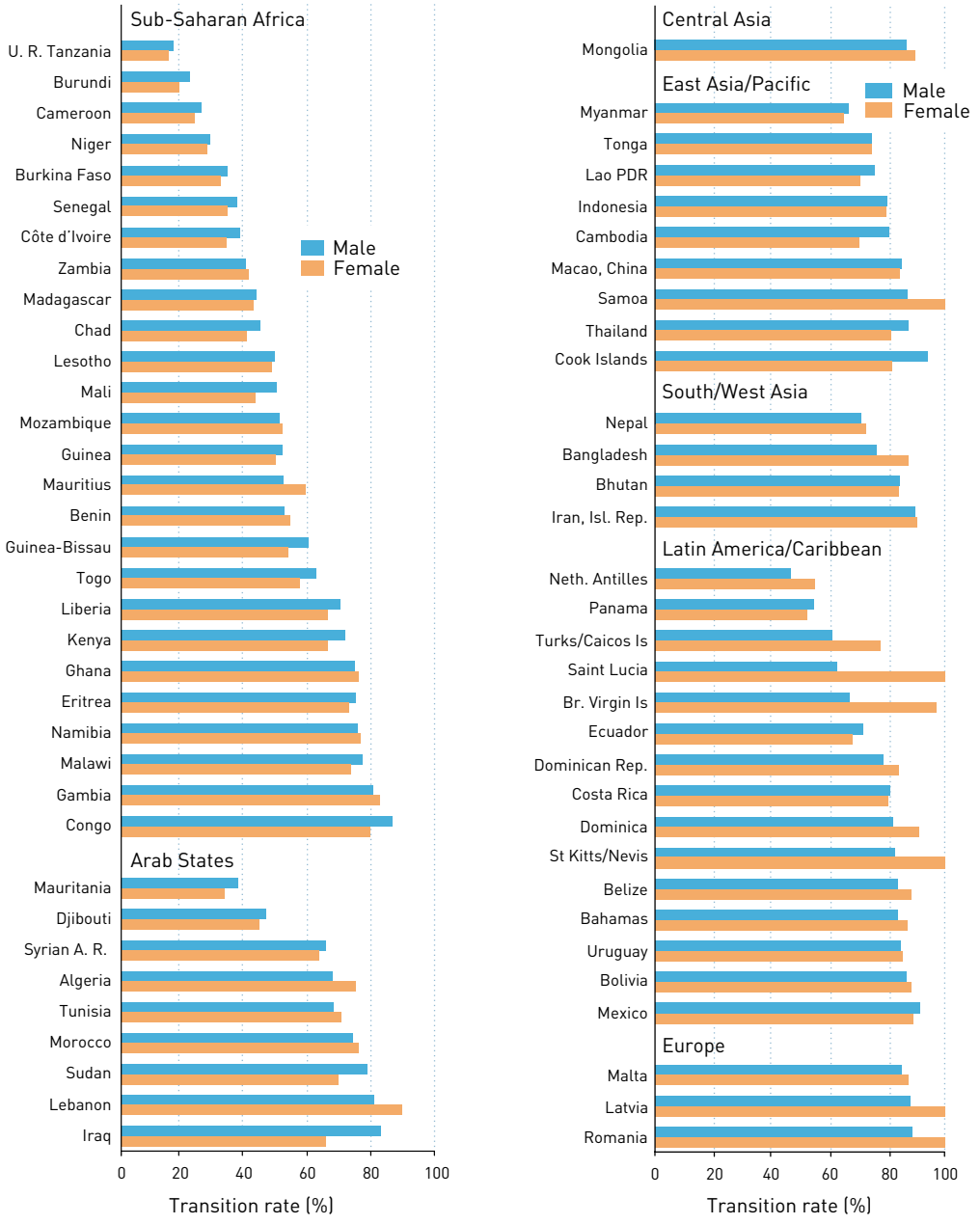
There is greater variation in enrolment levels across the world at secondary than at primary level. Enrolments are equivalent to less than 30% of the age group in twenty-six countries – nineteen of which are in sub-Saharan Africa, while in a further seventeen countries they cover less than half the school-age group. The Arab States and Latin America tend to have higher enrolments, with GERs greater than 70% in a majority of them. In contrast, OECD and most other European countries are at, or close to achieving, universal secondary enrolment, with GERs typically above 90% (Table 2.17).

Because of the classification changes indicated in Box 2.5, it is impossible to accurately compare secondary enrolments in 1990 with those in 2000. However, the gendered characteristics of enrolments – being less affected by such changes – may be compared. This is done in Figure 2.20, which shows that there have been significant moves towards gender parity in enrolments at secondary level in all developing regions over the 1990s. Except for Ethiopia, all the countries where girls were at a strong enrolment disadvantage in 1990 saw progress, with very significant changes (of more than 20 points in the GPI scale) in Algeria, Bangladesh, Malawi, Mauritania, Nepal, the Niger, Pakistan, Rwanda, Sierra Leone and Tunisia. Elsewhere, the most marked progress has occurred in Bangladesh (GPI rising from 0.52 to 1.05 over the decade), where disparities have been reversed and where girls are now in the majority at secondary level (see Chapter 3). Where disparities were markedly in favour of girls – as in several Latin American and Caribbean countries and some sub-Saharan African countries – the GPI has usually moved

19. It should be recalled that several different forms of secondary education are often available to students, including general, technical and vocational education, and teacher training. While data for the first grade of secondary education are usually available for general programmes, this is often not the case for technical and vocational programmes. Some underestimation of transition rates is therefore likely where such programmes exist for primary leavers. This may be the case, *inter alia*, for Bolivia, Côte d'Ivoire, Djibouti and the United Republic of Tanzania.

20. Note that where enrolments of girls are very low relative to boys, selection bias may mean that those girls who do gain access are brighter than the boys, making it more likely that they will succeed.

Figure 2.18. Transition rates from primary to secondary education, by gender (1999)
(countries where either male or female rates, or both, are below 90%[1]; in increasing order of male rates)



1. Male and female transition rates exceed 90% in the following countries (listed in increasing order of transition rate):

Sub-Saharan Africa
South Africa
Swaziland
Ethiopia
Botswana
Seychelles

Arab States
Oman
Palestinian A. T.
Kuwait
Jordan
U. A. Emirates
Bahrain
Saudi Arabia

Asia and the Pacific
Central Asia
Azerbaijan
Tajikistan
Georgia
Kyrgyzstan
East Asia/Pacific
Brunei Daruss.
Rep. of Korea
China
Viet Nam

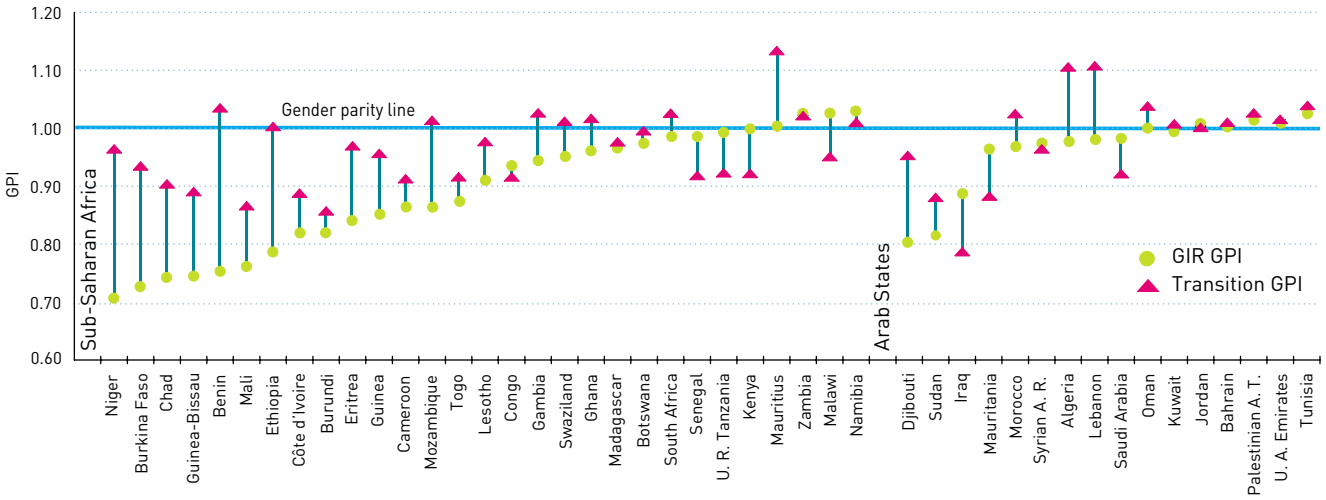
LAC
Venezuela
Colombia
Argentina
Cuba
Guatemala
Cayman Is
Paraguay
Peru
Trinidad/Tobago
Jamaica
Aruba
Chile
Anguilla
St Vincent
Barbados
Nicaragua

N. America/W. Europe
Austria
Ireland
Netherlands
Germany
France
Switzerland
Denmark
Cyprus
Finland
Italy

Central/Eastern Europe
Lithuania
Albania
Estonia
Bulgaria
Slovakia
Belarus
Czech Republic
Hungary
Croatia
Slovenia

General note: See source table for detailed country notes.
Source: Statistical annex, Table 6.

Figure 2.19. Sub-Saharan Africa and Arab States: gender parity index for access to primary (2000) and transition rate from primary to secondary education (1999/2000)
(in increasing order of gender parity for access to primary)



Source: Statistical annex, Tables 4 and 6.

Box 2.5. ISCED 1976 compared with ISCED 1997: impact on enrolment comparisons

ISCED 1976		ISCED 1997	
Levels		**Levels**	
0	Education preceding the first level	0	Pre-primary education
1	Education at the first level	1	Primary education or first stage of primary education
2	Education at the second level, first stage	2	Lower secondary or second stage of basic education
3	Education at the second level, second stage	3	Upper secondary education
		4	Post secondary, non-tertiary education
5	Education at the third level, first stage, of the type that leads to an award not equivalent to a first university degree	5	First stage of tertiary education (not leading directly to an advanced research qualification)
6	Education at the third level, first stage, of the type that leads to a first university degree or equivalent		
7	Education at the third level, second stage, of the type that leads to a postgraduate university degree or equivalent	6	Second stage of tertiary education (leading to an advanced research qualification)
9	Education not definable by level		

The changes of classification introduced in the 1997 revision of the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) are summarized above. The new categorization affects the comparability of statistics over time, particularly for secondary and tertiary education. Primary and pre-primary education are unaffected. But higher levels, including secondary education, are now grouped in different ways, making comparison of enrolments difficult or impossible at Level 3 and above.

Table 2.17. Secondary education: grouping of countries according to gross enrolment ratio, by region (2000)
(in each box countries are listed in increasing order of GER)

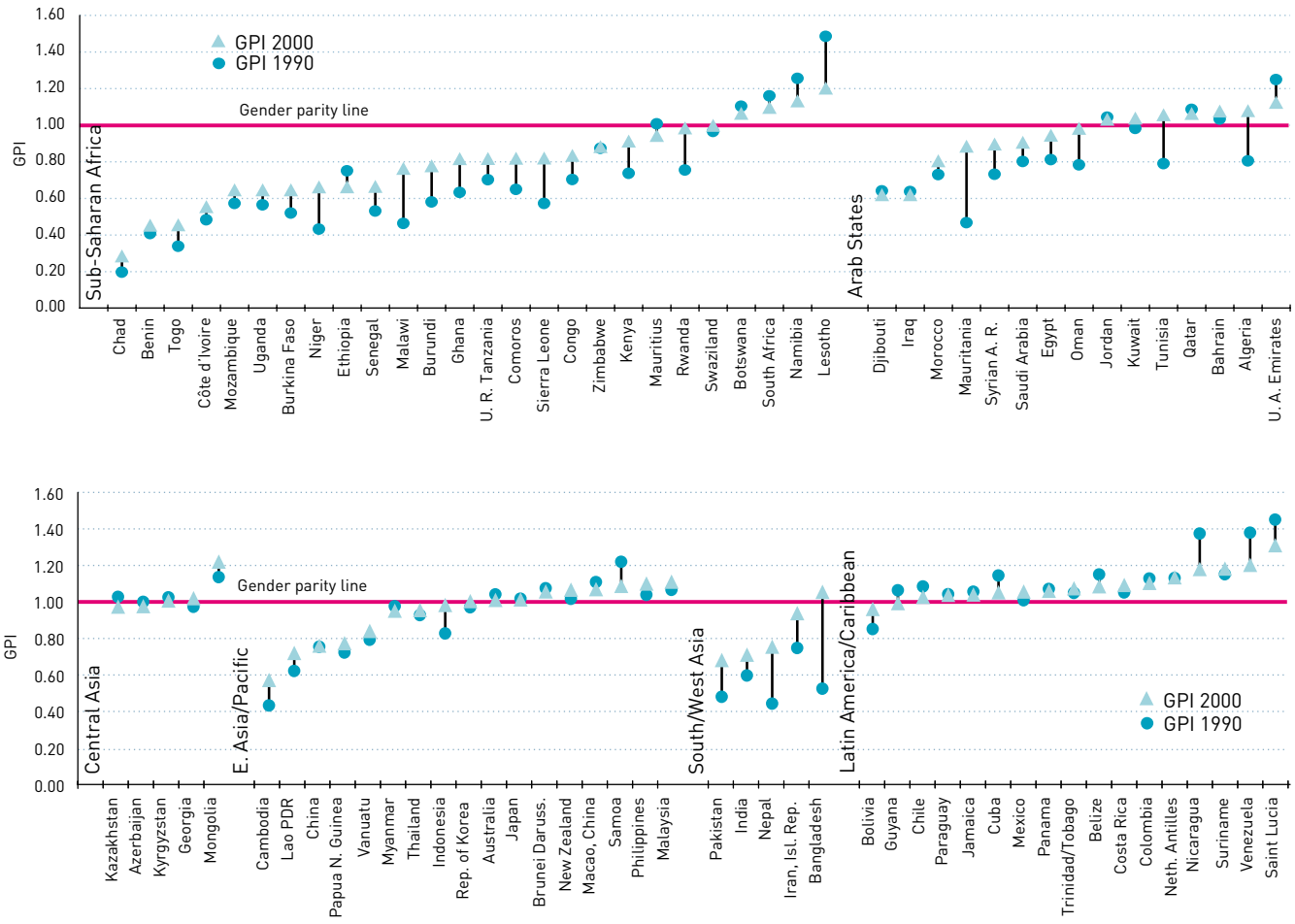
	Levels of GER				
Regions	**≤ 30%**	**30.1%-50%**	**50.1%-70%**	**70.1%-90%**	**Above 90%**
Sub-Saharan Africa	U. R. Tanzania, Niger, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Chad, Mozambique, Rwanda, Uganda, Angola, Senegal, Ethiopia, Guinea-Bissau, Comoros, Benin, Liberia, Côte d'Ivoire, Zambia, Sierra Leone, Eritrea (19)	Kenya, Equatorial Guinea, Lesotho, Malawi, Ghana, Gambia, Togo, Congo, Zimbabwe (9)	Gabon, Swaziland, Namibia (3)	Cape Verde, Mauritius, Botswana, South Africa (4)	
Arab States	Djibouti, Mauritania, Sudan (3)	Iraq, Morocco, Syrian A. R. (3)	Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, Oman (3)	Algeria, U. A. Emirates, Lebanon, Tunisia, Palestinian A. T., Egypt, Jordan, Qatar (8)	Bahrain (1)
Central Asia			Mongolia (1)	Georgia, Tajikistan, Azerbaijan, Kyrgyzstan, Kazakhstan (5)	
East Asia and the Pacific	Cambodia, Papua New Guinea, Vanuatu (3)	Lao PDR, Myanmar (2)	Indonesia, Cook Islands, Viet Nam, China (4)	Samoa, Malaysia, Philippines, Fiji, Thailand, Brunei Darussalam, Macao (China), Palau (8)	Rep. of Korea, Niue, Tonga, Japan, New Zealand, Australia (6)
South and West Asia	Pakistan (1)	Bangladesh, India (2)	Nepal, Maldives (2)	Isl. Rep. of Iran (1)	
Latin America and the Caribbean		Guatemala (1)	Nicaragua, El Salvador, Ecuador, Venezuela, Dominican Rep., Paraguay, Costa Rica, Grenada, Panama, Colombia (10)	Belize, Mexico, Bolivia, Trinidad and Tobago, Jamaica, Neth. Antilles, Cuba, Chile, Peru, Suriname, Saint Lucia (11)	Argentina, Aruba, Uruguay, Barbados, Brazil, Guyana, Bahamas (7)
North America and Western Europe				Malta (1)	Israel, Cyprus, Luxembourg, United States, Italy, Greece, Austria, Germany, Switzerland, Belgium, Canada, France, Iceland, Portugal, Norway, Spain, Ireland, Netherlands, Finland, Denmark, Sweden, United Kingdom (22)
Central and Eastern Europe			Turkey, Serbia and Montenegro (2)	Rep. of Moldova, Albania, Romania, Croatia, Russian Federation, Belarus, The FYR of Macedonia, Slovakia (8)	Latvia, Estonia, Bulgaria, Czech Rep., Lithuania, Hungary, Poland, Slovenia (8)
Total number of countries 158	26	17	25	46	44

Source: Statistical annex, Table 7.

closer to unity. Finally, in North America and Europe, which are not shown in Figure 2.20, changes have not been particularly striking, as enrolments were already close to parity in 1990. However it is worth noting the widening of the enrolment gaps in favour of young women at secondary level in some countries. This is particularly notable in Sweden and the United Kingdom (where GPI has moved from 1.05 to 1.26 and from 1.06 to 1.17, respectively).

In addition to examining time trends, it is of interest to compare patterns of disparity between primary and secondary education. This is done in Figure 2.21, which shows the gender parity index values for primary and secondary enrolments.

Figure 2.20. Secondary education: changes in gender parity index of gross enrolment ratio (1990–2000)



General note: See source table for detailed country notes.
Source: Statistical annex, Table 7.

It shows that:

- Countries with large disparities in favour of boys in primary education – typically those in sub-Saharan Africa, but also including Cambodia, India, Iraq, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Nepal and Pakistan – further accentuate these disparities in secondary education.
- Countries with moderate disparities in favour of boys in primary education appear to have reduced them or filled the gap (some Arab States and several in Asia and the Pacific).
- Countries very close to parity or with low disparities in favour of girls at primary level tend to either fill the gap or reinforce the female advantage in secondary education. Latin America and Caribbean countries are the most pronounced examples, but some European countries also fall into this category, notably Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom.

These generalizations can also be adduced from Figure 2.22: at values of the primary GPI of up to 0.95 the secondary GPI has a lower value. For values of around unity for primary, those for secondary become higher, and the size of the gap increases with the value of the primary GPI.[21] Nevertheless, the first of the above points, which concerns countries with large disparities in favour of boys at primary level, may seem to

21. This relationship is very strong in each of the regions, with the exception of Latin American countries, where there is no significant relationship between primary and secondary GPIs. For this reason, LAC countries are not shown in the graph.

Figure 2.21. Gender parity indices for gross enrolment in primary and secondary education (2000)
(in increasing order of primary GPI within regions)



General note: See source tables for detailed country notes.
Source: Statistical annex, Tables 5 and 7.

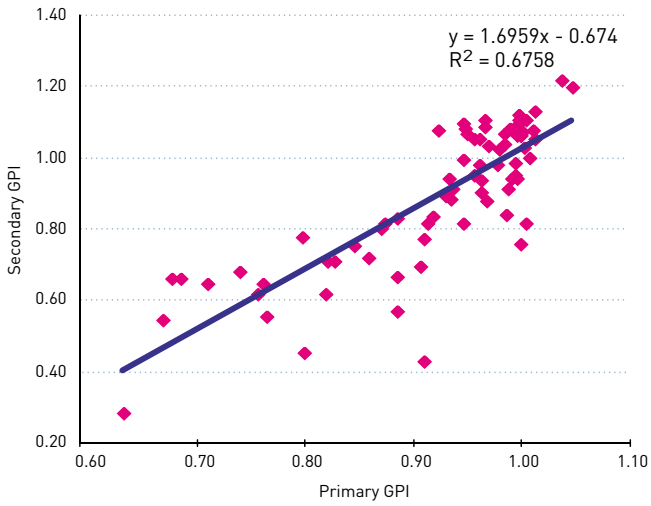
contradict the pattern emerging from Figure 2.19, which indicates that in such cases the transition rates to secondary school are closer to parity than the primary intake rates. There is, however, no necessary relationship between intake rates and enrolments across the system. It may be that, in low enrolment countries, strong discriminatory pressures appear during the secondary age-cycle, whereby economic circumstances and social and cultural values conspire to result in higher drop-out from schools among girls than boys (see Chapter 3).

Repetition and drop-out in secondary education[22]

As regards general secondary education, Figure 2.23 shows that boys repeat grades more frequently than girls. The main exceptions are in some countries in southern Africa, where girls outnumber boys in the schools, and in the West and Central African subregions, where gender disparities are most acute and where the girls who gain access to secondary schooling are probably less well-prepared academically (owing to more extensive home duties and greater absenteeism at primary level) than the boys.

22. It is difficult to assess the internal efficiency of the secondary-school cycle. The existence of various 'streams' at this level makes it difficult to follow the flow of a cohort from one grade to the next. Thus the only aspect of school efficiency that it is possible to analyse, based on UIS data, is the percentage of repeaters in secondary general education.

Figure 2.22. Developing countries, excluding Latin America and the Caribbean: relation between GPIs of primary and secondary gross enrolment ratios in 75 countries (2000)



Source: Statistical annex, Tables 5 and 7.

Although there are no internationally comparable data on rates of drop-out from secondary schooling, there is much evidence from household surveys concerning the different pressures on boys and girls, which lead to differential rates of drop-out. In general, the main reasons cited for boys dropping out, in both urban and rural areas, are economic factors – either connected with the need to look for a job, or to the difficulty of meeting school costs.

Pregnancy is often cited by girls as a motive for dropping out of school.

For girls, studies from Latin America indicate that 'family reasons' were given by girls as the first or second main factor determining their dropping out. Among such, pregnancy or motherhood was quoted by 33% of urban girls in Chile and 6% of those in Paraguay (compared with 20% and 3% in rural areas) and by 11% of urban girls in Venezuela. In the same surveys, the lack of schools is given as a motive for drop-out in rural areas more often by girls than by boys, indicating that the journey time to school is a more significant concern for parents in the case of their daughters than of their sons.[23]

23. For Latin American evidence see ECLAC (2002); African evidence is summarized in Colclough et al. (2003).

Technical and vocational education and their share in total secondary enrolment

Technical and vocational education is highly diverse, organized not only by ministries of education but also by other ministries (labour, health, agriculture) and by private authorities. This diversity of providers implies that data are patchy and that some – perhaps many – programmes are not included in the available international data. For these reasons, the data in Statistical annex Table 7 provide only a rough guide to the incidence of these types of education programme.

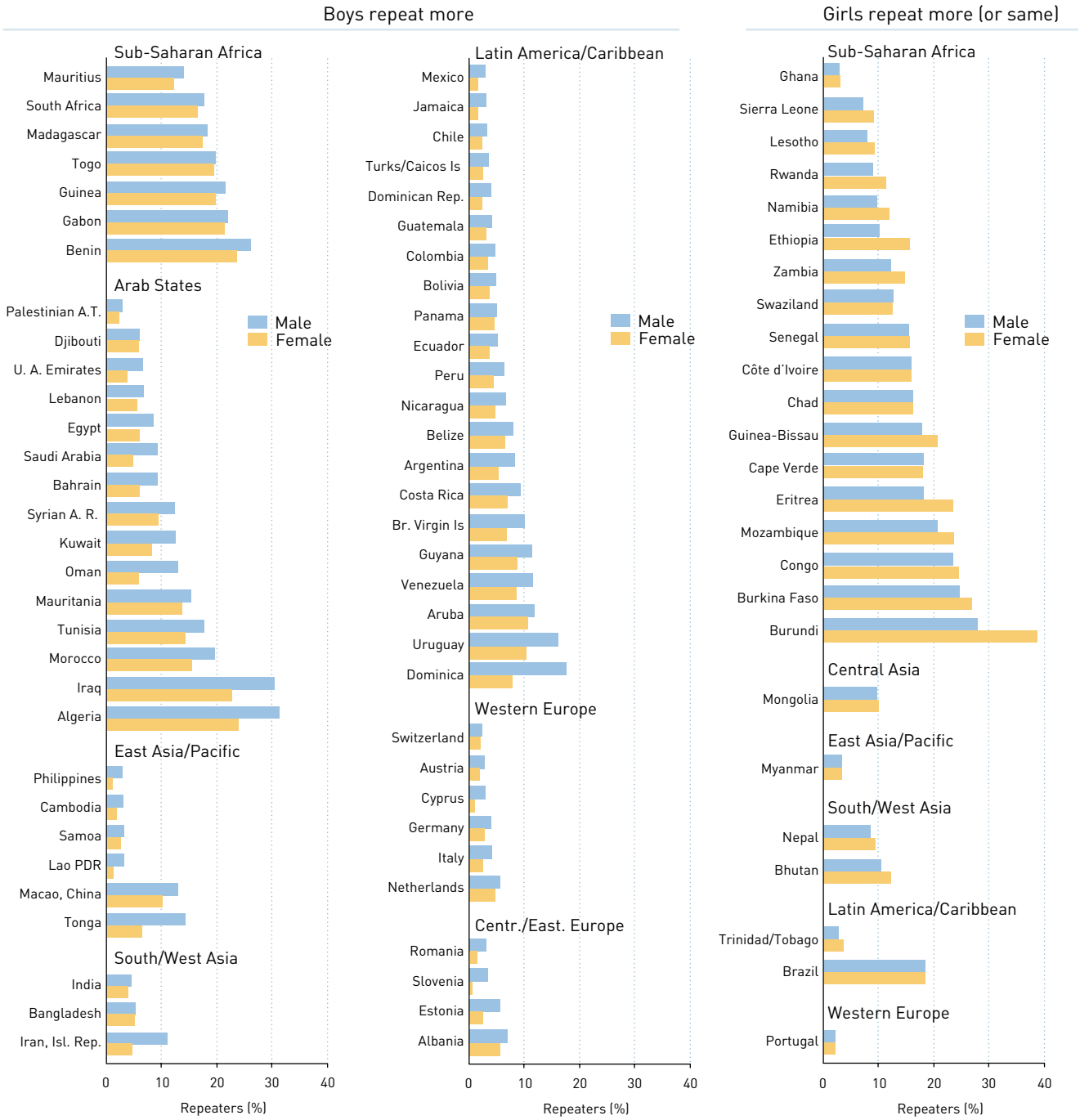
However, it is clear that enrolments in technical and vocational education are high in the more industrialized countries and most Central and Eastern European countries. Students in this track represent one-quarter or more in most of these countries, and almost half of total secondary enrolments in Australia and the United Kingdom. However, their share is significantly lower in developing countries. Only in Egypt, and some parts of the Caribbean (Netherlands Antilles, Panama and Suriname) are the figures close to or slightly above 30%.

With regard to former Soviet Union countries, historical trends available from other sources (UNICEF, 2002*a*), indicate that enrolment in technical and vocational education, having been quite significant until the end of the 1980s, declined drastically over the following decade.

Women in technical and vocational education

Table 7 in the Statistical annex provides a rough indication of the participation of women in technical and vocational education. This type of education includes many different fields of study – from teacher training in certain developing countries, to commercial studies (secretarial, accountant programmes) to more technical fields relating to industry and engineering. Thus, a global percentage of female enrolment in this type of education is not sufficient in itself to fully inform a discussion on female parity, let alone equality. For that, more comprehensive information, covering the different fields of study in which women and men tend to enrol, would be necessary.

Figure 2.23. Secondary general education: percentage of repeaters by gender (2000)
(not including countries with percentage repeaters below 2%, in increasing order of male repeaters)



General note: See source table for detailed country notes.
Source: Statistical annex, Table 7.

Box 2.6. Gender and vocational/technical studies in France

In France, despite increases of the female presence in most fields, there remains a traditional differentiation between 'masculine' and 'feminine' fields of study. In 2001 overall disparities were in favour of young women in upper secondary education, where women represented close to 54% of total enrolment. More disaggregated figures however show that their share was 58% in general education, 65% in scientific and technological education and 43% in the professional baccalaureate. These figures conceal great inequalities as regards programme orientation.

France: Percentage of female graduates in upper secondary education by programme orientation (1995–2001)

	Programme orientation / Type of baccalaureate								
	General			Scientific and technological				Professional baccalaureate	
Year	Sciences	Humanities	Economic and social	Administration	Industry	Laboratory	Socio-medical	Production	Services
1995	41.5	80.7	62.0	65.4	6.4	45.8	96.9	9.9	71.6
2001	44.5	83.0	64.6	65.2	7.9	45.8	96.0	10.2	70.1

More detailed data on programme orientation are available for graduates. As the table shows, in the professional baccalaureate, the female share is only 10.2% in production programmes, compared with 70.1% in service programmes (with close to 100% in health-related and secretarial courses). Even in general secondary education, girls are over-represented among humanities graduates (83%) and slightly under-represented in science programmes (44.5%). The proportion of girls is lowest in courses associated with higher labour market rewards: the scientific and technological baccalaureate, and in those with an industrial orientation (7.9%), whereas the medically and socially oriented studies are highly feminized at 96% of graduates. It should be mentioned that the proportion of girls is relatively higher among graduates than among enrollees because girls perform better than boys in all types of secondary examinations.

The French gender pattern of subject selection described above is found, in broad terms, in many other Western European countries.

Source: Ministère Français de l'Éducation Nationale (2002).

Female participation in vocational and technical training is lowest in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia.

Nevertheless the Statistical annex data show that, in all regions, female students in these programmes represent less than half of the total in most countries, with the exception of Latin America and the Caribbean where about half of the countries have more female than male students. On average, female participation in these programmes is lowest in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia, and greatest in Latin America and the Caribbean and the European countries.

As indicated above, information on enrolment in specific fields of study would be particularly interesting from a gender perspective, because the orientation of young people at this stage of the school process has an important bearing on their subsequent transition to the labour market and to professional life in general. Unfortunately this type of information is not produced systematically at international level.

With respect to earlier evidence, data for ninety countries in a UNESCO paper published in 1995 (UNESCO, 1995*b*) on female participation in technical and vocational education by field of study in 1980 and 1992 showed that while, on average, female participation represented 44% of enrolment in this type of education, women continued to represent at least two-thirds of the students in traditionally 'female' fields. These included commercial studies – very important in terms of total enrolments, especially in Asia and the Pacific and the Latin America and Caribbean regions – health programmes and home economics, with the latter markedly less significant in terms of total enrolment. Men represented at least three-quarters of enrolments in the broad field of 'industrial production and engineering' (as reflected in the more detailed and recent data for France in Box 2.6) and in agricultural programmes. Although the changes between the two reference years were not considered to be very important, there was a certain progression of women into more 'technical' fields, especially in European countries and the Arab States.

Post-secondary, non-tertiary education

In many countries, particularly those in the more developed regions, graduates from secondary education are offered education programmes which prepare for trade or for specific vocational fields. Usually these programmes last less than two years and straddle upper secondary and tertiary education levels. They are classified at Level 4 in the revised ISCED (see Box 2.5).

In most developing countries, ISCED Level 4 students seldom represent more than 10% of total enrolments in secondary education. Among countries with available data this is so in only two African countries (Seychelles and Sierra Leone), Bhutan, some Caribbean countries, and Belarus, Canada and the Russian Federation. Whereas OECD countries offer such programmes to upper secondary graduates in twenty-six cases out of thirty (OECD, 2002*b*, p. 218 and Table C1.1, p. 220), they are less frequently found in developing countries (about 40% of the total).

As regards female participation at this level, Annex Table 7 suggests that women are in the majority in one-quarter of sub-Saharan African countries, one-third of the Arab States, and about half of the countries in East Asia and the Pacific, South and West Asia and the transition and more industrialized countries. In Latin America and the Caribbean, female participation in these programmes exceeds that of men in all countries for which data are available – mostly in the Caribbean – with the exception of Grenada and Barbados.

Thus, women appear to be roughly at parity with men in terms of participation in post-secondary (non-tertiary) education. Again, it would be appropriate to know more about the types of programme in which men or women predominate: they are highly valued in the labour market and closely relevant to subsequent professional careers.

Women are at parity with men in terms of participation in post-secondary education.

Tertiary education and the gender goals

During the last decade, enrolments in higher education worldwide have continued to increase, from an estimated 69 million in 1990 to 88 million in 1997.[24] Total enrolment rose by about 50% in developing countries over those years (from 29 million to 43.4 million), while the increase was much slower in developed countries (up 13%, from 39.5 million to 44.8 million). Over this period, women continued to progress towards achieving parity with men. Their share in tertiary enrolment rose from 46% to 46.8% at the world level. In developing countries women registered the highest gains in absolute terms (an increase of 6.2 million, as against 3.5 million in developed countries), but in the developed countries their participation – already representing more than half of total enrolment (51.2% in 1990) – increased by 1.7 points, to reach 52.9% of total enrolment. It is likely that the overall trend observed from 1990 continued during more recent years.

Caution is necessary in comparing 2000 data with 1990 owing to changes introduced in ISCED 1997 (see Box 2.5). However, a rough comparison of 1990 and 2000 enrolment ratios in countries with comparable data seems to confirm an increase in the tertiary GER in practically all the countries having the data.

24. 1997 is the latest year for which estimates at the world level are available and comparable with past series. See UNESCO (1999, Table II.S.3).

Table 2.18. Tertiary education: grouping of countries according to gross enrolment ratio, by region (2000)
(in each box countries are listed in increasing order of GER)

Regions	Levels of GER				
	≤ 15%	15.1%-30%	30.1%-45%	45.1%-65%	Above 65%
Sub-Saharan Africa	Guinea-Bissau, Mozambique, Angola, Chad, Comoros, Burundi, Niger, Ethiopia, Eritrea, Rwanda, C.A.R., Madagascar, Sierra Leone, Zambia, Lesotho, Equatorial Guinea, Kenya, Uganda, Ghana, Benin, Togo, Zimbabwe, Botswana, Cameroon, Congo, Swaziland, Namibia, Mauritius (28)	South Africa (1)			
Arab States	Djibouti, Mauritania, Oman, Morocco, Iraq (5)	Tunisia, Saudi Arabia, Qatar, Palestinian A. T., Jordan (5)	Lebanon (1)	Libyan A. J. (1)	
Central Asia	Tajikistan (1)	Azerbaijan (1)	Kazakhstan, Mongolia, Georgia, Kyrgyzstan (4)		
East Asia and the Pacific	Cambodia, Lao PDR, Tonga, China, Viet Nam, Samoa, Myanmar, Indonesia (8)	Brunei Darussalam, Malaysia (2)	Palau, Philippines, Thailand (3)	Japan, Macao (China), Australia (3)	New Zealand, Rep. of Korea (2)
South and West Asia	Afghanistan, Nepal, Bangladesh, Isl. Rep. of Iran, India (5)				
Latin America and the Caribbean	Trinidad and Tobago, Honduras, Neth. Antilles (3)	Costa Rica, Jamaica, Brazil, Paraguay, El Salvador, Mexico, Colombia, Cuba, Venezuela, Aruba (10)	Panama, Bolivia, Uruguay, Chile, Barbados (5)	Argentina (1)	
North America and Western Europe	Luxembourg (1)	Cyprus, Malta (2)	Switzerland (1)	Ireland, Iceland, Italy, Portugal, Israel, France, Netherlands, Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Canada, Spain, United Kingdom, Greece (14)	Norway, Sweden, United States (3)
Central and Eastern Europe		Albania, Turkey, The FYR of Macedonia, Serbia and Montenegro, Romania, Rep. of Moldova, Czech Republic (7)	Slovakia, Croatia, Hungary, Bulgaria (4)	Lithuania, Poland, Belarus, Estonia, Slovenia, Latvia, Russian Federation (7)	
Total number of countries 128	51	28	18	26	5

Source: Statistical annex, Table 8.

Other sources using consistent data series report decreases in enrolments in several OECD countries since 1995 (e.g. France and Germany), owing to a decrease in population in the relevant age group, in Turkey (OECD, 2002*b*, p. 225) and, since 1990, in some countries of Central Asia (Armenia, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan) (UNICEF, 2002*a*, p. 77). The same sources report growth in other transition countries, particularly those in Central and Eastern Europe.

Table 2.18 shows the striking differences in overall levels of participation between industrialized, transitional and developing countries. While thirty-one countries, mainly from OECD and transitional Europe, have GERs at tertiary level above 45%, the great majority of developing countries have values below 30%, and almost two-thirds of them have ratios less than 15%.

No countries in sub-Saharan Africa (with the exception of South Africa) or South and West Asia have GERs higher than 15% – indeed all countries of sub-Saharan Africa, with the exceptions of Mauritius, Namibia and South Africa have the equivalent of fewer than 5% of the age group enrolled. In East Asia, too, a number

Table 2.19. Tertiary education: gender parity index of gross enrolment ratio (2000)

Higher male enrolment (50 countries)

Countries	GER GPI
Sub-Saharan Africa	
Congo	0.13
Eritrea	0.15
Chad	0.17
Guinea-Bissau	*0.18*
C. A. R.	*0.19*
Togo	*0.20*
Benin	*0.24*
Ethiopia	0.27
Niger	0.34
Burundi	0.36
Sierra Leone	0.40
Ghana	0.40
Equat. Guinea	*0.43*
Zambia	0.47
Rwanda	0.50
Uganda	0.52
Zimbabwe	0.60
Angola	*0.63*
Comoros	*0.73*
Kenya	0.77
Mozambique	0.79
Madagascar	0.84
Swaziland	0.87
Botswana	0.89
Arab States	
Mauritania	0.20
Iraq	*0.54*
Djibouti	0.70
Morocco	0.80
Palestinian A. T.	0.96
Libyan A. J.	0.96
Tunisia	0.97

Countries	GER GPI
Asia and the Pacific	
Central Asia	
Tajikistan	0.32
Georgia	0.99
Azerbaijan	0.99
East Asia and Pacific	
Cambodia	0.38
China	*0.52*
Rep. of Korea	0.59
Lao PDR	0.59
Viet Nam	0.74
Indonesia	0.77
Macao, China	0,84
Japan	0.85
South and West Asia	
Nepal	0.27
Bangladesh	0.55
India	*0.66*
Iran, Isl. Rep.	0.93
Latin America and the Caribbean	
Chile	0.92
Mexico	0.96
North America and West. Europe	
Switzerland	0.78
Central and Eastern Europe	
Turkey	0.73

Higher female enrolment (72 countries)

Countries	GER GPI
Sub-Saharan Africa	
South Africa	1.23
Namibia	*1.24*
Mauritius	1.36
Lesotho	1.76
Arab States	
Lebanon	1.09
Jordan	*1.14*
Saudi Arabia	*1.29*
Oman	1.40
Qatar	2.97
Asia and the Pacific	
Central Asia	
Kyrgyzstan	1.04
Kazakhstan	1.19
Mongolia	1.74
East Asia and Pacific	
Samoa	1.05
Malaysia	1.08
Thailand	1.11
Australia	1.24
Tonga	*1.28*
New Zealand	1.52
Myanmar	1.75
Palau	1.81
Latin America and the Caribbean	
Colombia	1.09
Cuba	1.14
Costa Rica	1.21
El Salvador	1.24
Brazil	1.29
Honduras	1.31
Paraguay	1.36
Neth. Antilles	1.38
Venezuela	1.46
Aruba	1.49
Trinidad/Tobago	1.53
Argentina	*1.64*
Panama	*1.67*
Uruguay	1.83
Jamaica	1.89

Countries	GER GPI
North America and West. Europe	
Netherlands	1.07
Greece	1.10
Austria	1.14
Spain	1.15
Belgium	1.16
Luxembourg	1.19
France	1.23
United Kingdom	1.27
Ireland	1.27
Malta	1.30
United States	1.32
Italy	1.32
Canada	1.34
Denmark	1.35
Cyprus	1.35
Portugal	1.37
Israel	1.39
Sweden	1.52
Norway	1.52
Iceland	1.74
Central and Eastern Europe	
Czech Republic	1.05
Slovakia	1.09
Croatia	1.14
Romania	1.20
Serbia/Montenegro	1.24
Hungary	1.27
Rep. of Moldova	1.29
Russian Fed.	1.29
Belarus	1.29
TFYR Macedonia	1.32
Slovenia	1.35
Bulgaria	1.35
Poland	1.44
Lithuania	1.51
Estonia	1.55
Latvia	1.65
Albania	1.69

General notes: See source table for detailed country notes. Shadowed countries are those with the highest disparities, i.e. those where the female GER is two-thirds the male GER or less, or those where the female GER is higher than the male GER by one-third or more.
Source: Statistical annex, Table 8.

of countries including Cambodia, China and Viet Nam have tertiary GERs lower than 10%.

Table 2.19 ranks countries within each region in increasing order of gender disparities – from the highest disparities in favour of men to the highest in favour of women. On the left are countries where male enrolment ratios are highest, and on the right those where females are ahead.

The priorities in Africa and South Asia are to increase the female share in tertiary education.

It appears from Statistical annex, Table 8 and Table 2.19 that female tertiary students outnumber males in 59% of the countries. However, in sub-Saharan Africa women are poorly represented at tertiary levels, except in some southern African countries, where they are in the majority. In the Arab States there are wide variations – from Mauritania, where women represent about two students out of ten, to Qatar, where the female GER is three times that of males. One explanation for this is that many male students from Qatar pursue their studies abroad. In several countries of Asia and the Pacific the female GER is less than two-thirds of the male GER. These are Cambodia, China, the Lao People's Democratic Republic and the Republic of Korea in East Asia; Bangladesh, India and Nepal in South and West Asia, and Tajikistan in Central Asia. There are however a number of countries where female enrolment exceeds male enrolment, sometimes significantly so – as in Mongolia, Myanmar, New Zealand and Palau. In Latin America and the Caribbean, female rates are generally higher than male rates. Finally, in almost all the countries of North America and Europe, female rates distinctly exceed male rates – often substantially so – with the exception of Switzerland and Turkey, where female enrolment ratios are roughly three-quarters those of males.

Thus, the gender balance of enrolments is somewhat different at tertiary levels than lower down the education system. Many countries have shifted from having a majority of male students to the balance being strongly in favour of women. The priorities in Africa and South Asia are to increase the female share. In many of the richer parts of the world, however, enrolments of men will need to increase significantly if parity at tertiary level is to be achieved.

Distribution of students by gender and type of programme

The decisions students make about their preferred tertiary studies can have a strong influence on their future lives, their jobs and the roles available to them in society. The gender composition of enrolments by level and by field of study is examined below.

As shown in Box 2.7, ISCED 1997 divides tertiary education into two stages, each of which includes distinctively different programmes. Data in Statistical annex Table 8 show that students in the first stage of tertiary education concentrate on programmes of type 5A, i.e. those which are theory-based. Programmes of type 5B, which are more practically oriented, designed for direct entry into the labour market, and usually of shorter duration, are generally less popular, accounting for about 20% of enrolments at this level worldwide. This reflects the labour market advantages of more theory-based studies of the type leading to traditional university degrees. However, there is considerable variation across countries, with students in 5B-type programmes accounting for about half, or more, of enrolments at this level in some countries.[25]

As expected, Level 6 programmes, which are oriented towards advanced studies and research, account for less than 1% of tertiary enrolments worldwide. Programmes at this level are most well established in the industrialized countries, where they account for about 5% of tertiary enrolments. In contrast, they do not exist, or are not reported, in many developing countries, particularly those in sub-Saharan Africa and the small islands of the Pacific and the Caribbean.

25. These include, *inter alia*, Belgium, China, Cyprus, Kenya, Malaysia, Mauritius, Namibia, Republic of Korea, Sierra Leone and Slovenia.

Box 2.7. Tertiary education: definition of ISCED Levels 5A, 5B and 6

5 FIRST STAGE OF TERTIARY EDUCATION

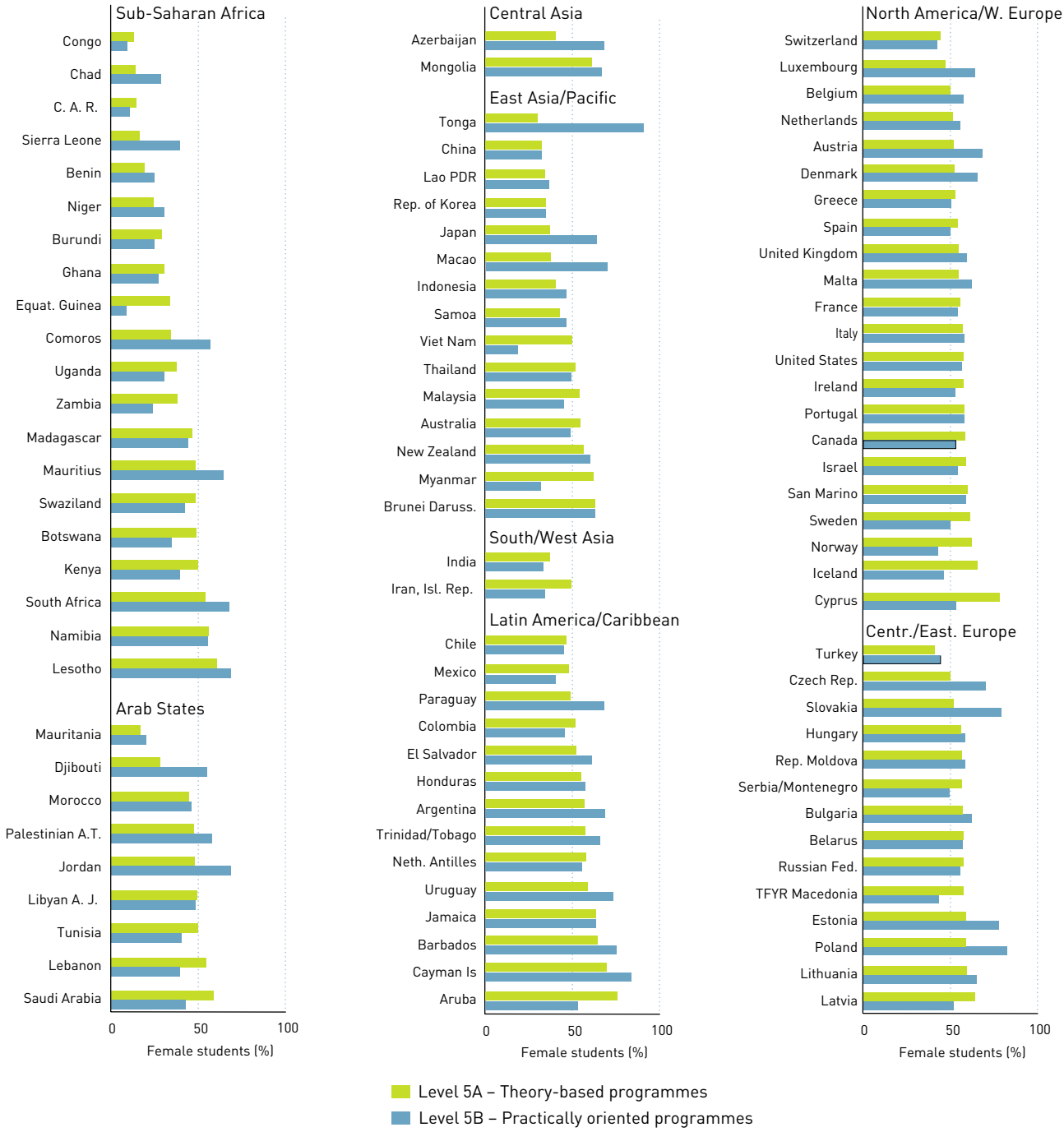
5A ISCED 5A programmes are largely theory-based and are intended to provide sufficient qualifications for gaining entry into advanced research programmes and professions with high skill requirements.

5B ISCED 5B programmes focus on practical, technical or occupational skills for direct entry into the labour market.

6 SECOND STAGE OF TERTIARY EDUCATION

Tertiary programmes at this level are devoted to advanced studies and original research. They lead to the award of an advanced research qualification.

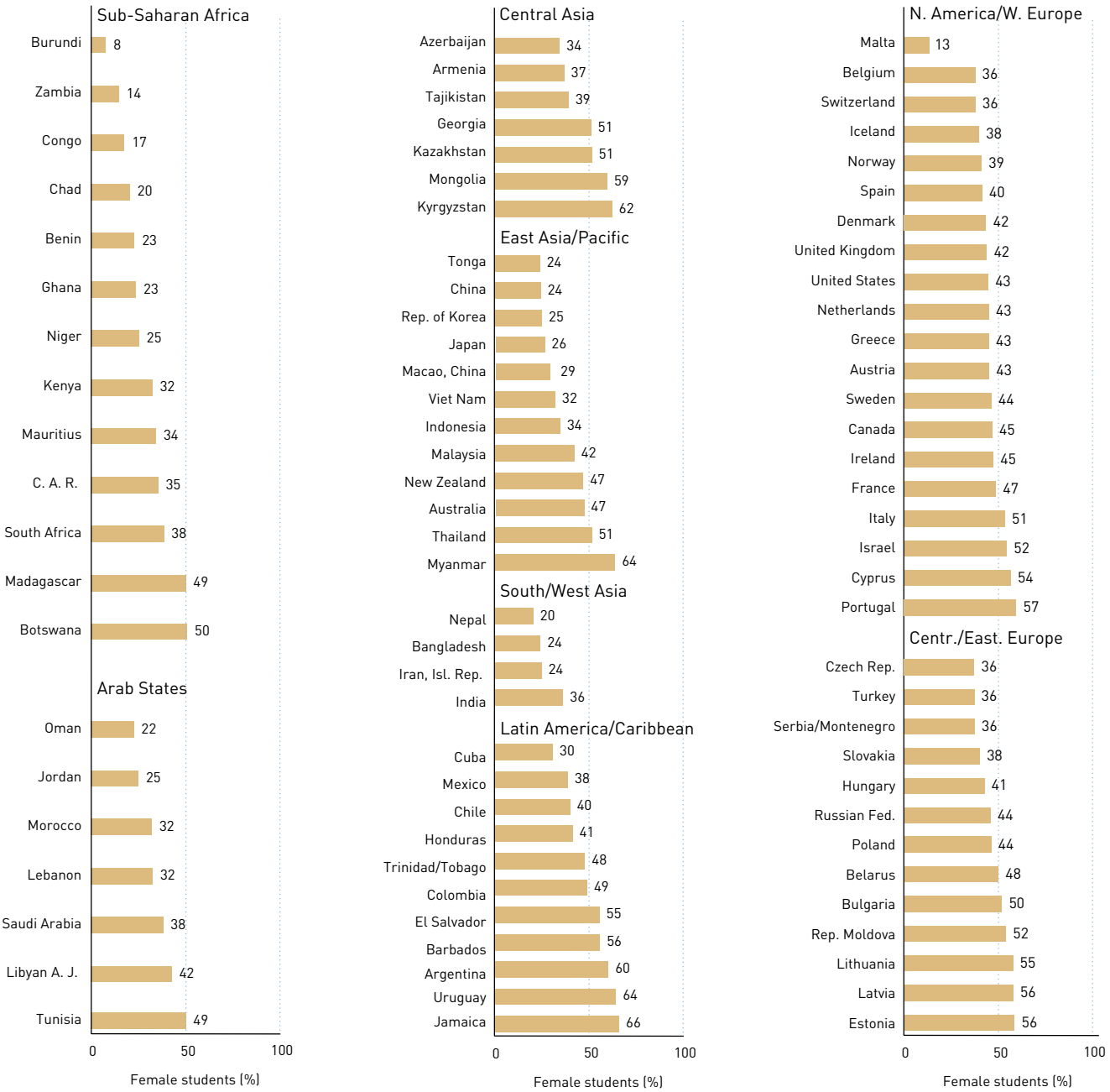
Figure 2.24. Tertiary education: ISCED Level 5 – percentage of female students in type A and type B programmes (2000)
(in increasing order of female percentage in type A programmes)



General note: See source table for detailed country notes.
Source: Statistical annex, Table 8.

Figure 2.24 indicates the extent of female participation in these two broad types of tertiary education programme. It shows that in sub-Saharan Africa, women are generally a minority in both of them, except in Lesotho, Mauritius and South Africa. Elsewhere, ratios are more balanced. However, women are more likely to outnumber men significantly in type B

Figure 2.25. Tertiary education: females as percentage of all students in advanced research programmes – ISCED Level 6 (2000)



General note: See source table for detailed country notes.
Source: Statistical annex, Table 8.

programmes (practically oriented programmes preparing for direct entry into the labour market). There are several examples of this pattern in each region. There are also many countries, especially in Latin America and the Caribbean, and North America and Western Europe, where women are in the majority in type A programmes as well. Nevertheless, the gender pattern in terms of career choice would be clearer if programmes could be examined not only in terms of level but also in terms of field of study within each level.

The situation is different as regards programmes preparing for advanced research qualifications (ISCED Level 6). Here, women are much more often in the minority – even in more industrialized countries (Figure 2.25). The exceptions are provided by about half of the countries shown in Latin America, the Caribbean and Central Asia, where women comprise the majority of Level 6 students, and by a quarter of the European countries shown.[26]

It may be concluded, that, although with wide variability between and within the different regions, there is a pattern whereby female participation in higher education tends to diminish as one moves from ISCED Level 5B (practically oriented programmes of shorter duration) to Level 5A (theory-based programmes) to Level 6 (advanced research programmes).

Female enrolment by field of study

The gender pattern in the selection of fields of study in tertiary education is a key issue in debates about gender equality. The question as to whether differences in this pattern reflect gender preferences or 'specialization', or whether they are a more direct result of cultural and social stereotypes, is one of the aspects of the debate (see discussion in Chapter 3). Analysis of the main gender patterns in the choices of, or orientation towards, specific fields of study is, therefore, essential to inform the debate.

The gender pattern in the choice of fields of study in tertiary education is a key issue in debates about gender equality.

Table 9 in the Statistical annex shows the distribution of enrolments among the different fields of study and the level of female participation in each field. In general, although the distribution changes across countries, the broad field of 'social sciences, business and law' attracts the largest number of enrolments (often more than one-third of the total) in almost all countries. It is generally followed by 'education' in sub-Saharan Africa and by 'humanities and arts' in many countries of the Asia and Pacific region, while 'engineering, manufacturing and construction' programmes come second in most

Table 2.20. Tertiary education: regional estimates of female participation in each broad field of study (1982 and 2000)

	Year	No. of countries	Total all fields	Fields of study				
				Education	Social sciences, Humanities, Services	Natural sciences and engineering	Agriculture	Health
			Percentage female					
Africa, incl. Arab States[1]	1981	26	31	40	32	19	26	37
Africa, incl. Arab States[1]	2000	12	38	32	42	27	20	46
Asia, incl. Arab States[2]	1982	25	29	53	31	16	14	36
Asia, incl. Arab States[2]	2000	13	43	61	49	23	35	61
Oceania[3]	1982	2	45	68	49	22	25	56
Oceania[3]	2000	2	55	77	58	30	43	76
Mexico	1982	1	36	53	44	14	23	47
Mexico	2000	1	49	66	55	30	28	61
Europe[4]	1982	28	45	69	52	24	34	55
Europe[4]	2000	23	55	75	59	30	47	74

1. Data for both years exclude Nigeria.
2. Data for both years exclude Bangladesh and China. Those for 2000 also exclude India and Pakistan.
3. Data refer to Australia and New Zealand in both years.
4. Not including the former Soviet Union, or its constituent countries.

Sources: 1982 data: UNESCO (1985). 2000 data: Statistical annex, Table 9.

26. It should be recalled that these proportions often refer to a comparatively low enrolment.

Female presence is weakest in engineering, manufacturing and construction courses and in science and agriculture.

countries of Latin America and the Caribbean, North America and Europe. The fields 'health and welfare' and 'science' follow, in this order, for most countries, while the lowest enrolments are reported in 'agriculture' and 'services' programmes (accounting for less than 5% of the total in most countries).

As regards female participation, Statistical annex Table 9 shows that women are most numerous in the field of education, where they often represent three-quarters or more of enrolments, especially in industrialized and transition countries. Sub-Saharan Africa is an exception, however: in only three countries (Botswana, Mauritius and Swaziland) do women account for more than half of the total enrolments in education programmes. In most of the other regions the second field chosen by women is health and welfare, where women often represent between two-thirds and three-quarters of the students. Again, sub-Saharan Africa is an exception, where the proportion of women exceeds 50% in only four countries (Angola, Botswana, Madagascar and Swaziland) – perhaps because many health-related programmes are provided at ISCED Level 5B, in the form of short programmes of professional orientation. The next most frequent choice for women is humanities and arts. In contrast, female presence is weakest in engineering, manufacturing and construction courses and in science and agriculture. The first of these is widely variable, often being around 20% in North America and Western Europe, but higher in transition countries.

Notwithstanding these variations, women have undoubtedly made enormous progress in scientific and technological disciplines over the last few decades. Table 2.20 shows rough estimates of the weighted average female participation rates in the various fields of study for 2000. These values have been compared with the regional averages obtained for the same regions in 1982 (UNESCO, 1985).

The data must be used with caution as the countries included in the regional groupings are often not exactly the same for the two years. Moreover, it was not always possible to identify exactly the countries included in the 1982 figures. For Latin America and the Caribbean, Mexico was the only populous country with comparable data available for 2000.

Nevertheless, even if the table has only illustrative value, it strongly suggests that the female presence has increased everywhere, with the exception of the fields of education and agriculture in Africa. Women have continued to progress in their traditional fields, such as social sciences, humanities, services and health-related programmes. However progress has also occurred in natural sciences and engineering and – outside Africa – in agriculture. It would, of course, be necessary to examine more detailed statistics to determine in which particular disciplines women made most gains and where they still lag behind.

Foreign students

The rapidly increasing international circulation of goods, people and knowledge has reinforced the demand for study abroad. This reflects the wish of young students, both from developing and developed countries, to broaden their knowledge and skills, sometimes encouraged by there being limited educational provision at home. Host countries receive direct benefits from tuition fees paid by foreign students and sometimes from increased scale economies in tertiary education services. In addition, useful links with the elite of developing countries may stem from supplying such programmes to foreign youth. There may be benefits to the sending countries too – but usually only if the students return home. However, students are often able to work and stay in host countries long after their studies are completed. This 'brain drain' brings considerable costs to many of the sending countries concerned.

Data on foreign students are reported by sixty-seven countries, and data by gender by forty-seven of these. Some developed countries accommodate a substantial number of foreign students. Five of them (Australia, France, Germany, the United Kingdom and the United States) are reported to receive just over two-thirds of all such students (Statistical annex, Table 8).

It has been shown that women often represent the majority of tertiary students in industrialized countries. However, among foreign students the overall proportion of women is somewhat lower (45.5%). In the two major host countries, the United States and the United Kingdom, the proportion of female foreign students is 42% and 48% respectively (which compares with 56% and 55%, respectively, among their total student populations). In other words, young women pursue foreign study less frequently than their male colleagues.

It would be useful to know more about the gender composition of foreign students by country of origin, but no such statistics are yet available. The analysis of more qualitative factors that determine the decision to study abroad (family and social factors, academic support or counselling) or that attract selectively male or female students (particular disciplines, social and cultural environment of certain host countries) would also be helpful.

The rapidly increasing international circulation of goods, people and knowledge has boosted the demand for study abroad.

Learning programmes for life skills and literacy

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

Goal 4. Achieving a 50% improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults.

Monitoring enrolment is less complex than monitoring outcomes.

Goal 4, on adult literacy, cannot easily be excluded from the discussion about Goal 3. This is, first, because the learning programmes for youth and adults in which literacy skills are enhanced often embrace skills also addressed by Goal 3. Second, there is a question as to how 'life skills' (to which the text of Goal 3 refers), relate to literacy skills. Are literacy skills a subset of life skills? Or should they be regarded as separate? Finally, there are questions about literacy rates as such. What precisely do they measure, and to what extent can they be seen as an expression of countries' policies regarding adult learning?

This section first discusses these conceptual and methodological issues. It then examines data regarding literacy among youth and adults, mindful of the caveats mentioned earlier, and concludes with a review of learning programmes with some emphasis on those that are specially targeted at young and adult women. Chapter 4 discusses some of these programmes in more detail.

Monitoring Goals 3 and 4

Box 2.8 discusses various interpretations of the term 'life skills', and suggests a way of 'unpacking' it. The box shows that there are strong links between Goals 3 and 4 regarding the *learning programmes* in which the various skills can be acquired. On the other hand these *skills as such* are treated distinctly in the Dakar Framework of Action. This is indicated in Box 2.9, which maps the kind of sources and indicators that are needed to monitor Goals 3 and 4. It also explains why most of the necessary indicators are currently scarce or unreliable.

When comparing the data situation in the upper half of Box 2.9 (access to learning programmes) with that in the lower half (skills or other outcome measures), the former area seems the more promising in the medium term for monitoring progress on Goals 3 and 4. LAMP will take time to spread its new methodology from the few pilot countries to a greater area, while internationally comparable data on generic and especially 'contextual' skills are likely to remain very scarce for some time.

The gathering of basic information about enrolment in learning programmes seems feasible. Monitoring enrolment is genuinely less complex than monitoring outcomes, in that it does not require consensus-building regarding universal (as opposed to culture-specific) definitions of competences, operationalization and development of test items.

Perhaps more importantly, the outcomes of monitoring 'equitable access' – as Goals 3 and 4 both put it – can be linked to policy development without too much ambiguity. Once a country has some overview of which groups are enrolled in which kind of programme, there will also be an indication of under-enrolment and exclusion among other groups. Policies can then be adjusted.

For literacy rates (and for measures of other skills), the link with policy is much more ambiguous. If a person is literate, this can be a result of having attended primary education; of having participated in a learning programme for youth and adults; or of having acquired literacy skills informally. Illiteracy can be a result of not having attended school or a learning programme; of having attended a school or programme of poor quality; or of having lost the skills over time. Literacy rates as such do not provide information about these underlying causes.

Only 'genuine' literacy data, based on direct assessment and supported by information on the 'educational history' of the individual, will overcome such problems. In the absence of such data and of macro-level information on access to learning programmes, this report will continue with the two-tiered approach it chose in 2002:

- to analyse trends in literacy rates, mindful of the caveats highlighted above (lower right cell of Box 2.9);
- to identify and describe learning programmes for youth and adults in a more qualitative way, combining Goals 3 and 4 (upper half of Box 2.9).

Box 2.8. Life skills

The term 'life skills' is currently used by many governments, organizations and individual authors. It has become an important element in the discourse on learning and development. In various empirical applications of the term, a certain dissatisfaction with regular education as being too theoretical is evident, as well as a wish to make education and learning programs more relevant to the lives of children and adults. Education and learning programs are thought by some people to have focused too strongly on the cognitive elements ('learning to know' as the Delors Commission put it – UNESCO, 1996). Other dimensions of learning are said to deserve more attention, such as learning to apply knowledge and skills; learning to co-operate with other groups; and learning to develop oneself as an autonomous person. The Delors Commission and the DeSeCo project (Rychen and Salganik, 2001; OECD, 2002*a*) each articulated this broader notion of learning, even if their terminology and conclusions are not quite identical.

While this critique of educational practice may be widely acknowledged, there is little agreement on what life skills means. Indeed, it has no central place in the work of either the Delors Commission or the DeSeCo project.

The term appears to be used in one of the following five ways, sometimes combining some of the categories.

- The term 'life skills' is often used to capture skills such as problem-solving, working in teams, networking, communicating, negotiating, etc. Their generic nature – their importance throughout life, in varying contexts – is held in common with literacy skills. Sometimes these generic skills are therefore referred to as the 'fourth box', in addition to the three main components of literacy: reading, writing and numeracy. These generic skills are seldom, if ever, acquired in isolation from other skills.
- The term life skills is also often used to refer to skills needed in daily life that are strongly connected to a certain context. Examples are livelihood skills, health skills, skills related to gender and family life, and environmental skills. These can be termed 'contextual skills', while accepting that skills are in practice never purely contextual or purely generic. Moreover, these contextual skills seldom exist in isolation from certain generic and literacy skills. Thus, to sustain a livelihood may not only require practical skills such as the ability to grow crops or to repair equipment, but also a generic skill such as negotiation, and a literacy skill such as numeracy. It is also in the *acquisition* of these contextual skills that the links with other types of skill are important (Oxenham et al., 2002; Oxenham, 2003), not least when women are the target group (Robinson-Pant, 2003).
- Because of these links, some see the contextual skills as composite skills that *include* generic and literacy skills. This is expressed in the use of terms such as legal literacy, family literacy, health literacy, money literacy, environmental literacy, visual literacy and, tautological as it may seem, word literacy (Hanemann, 2003). However, this notion of multiple literacies tends to undervalue the 'common denominator of skills involved in reading and writing, and the fact that these skills will be of special importance because it is their applicability to a wider variety of situations that makes them basic (Lauglo, 2001). For reasons of measurement and monitoring it seems important to distinguish generic and literacy skills from contextual skills, notwithstanding the benefits of linking the three in the praxis of skills acquisition.
- The term life skills is also used in the school context. Here, the term is used to refer to any subject matter other than language or mathematics, e.g. science and technology, civic sense, community development, health, nutrition, HIV/AIDS and related behavior.
- Finally, one finds other miscellaneous skills being referred to as life skills, such as cooking, making friends and crossing the street.

It can be concluded that generic and 'contextual' skills are the more important and robust subsets of skills among those that are usually referred to as life skills. There is merit in distinguishing these from one another and from literacy skills, while acknowledging the links between the three in practice.

Source: 'Understanding Goal 3'. Analysis by the EFA Global Monitoring Report Team (to be posted on the Report's website).

Box 2.9. Sources and indicators for monitoring Goals 3 and 4

	Goal 3	Goal 4
Monitoring access to learning programs	Given the fact that learning programs for youth and adults often address literacy as well as other skills, the monitoring of access to these programs could be one and the same activity for both goals. Information is needed on aspects such as: • demand for, enrolment in and target groups of these programs; • providers (e.g. government, communities, NGOs, private providers), initiators and longevity of the programs; • duration, costs and fees; • content, learning objectives and themes. The NFE-MIS project has been initiated to address such information needs in the future. The shorter term processes such as the CONFINTEA Mid-Term Review are crucially important (www.unesco.org/education/uie/activities/CONFVReviewindex.shtml), as are regional initiatives such as the Shadow Report by the International Council for Adult Education (www.icae.org.uy/icaepdfs/table.pdf). But at present, any indications of the *scale* of learning programs relative to the size of the adult population are lacking. Case studies are still the only sources. Although these often contain figures on enrolment, they cannot be used to construct a picture at macro-level, nor help to identify excluded groups. For secondary and tertiary education, and for the vocational courses and studies within these, official enrolment statistics can be used.	
Monitoring acquisition of skills or other outcomes	Measures of life skills: • Generic skills. Some internationally comparable measures will be available in the near future from the Adult Literacy and Life Skills Survey (www.ets.org/all). But a low coverage among developing countries in such surveys is foreseen for the medium term. • 'Contextual' skills. Some national measures are available (see UNESCO, 2002*a*, Box 2.7). Proxy measures are also available such as the number of certificates issued or the number of learners who find a job. But internationally comparable outcome measures are less feasible because of the context-specific nature of these skills. Secondary and tertiary education: • Completion and graduation rates can be used as outcome measures.	Literacy rates: • These have a relatively high coverage among developing countries. • But the validity of literacy rates is questioned. Often, literacy rates are based on self-proclaimed literacy, or on the assumption that an individual is literate when he or she has completed a certain number of years of basic education. From various school surveys it can be concluded that this assumption is too optimistic. • An important initiative to improve data on literacy is therefore the Literacy Assessment and Monitoring Programme (LAMP). Starting in a small number of pilot countries, LAMP will seek to introduce and expand a new methodology for literacy assessment (see Box 2.10).

Literacy rates

It is estimated that in 2000 there were 862 million illiterates in the world. This represented a reduction of about 2% over the decade, and a further reduction (around 7%) is expected by 2015 (Table 2.21).

At present, almost half of the world's illiterates live in South and West Asia. Their numbers are still increasing, and mainly reflect the situation of Bangladesh, India and Pakistan. The East Asia and the Pacific region accounts for almost a further quarter. However, the number of illiterates in China fell by 22% between 1990 and

Box 2.10. Literacy Assessment and Monitoring Programme (LAMP)

LAMP seeks to specify what literacy is and to improve its measurement, in order to inform policy-making at the national and international level, and to support the design of literacy programmes.

Most national literacy statistics, such as those used in this report, are based on a mix of self-declarations and on educational attainment proxies. These measures can be unreliable. Declaration by an individual or by a household head is subject to bias, and many children complete primary school without acquiring the ability to read.

Furthermore, some of these statistics are based on the current UNESCO definition that literacy is the ability to read and write, with understanding, a short simple statement relate to one's daily life. However it is now recognized that the concept of literacy embraces a continuum of skills, in a variety of dimensions, at different levels of mastery and for different purposes. Indeed, is a person who can only sign literate? What about someone who is familiar with medication names but who struggles with reading a short story?

LAMP will build a broader notion of literacy. It will develop a methodology, currently being tested in a small number of countries, to measure skills directly through assessments. It aims to provide participating countries with literacy data of high quality. Using a framework of five levels of mastery, LAMP is compatible with the International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS) that has been undertaken in industrialized countries. This common framework is intended to become a world standard for literacy assessment.

However, this standard differs from the current 'dichotomous' measures – imposed by the data presently available – by which people are designated literate or illiterate. Given the change in methodology it will not be possible to make direct comparisons between LAMP results and current data. Retrospective estimates will be used to assess the progress of the participating countries against Goal 4. But comparisons with countries not using the LAMP methodology will require even more caution.

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (www.uis.unesco.org).

Table 2.21. Estimated number of adult illiterates – population aged 15 and over (1990, 2000 and 2015)

	Adult illiterates (15+)						Percentage change	
	1990		2000		2015			
	Total (thousands)	% F	Total (thousands)	% F	Total (thousands)	% F	1990 to 2000	2000 to 2015
World	879 130	63	861 966	64	799 152	63	-2.0	-7.3
Developed and transition countries	21 970	70	14 895	67	7 521	61	-32.2	-49.5
Developing countries	857 159	63	847 071	64	791 631	64	-1.2	-6.5
of which:								
Sub-Saharan Africa	131 380	61	135 980	61	132 844	61	3.5	-2.3
Arab States	62 400	63	67 473	64	70 803	64	8.1	4.9
East Asia and the Pacific	232 904	69	186 404	71	114 123	73	-20.0	-38.8
South and West Asia	382 151	60	412 242	61	436 704	62	7.9	5.9
Latin America and the Caribbean	41 932	56	39 254	56	33 055	54	-6.4	-15.8

Source: Statistical annex, Table 2.

2000. Owing to an expected further fall of around 43% by 2015, it is expected that, by that date, sub-Saharan Africa will have more illiterates among its population than East Asia and the Pacific.

The traditional UNESCO definition of literacy (see Box 2.12), still adhered to in many national population censuses, is somewhat outdated today when more and more countries are interested in collecting data on different levels of literacy skills according to their own national cultural, linguistic and educational contexts.

Table 2.22. Estimated adult literacy rate (population aged 15 and over) by gender, and gender parity index (1990, 2000 and 2015)

	1990				2000				2015			
	Literacy rates (%)			GPI	Literacy rates (%)			GPI	Literacy rates (%)			GPI
	Total	Male	Female	F/M	Total	Male	Female	F/M	Total	Male	Female	F/M
World	75.3	81.7	68.9	0.84	79.7	85.2	74.2	0.87	85.0	89.0	81.0	0.91
Developed and transition countries	97.7	98.5	96.9	0.98	98.6	99.0	98.1	0.99	99.3	99.4	99.2	1.00
Developing countries	67.0	75.9	57.9	0.76	73.6	81.0	66.1	0.82	81.3	86.5	76.1	0.88
of which:												
Sub-Saharan Africa	49.2	59.3	39.5	0.67	60.3	68.9	52.0	0.75	73.9	79.7	68.2	0.86
Arab States	50.2	63.8	35.8	0.56	60.1	71.7	47.8	0.67	71.7	80.1	62.9	0.79
East Asia and the Pacific	80.3	88.1	72.2	0.82	86.6	92.5	80.6	0.87	93.3	96.5	90.1	0.93
South and West Asia	47.5	59.7	34.5	0.58	55.3	66.4	43.6	0.66	65.6	74.5	56.3	0.76
Latin America and the Caribbean	85.1	86.8	83.4	0.96	88.9	89.9	87.9	0.98	92.9	93.2	92.5	0.99

Source: Statistical annex, Table 2.

Box 2.11. Interpreting the literacy goal

The goal set out in the Dakar Framework for Action of improving the literacy rates (LR) by 50%, means that in the case of countries where LR_{2000} exceeds 66.7%, achievement of the goal would seem to require an LR_{2015} of more than 100%. Thus, the target should be defined as requiring an increase of 50% for countries where LR_{2000} is ≤ 66.7%. However, in countries where LR_{2000} is > 66.7%, the target would be set at LR_{2015} = 100%.

The Jomtien formulation of the corresponding goal was: *Reduction of the adult illiteracy rate (the appropriate age group to be determined in each country) to, say, one-half its 1990 level by the year 2000….* This is not the same as increasing literacy rates by 50%. The Jomtien formulation was less ambiguous than its successor, because the target was equally relevant for all countries. Nevertheless, it implied the need for much greater efforts by the countries with the greatest proportions of illiterates among their populations. This unfortunate implication was successfully amended by the Dakar formulation of the goal.

Box 2.12. Traditional UNESCO definitions of literacy

Literacy

A person is literate who can, with understanding, both read and write a short simple statement on his or her everyday life.

Functional literacy

A person is functionally literate who can engage in all those activities in which literacy is required for effective function of his or her group and community and also for enabling him or her to continue to use reading, writing and calculation for his or her own and the community's development.

Source: UIS website. unescostat.unesco.org

Moreover, the methods of self-declaration and declaration on behalf of others, which are used in some censuses, are subject to bias.

Table 2.22 shows adult literacy rates. Progress has been extremely slow. In sub-Saharan Africa and the Arab States, they increased by about 20% over the decade to 2000. Elsewhere, increases were much less. Thus, on the basis of past trends and demographic expectations, the increases in literacy rates to 2015 are likely to be much less than 50%, even in those regions where rates are currently lower than 66.7%.[27]

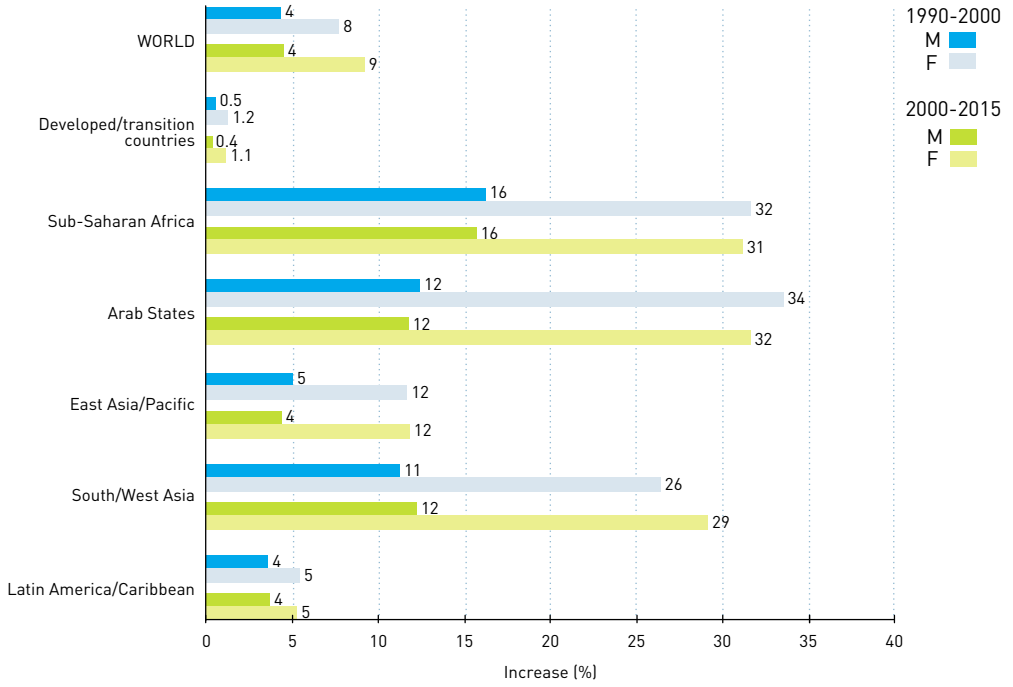
The increases represented in Figure 2.26 are the differences in literacy rates between the initial year and the final year, expressed as a percentage of the literacy rate in the initial year, i.e. the relative increase mentioned in the Dakar goal (see Box 2.11).

The increases in literacy rates have been, and are expected to remain, significantly and consistently higher for women than for men. However even for women, Figure 2.26 shows that regional literacy rates grew between 1990 and 2000, by at most one-third (in sub-Saharan Africa and the Arab States). Projected increases to 2015 (on the basis of past trends) do not, at present, exceed these values – although changes in national policies and the introduction of stronger literacy programmes could obviously affect those outcomes.

It can be seen that women account for almost two-thirds of the world's illiterates. This ratio is fairly stable across most regions, with the exception of Latin America and the Caribbean where they comprise a small majority of the total

27. These judgements are based on forecasts made by the UIS in 2002, essentially using literacy rates by gender and by age group obtained during national population censuses and household surveys, applying a methodology developed by UNESCO in 1994. For a description of the methodology used see UNESCO (1995*b*). Available on UIS website. unescostat.unesco.org

Figure 2.26. Percentage increases in adult literacy rate, by gender (from 1990 to 2000 and from 2000 to 2015)



Note: The world total also includes developed countries and countries in transition, where the increase in literacy rates has been very low, because the levels of literacy are estimated to be close to universal.
Source: Statistical annex, Table 2.

(Figure 2.27). Projections suggest that these proportions will remain fairly stable, except in East Asia and the Pacific, where women may comprise up to three-quarters of the total by 2015.

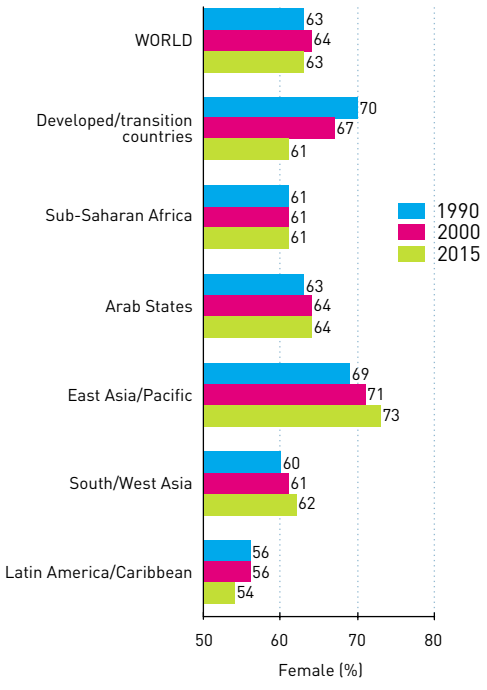
On the other hand, demographic characteristics strongly influence these statistics. Most notably, as women live longer than men, they make up the majority of the population in the older age groups, where illiteracy levels are highest. Accordingly, the GPI provides a better measure of gender disparities in rates of illiteracy than do head count comparisons.

Youth literacy

School enrolments have a potent impact on rates of illiteracy for the younger age groups, but not for older generations where illiteracy incidence is greatest.

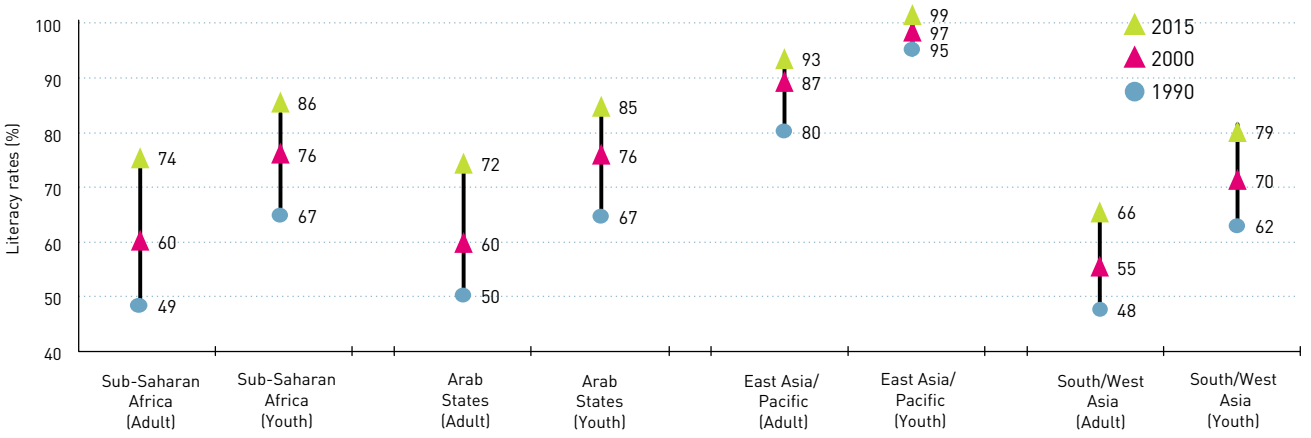
Figure 2.28 shows the extent to which the values of literacy rates are consistently higher among the 15–24 age group, in the four regions with the lowest levels of adult literacy. In East Asia and the Pacific, it can be seen that almost all the youth population is already literate.

Figure 2.27. Percentage of females among adult illiterates, by region (1990, 2000 and 2015)



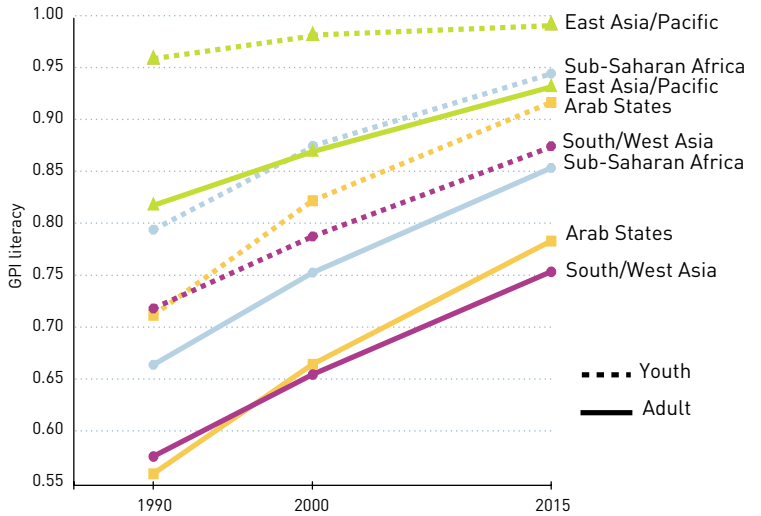
Source: Statistical annex, Table 2.

Figure 2.28. Estimated literacy rates, for adults and youth, in four selected regions (1990, 2000 and 2015)
(adults: age 15 and over; youth: age group 15–24)



Source: Statistical annex, Table 2.

Figure 2.29. Gender parity indices for adult and youth literacy rates (1990–2015)



Source: Statistical annex, Table 2.

Figure 2.29 shows that, in these same regions, adult literacy rates are moving towards gender parity – led by the impact of schooling on literacy rates and gender ratios for those aged 15–24. Although at present it seems that parity will not be reached on average in the four regions with the highest disparities, all are expected to exceed values of 0.85 for the GPI of youth literacy by 2015.

Situation at country level

Literacy rates in developed and transition countries are generally well above 95%, with very few exceptions. They are also generally high throughout much of Latin America and the Caribbean.

Figure 2.30 indicates the current levels of adult literacy rates by gender for countries in which three-quarters, or less, of the population were literate in the year 2000. It shows that literacy

Table 2.23. Nine countries with high illiteracy: trends and projections to 2015

	Adult literacy rates					Adult illiterates				
	%			% changes		(millions)			% changes	
	1990	2000	2015	1990 to 2000	2000 to 2015	1990	2000	2015	1990-2000	2000-2015
Bangladesh	34.2	40.0	47.2	16.9	17.9	41.9	50.6	64.9	20.6	28.4
Brazil	82.0	86.9	91.8	5.9	5.6	17.4	15.9	12.5	-8.5	-21.4
China	78.3	85.2	92.9	8.8	9.1	181.3	141.9	80.5	-21.7	-43.3
Egypt	47.1	55.3	65.9	17.4	19.2	17.9	19.6	21.0	9.8	7.3
Ethiopia	28.6	39.1	56.4	36.7	44.2	18.8	21.0	21.8	11.6	3.7
India	49.3	57.2	67.9	16.0	18.7	272.4	287.0	288.4	5.3	0.5
Indonesia	79.5	86.8	93.6	9.2	7.8	23.9	19.4	12.1	-19.0	-37.5
Nigeria	48.7	64.0	81.4	31.6	27.2	23.7	22.5	18.0	-5.1	-20.0
Pakistan	35.4	43.2	55.3	22.1	28.1	41.2	46.7	56.2	13.4	20.3

Source: Statistical annex, Table 2.

rates were below 40% in some countries of sub-Saharan Africa (Benin, Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, the Gambia, Guinea-Bissau, Mali, the Niger and Senegal) and Iraq. It can also be seen that substantial gender gaps, to the disadvantage of women, exist in all the countries shown: the GPI is below 0.50 in a number of them (Benin, Burkina Faso, Guinea-Bissau, Iraq, Mali, Mozambique, Nepal, the Niger, Pakistan and Yemen), indicating female literacy rates of half the male rates or less. The only exceptions are in four Central American countries, which report rates slightly in favour of women.

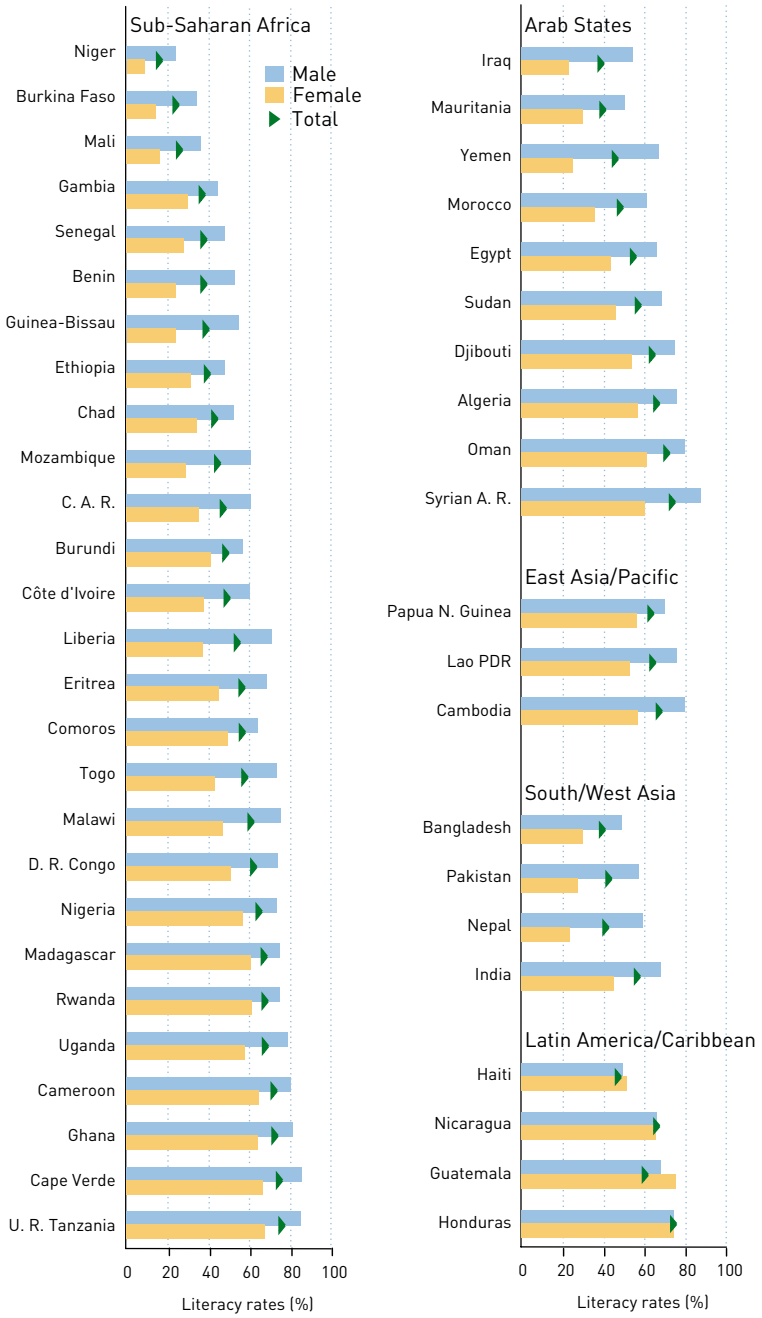
Table 2.23 presents estimated literacy levels as well as recent and projected trends for the nine countries with the largest numbers of illiterates.

China has seen an important decrease in the number of illiterates between 1990 and 2000 and this is expected to decrease further from 2000 to 2015. Its literacy rates are expected to improve from 85% in 2000 to 93% in 2015. Literacy rates have improved everywhere, particularly in Ethiopia and Nigeria (by 37% and 32%, respectively) and this trend is expected to continue through 2015. Despite the general improvement, the number of illiterates has continued to grow in Bangladesh, Egypt, Ethiopia, India and Pakistan, although a stabilization is projected for India by 2015 (Goujon and McNay, 2003). Their numbers have, however, declined in Brazil, Indonesia and Nigeria, sometimes quite considerably.

Figure 2.31 shows the youth literacy situation for the countries where adult literacy rates are 75% or less. It shows that, even for the younger generation, literacy is at a critically low level for a number of countries and is not expected to become universal by 2015, despite current efforts in many of these countries to expand primary education.

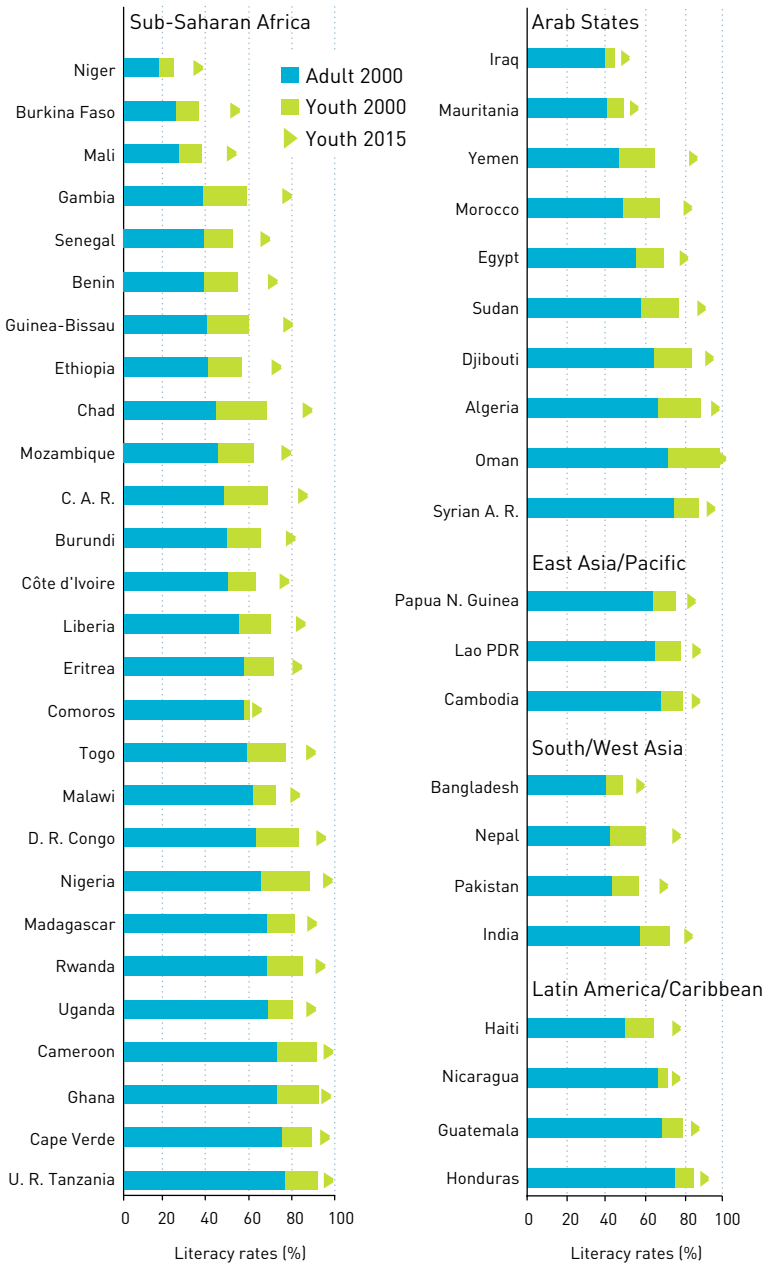
Figure 2.32 gives an insight into past and possible future improvements in gender parity for literacy. It shows the GPIs in adult literacy in 1990 and 2000 and those for 2015, estimated by projecting past trends of literacy rates, i.e. assuming that policy and context do not change. Only countries where the situation was most critical in 1990 (GPI of 0.75 and below) are included.

Figure 2.30. Adult literacy rate by gender (2000)
(not including countries with overall literacy rates above 75%)



Source: Statistical annex, Table 2.

Figure 2.31. Estimated adult and youth literacy rates (2000), and projections of youth literacy rate to 2015
(not including countries with overall adult literacy rate above 75%; in increasing order of adult literacy rate)



Source: Statistical annex, Table 2.

Significant progress towards gender parity can be seen during the last decade. Most noteworthy is that registered in Burundi, the Central Africa Republic, Chad, Oman, Saudi Arabia, the Sudan and Yemen (all over 0.14). Other increases, albeit more moderate (between 0.10 and 0.13) are reported in half of the sub-Saharan African countries, in most Arab States and Nepal. This upward trend is expected to continue during the next fifteen years. These countries will however remain some distance from achieving gender parity on current trends. In each region the GPI will exceed 0.80 in only half of the countries considered in the chart.

As expected, youth literacy levels are closer to the parity threshold. The pattern is shown in Figure 2.33, for the same countries as those shown in Figure 2.32. While for adults no country in this group is projected to reach gender parity by 2015, a number of countries, including some in sub-Saharan Africa and the Arab States, should approach that target for their younger generations.

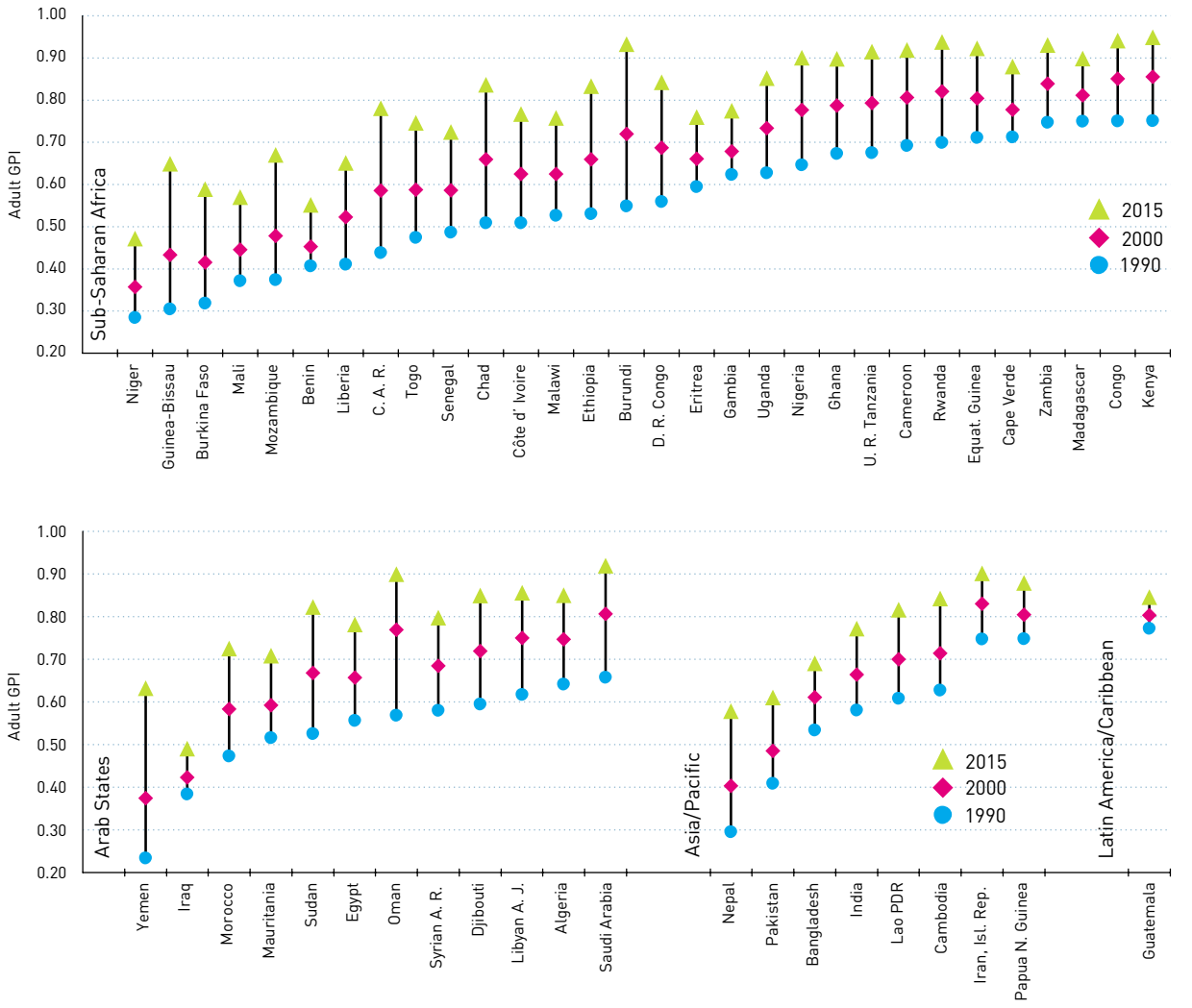
In conclusion, on present trends, the target of improving adult literacy rates by 50% seems unlikely to be reached in many developing countries. Gender disparities in literacy are easing, but at a very slow pace. This trend reflects the structural difficulty of achieving rapid progress in literacy due to the preponderance of older generations in the illiterate population, and the fact that a majority of this age group are women.

Learning programmes for youth and adults

As pointed out at the beginning of this chapter, literacy training cannot be seen entirely separately from training for other skills. Indeed, learning programmes for youth and adults usually address literacy and contextual and generic skills simultaneously. Exceptions are rare but include the following examples.

- Literacy. The classic example of activities exclusively focused on rapid gains in literacy is the mass campaign. Although the success of some of these literacy campaigns cannot be denied, there are doubts about their effectiveness (Lauglo, 2001). A high level of enthusiasm among both learners and teachers is crucial to success. Only in special

Figure 2.32. GPI of adult literacy rate by country (1990, 2000 and 2015)
(not including countries with GPI above 0.75 in 1990; in increasing order of GPI in 1990)



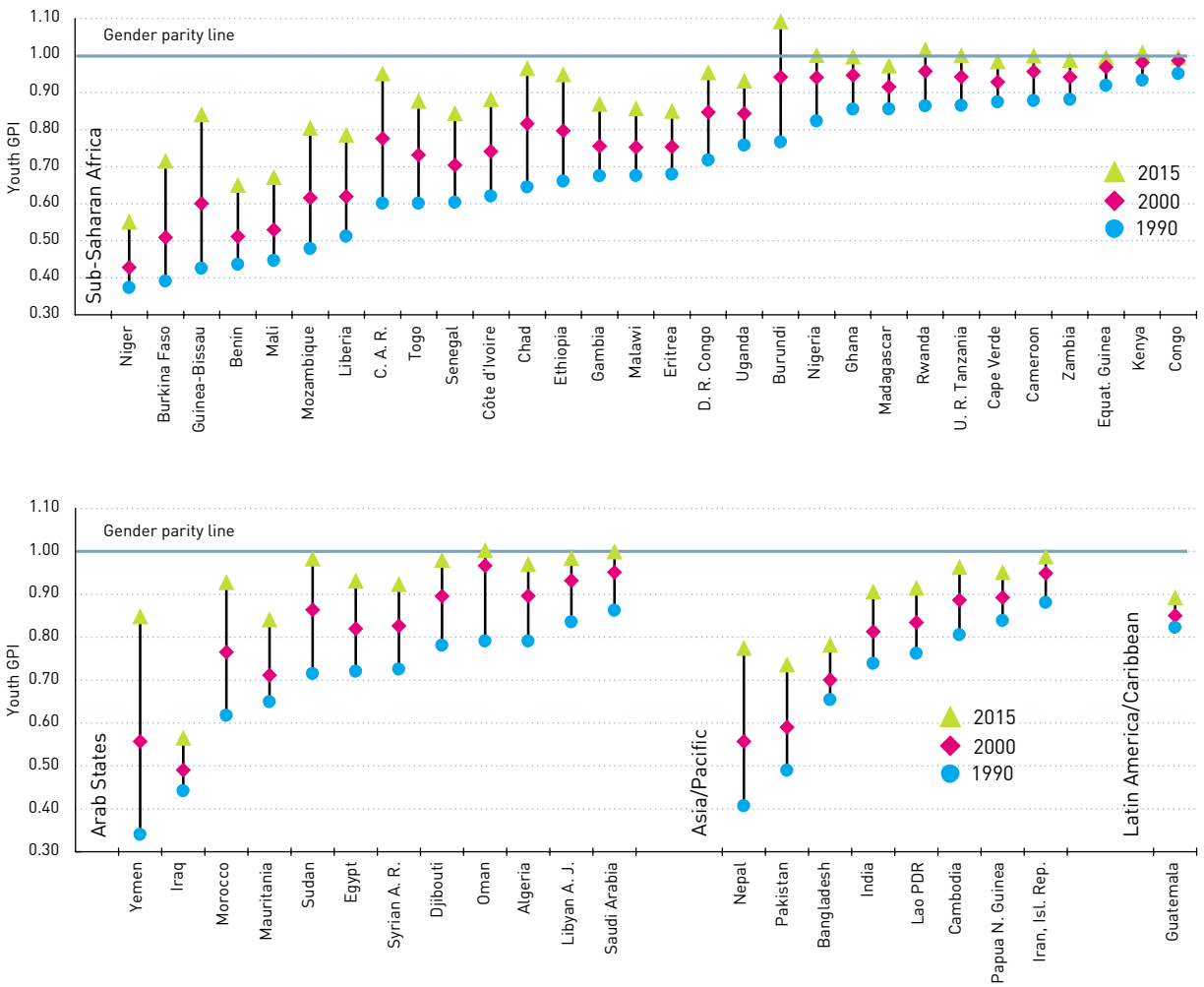
Source: Statistical annex, Table 2.

circumstances – such as when there is a revolutionary spirit – can such enthusiasm be sustained, and even then there are doubts about the long-term retention of literacy skills.

- 'Contextual' skills. The Self-Employed Women's Association (SEWA) in India runs programmes aimed at enhancing the capabilities for income generation among poor women without addressing literacy skills (Robinson-Pant, 2003). This is, however, an exceptional case in so far as lower level skills training is concerned. At higher levels, skills training is more likely to exclude literacy simply because literacy skills are present already. One of many examples is the Sofia project in Cuba, aiming to increase the proportion of female workers in entrepreneurial and managerial positions (Hanemann, 2003*a*).

- Generic skills. It is difficult to imagine a programme where people are successfully trained in generic skills without any relation to the context in which they live and work. Such programmes have not been found in the literature.

Figure 2.33. GPI of youth literacy rate by country (1990, 2000 and 2015)
(in increasing order of GPI in 1990)



Source: Statistical annex, Table 2.

Thus, most learning programmes link the three types of skill. But how precisely does this happen? There seems to have been a shift between two paradigms.

- In earlier programmes, the acquisition of literacy skills was central. But in order to attract and motivate the learner, a connection to a certain domain of application – such as income generation – was added in many cases. In practice, however, this often resulted in poorly resourced programmes run by teachers specializing in literacy rather than in the domain of application (Oxenham, 2003). This practice is reported to have contributed to high drop-out rates among women (Robinson-Pant, 2003).
- In later programmes, the 'contextual' skills became central to the programme, while literacy skills followed. The chances of skill-acquisition and retention are better in such circumstances as the learner often remains in the living and/or working context for which the programme is developed (Rogers et al., 1999).

An important aspect of the learner's context is language. In many communities (including those of immigrants to industrialized countries) the local language is different to the dominant national language. The latter may be indigenous, or it may be the language of the former colonial power. Sometimes both of these are relevant, in which cases a learner may face a choice of three languages.

This complicates learning programmes for youth and adults. For the local language, textbooks, learning materials or even written texts may be scarce. In these cases, learner-generated texts can become important. This, in itself, is a learning experience, while the materials can be used afterwards for other groups of learners. Storytelling (Mace, 2002) and oral literature (Hinzen, 1987) are important sources.

Often, however, the national language is regarded as the language of power. It may be seen as a language dominated by men, as they are more mobile, more involved in economic activity and have better access to schooling. The 'bi-literacy approach' does what its name suggests; it aims at simultaneously learning to read and write in the native and the national languages. The Bi-Literacy Centers in Bolivia, Guatemala, Mexico, Paraguay and Peru are operated by and for women (about 75% of enrolment) and men (25%) separately. Teachers and learners work together using gender-differentiated content and curricula, generating their own materials. At the last stage, the female and male groups share their texts, which results in a negotiating dialogue between the two groups (Hanemann, 2003*a*).

Whether the shift towards contextualized literacy acquisition has been instrumental in raising the efficiency of learning programmes is difficult to assess because of the paucity of data. But progress does seem undeniable. Research dating from as early as 1976 revealed very low ratios of learners passing examinations. An average pass ratio of 20% was found for the United Republic of Tanzania, 14% for the Islamic Republic of Iran, 25% for Ethiopia, 23% for Ecuador and 8% for the Sudan (UNDP/UNESCO, 1976). In the absence of more recent estimates, these outcomes had a strong impact on general opinion about the efficiency of learning programmes. Slightly better news came from studies in 1989 (Carron et al.) and 1991 (Carr-Hill et al.) but most positive are the outcomes of recent studies. The general impression provided (Diagne, 1999; Oxenham and Aoki, 2001) is that a completion rate of around 70% (with some high and low outliers) may be regarded as normal. Pass rates tend to stand at about 60% (Oxenham and Aoki, 2001).

Formal completion and the passing of an exam, however, are not identical to achievement. Whether learners have really acquired literacy skills and generic skills has been assessed in relation to a programme in the United Republic of Tanzania. It was found that 60% of learners became able to read a short simple story and 75% of them could do a simple calculation. Of these good performers, 25% could also successfully complete a certain problem-solving task (Carr-Hill, 1991). Roughly the same scores were found in a Kenyan study (Carron et al, 1989). With Torres (2003), we conclude that the 'failure and wastage arguments' regarding adult learning have been set aside by most actors.

Adult learning brings benefits such as better livelihoods, improved oral and written communication, and better family health and education. However, the range of evidence on the impact of such programmes is still small in comparison with that concerning the formal system. Further research on these matters remains a strong priority.

Formal completion and passing an exam are not the same as achievement.

Educational quality

Goal 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.

Quality education can help bring about greater equality between men and women.

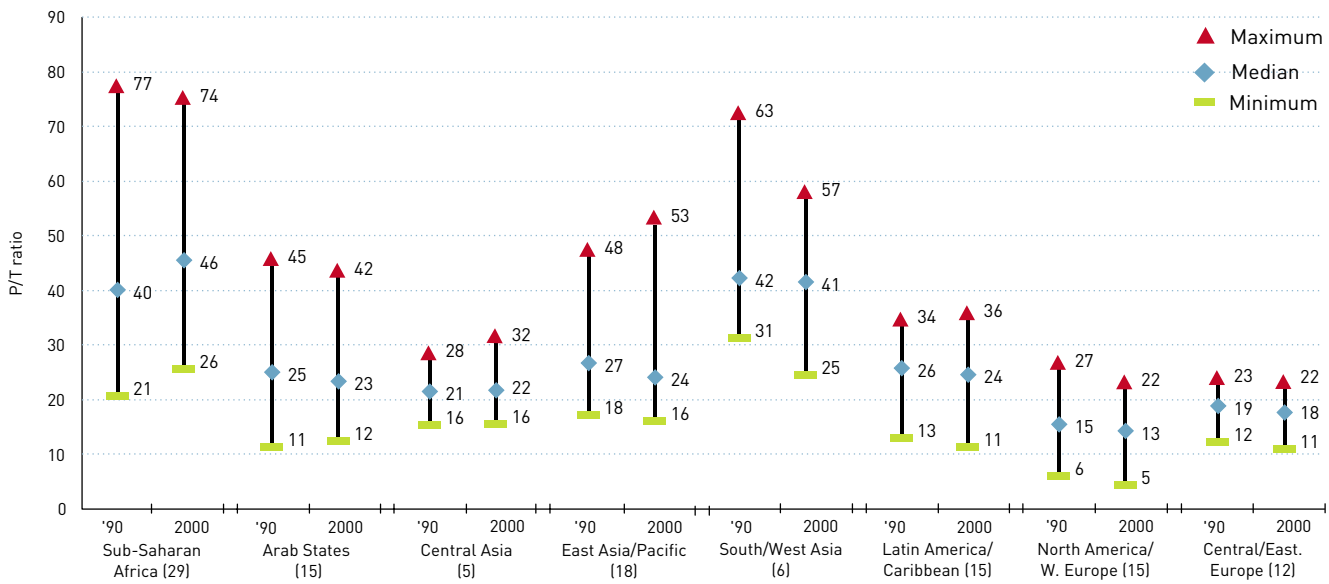
It is as important to keep track of educational quality as it is to monitor the expansion of education systems. However, the quality of education is difficult to capture. It is of interest because of what it can do for people: the difference between good and bad education matters in terms of what, how and how much people learn. It seems that this is particularly so in poorer societies, and for people from poorer backgrounds within them. The quality of education is thus an important potential instrument to help achieve greater equality – between those who start life with different sets of economic and social advantages and, indeed, between men and women.

Systematic assessment of international trends in the quality of education, however, is hampered by the lack of direct indicators. As regards educational inputs, two sets of 'proxies' for quality are to hand. The first concerns teachers – how many of them there are, in comparison with the total number of pupils, and their qualifications. The second concerns financial resources and, in particular, the amount of public spending on the school system. In general, it is assumed that lower pupil/teacher ratios, higher teacher qualifications and higher levels of public spending are each likely to be good for educational quality. However, there are reasons to believe that the connections are not quite so simple as is commonly assumed. As regards outputs, it is increasingly possible to compare the cognitive outcomes of education, at least at the school level, as a result of a series of educational achievement assessments that are growing in both number and size. Some of the latest results from these inquiries are summarized below.

Human resources

The existence of a teaching force which is well qualified and available in sufficient numbers is one of the main conditions for good quality educational provision. The analysis which follows focuses upon comparisons of pupil/teacher (P/T) ratios and the proportion of trained teachers among the teaching staff. It is strictly possible to refine P/T ratios based on head counts, by using

Figure 2.34. Pupil/teacher ratio in primary education, by region (1990 and 2000): median values and variation within regions
(in parentheses, the number of countries included in each region)



Source: Statistical annex, Table 10.

full-time equivalent numbers of teachers instead. This would be more accurate, but it requires information on part-time teachers which is not yet widely available.

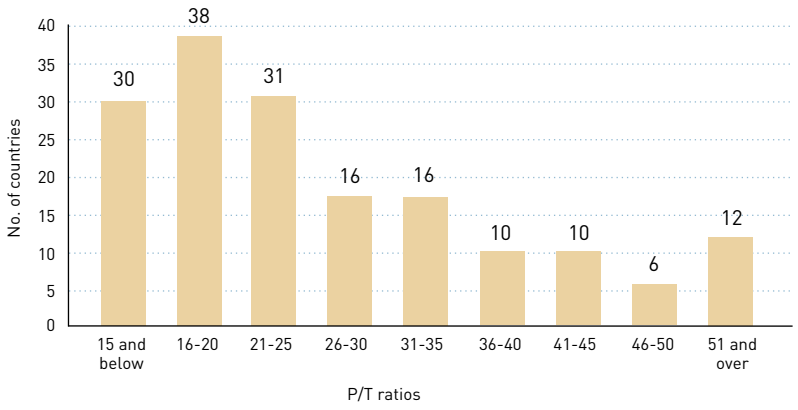
Figure 2.34 shows the variation in the P/T ratio at primary level, by region, for 115 countries with data available for both 1990 and 2000.[28] It shows that the largest variability occurs in sub-Saharan Africa. There are countries in this region where the average P/T ratio in 2000 was above 70 (the Central African Republic and Chad – which at that time had the highest P/T ratios in the world). These figures refer to national averages, so there will be very many instances of individual schools where the P/T ratio exceeds this number.[29]

Although in comparison with 1990, the range of P/T ratios in sub-Saharan Africa had narrowed somewhat by 2000, the median value had risen from 40 to 46 over the decade. This augurs badly for the quality of schooling in the region. Statistical annex Table 10 shows that decreases of about ten pupils per teacher occurred in some countries (Burkina Faso, Burundi and the Congo), which nevertheless still had P/T ratios around 50 in 2000. The largest decrease seems to have occurred in Togo (from 58 to 34 pupils per teacher). In contrast, the situation deteriorated in Benin, Cameroon, Côte d'Ivoire, Ethiopia and Mali, where increases of 10 to 19 pupils are reported, resulting in P/T ratios of between 54 and 63. In several of these countries, notably in Benin, Ethiopia and Mali, this is the negative side of notable improvements in school access during the same period.

The other region with dangerously high P/T ratios is South and West Asia. Again, there is some slight improvement since 1990, but it still has median values greater than 40. Declines of around seven pupils per teacher were experienced by Bangladesh and India, even though Bangladesh still had a P/T ratio of 57 in 2000 (Statistical annex, Table 10). Elsewhere, median values and the range of P/T ratios have slightly improved or remained broadly unchanged. The smallest ratios (on average less than 20) are found in Europe and North America, where there has also been a tendency towards further decline since 1990.

Figure 2.35 shows that in 60% of the countries one teacher is, on average, in charge of twenty-five pupils or less. Countries with such low P/T ratios are generally developed countries or those with low population density, such as Bermuda, Brunei Darussalam, Iceland, Saudi Arabia, etc. At the other end of the range, there are still over 10% of countries where it exceeds forty-five pupils per teacher, including many of the poorest and most populous states.

Figure 2.35. Distribution of countries according to number of pupils per teacher in primary education (2000)



Source: Statistical annex, Table 10.

The difficulties of improving this situation are considerable. Recruiting suitably qualified teacher-trainees takes time. Given budget constraints, some governments have recruited large numbers of untrained teachers, so that rapid rates of enrolment expansion may be sustained. A trade-off exists between a reasonable pupil/teacher ratio and teachers who are sufficiently qualified to ensure that the quality of education is not worsened by measures aimed at improving it.

Trained and untrained teachers

The level of qualification of teachers is often used as a criterion to judge the quality of the education provided. There are two possible indicators here: the first is the general level of educational attainment of teaching staff; the second is the percentage of teachers who are certified (or trained) to teach according to national standards. The two indicators measure different aspects of teachers' qualifications, with the first indicating their general educational qualifications, and the second focusing on their pedagogical training.

Information on the first indicator has been collected for countries participating in the WEI project.[30]

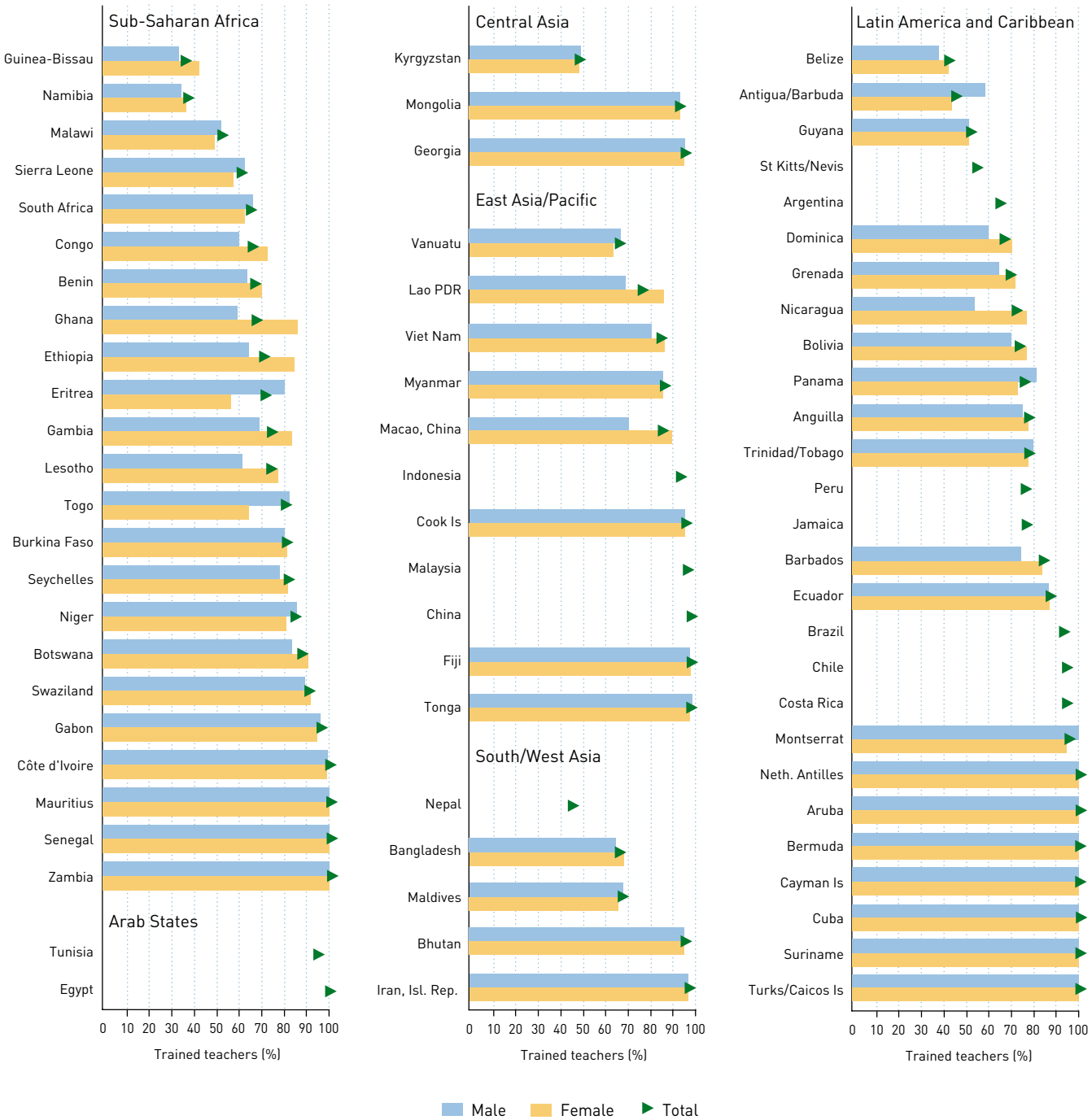
The qualification level of teachers is often used to judge the quality of education.

28. Comparisons between the two years need to be made with caution, owing to possible changes in the education structure or in the classification methods over the period.

29. It is, of course, possible that double-shifting reduces average class size well below these levels.

30. An analysis of this indicator for WEI countries was published in UNESCO Institute for Statistics/OECD (2001).

Figure 2.36. Percentage of primary teachers who have received pedagogical training, by gender (2000)
(in increasing order of total percentage trained within regions)



General note: See source table for detailed country notes.
Source: Statistical annex, Table 10.

With respect to the second indicator – the percentage of teachers having received at least the minimum pedagogical training required by each country – data availability is patchy, and completely absent for OECD countries. Furthermore, as the definition used is a relative one, only limited cross-national comparisons are possible.

Figure 2.36 shows the extent of qualification of primary teachers in developing countries according to national definitions. The chart includes seventy-two developing countries for which data are available. In the OECD countries, despite the absence of data, it is estimated that virtually all primary teachers have received the necessary training, according to national standards.

The picture that emerges from Figure 2.36 is only suggestive: not all countries appear in the chart, and some of the non-reporting countries may have lower percentages of trained teachers than those shown. However, it is noteworthy that there are still some countries in all developing regions where half of the teachers have received no pedagogical training. The proportions trained are particularly small in some sub-Saharan African countries such as Guinea-Bissau, Malawi and Namibia, and in many others less than three-quarters of the teachers are trained. In two-thirds of the countries having available data by gender, women are proportionally more trained than men, particularly in Ethiopia, the Gambia, Ghana and Lesotho.

Less than two-thirds of teachers are trained in some countries of the Asia and Pacific region (Bangladesh, Kyrgyzstan, the Maldives, Nepal and Vanuatu). Again, it appears that female teachers are more highly trained than their male peers in the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Macao (China), and Viet Nam.

The above values depict national averages, yet variations within individual countries (between richer and poorer regions, urban and rural areas), are likely to be as large or larger than those between countries. Moreover, while the qualifications formally required for teaching in most countries have risen over the years – especially in the middle-income countries of East Asia, the Pacific and Latin America – there has been a tendency to recruit an increasingly higher proportion of untrained and poorly qualified teachers in many low-income countries. This tendency, often dictated by fiscal constraints, has had potentially serious consequences for educational quality.

Expenditures on education

Improvements in the quality of education can often be secured by changing the ways in which classes, or other educational programmes, are organized and by improving the ways in which teachers interact with their pupils. However, particularly in resource-poor systems, most of the available options for increasing quality require larger expenditures. Accordingly, the extent of spending on education is sometimes taken to be a useful proxy indicator for educational quality.

Spending on education can be used as an indicator for educational quality.

The main difficulty refers to coverage, which theoretically should include both public expenditures by central and local authorities, and private expenditures. In reality, even as regards public expenditures, it is difficult to ensure that all are included. Concerning the central government itself, some countries report ministry of education expenditures only, thus excluding other central government authorities such as the ministries of social affairs, health, and agriculture, which may be responsible for some types of educational provision. Private expenditures are extremely difficult to report in the absence of special household expenditure surveys, which are costly to design and implement. Nevertheless, the sections below review the available information on these aggregates, partial though it is.

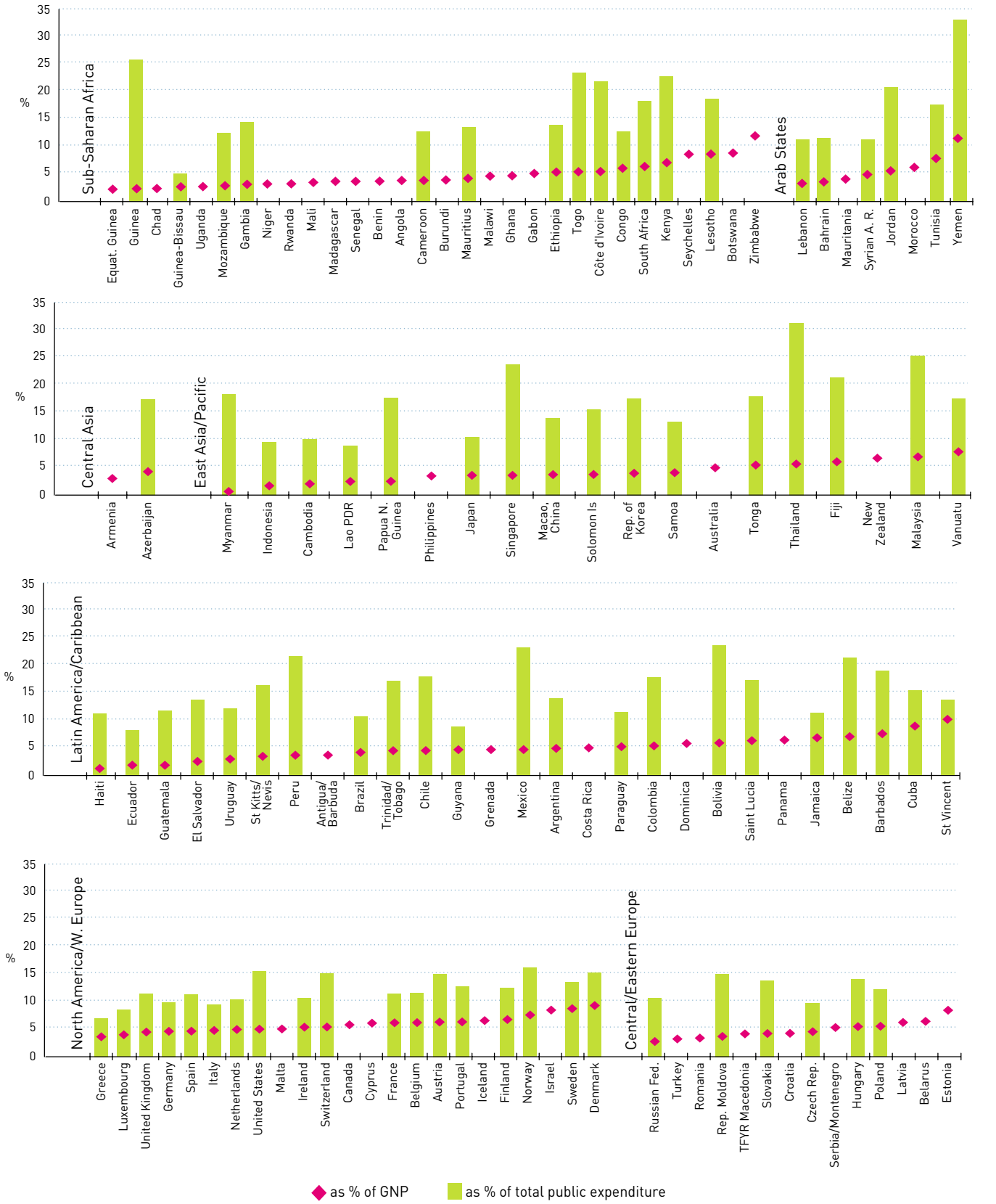
National educational expenditures

Figure 2.37 shows that public expenditure on education as a proportion of GNP varies widely from one country to another, and particularly between developed and developing countries.

Expenditure varies from 0.6% in Myanmar to 11.1% in Zimbabwe. However, half of the countries allocate between 3.4% and 5.7% of their national wealth to education. Whereas a good number of African and Asian countries allocate less than 4% of their national expenditures to education, most OECD countries, together with those of Central and Eastern Europe, allocate between 4% and 8%.[31]

31. Note also that, among a sample of fifty-five of the largest low-income countries, those designated as having achieved 'relative EFA success' spent, on average, 3.8% of their GDP on education (World Bank, 2003*b*, p. 51).

Figure 2.37. Public expenditure on education as percentages of GNP and of total public expenditure (2000)
(countries in increasing order of percentage of GNP within regions)



General note: See source table for detailed country notes.
Source: Statistical annex, Table 11.

The share of total public expenditure apportioned to education varies to a much greater extent – from 4.8% in Guinea-Bissau to 32.8% in Yemen. In this case, half of the countries report values of between 11.2% and 17.4%.[32]

Share of primary education in the public education budget and in national expenditure

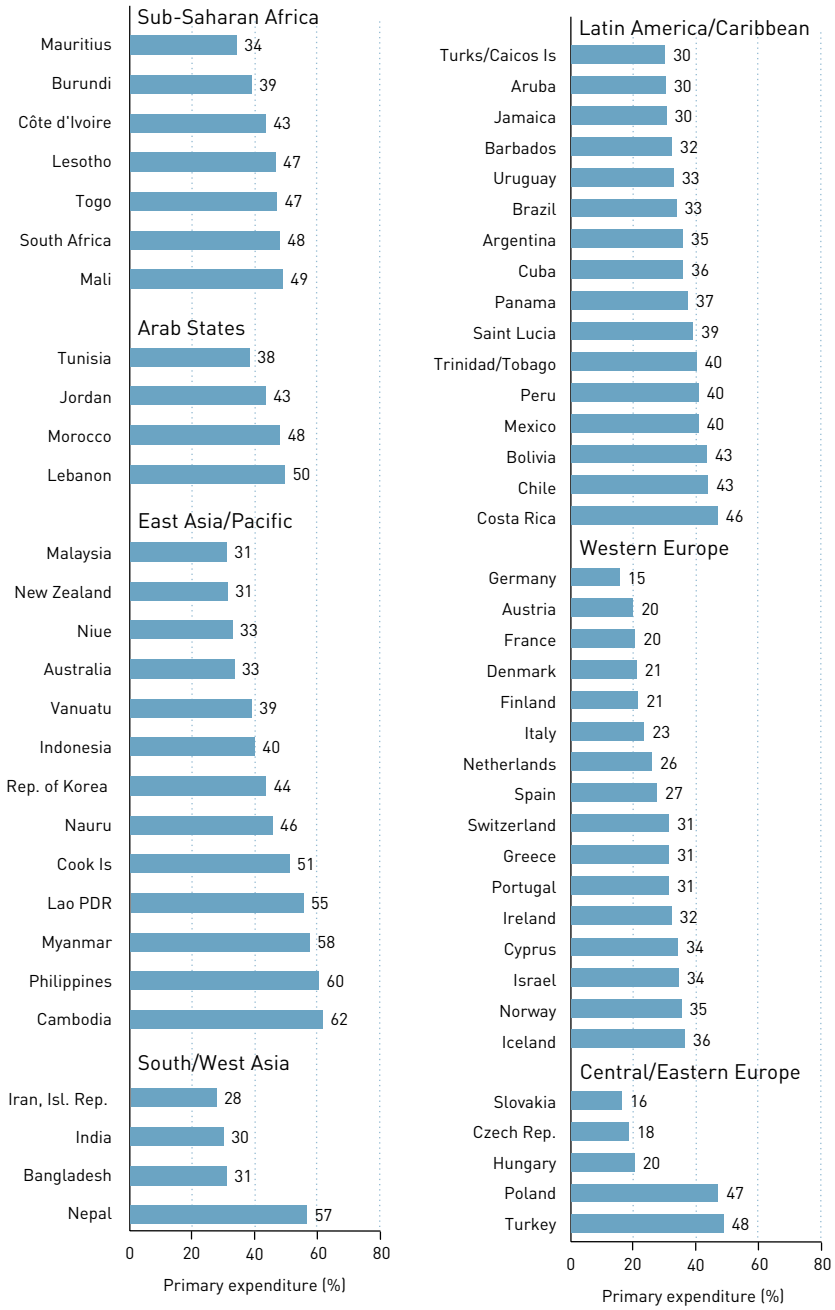
Primary-schooling budget shares, not surprisingly, reflect the structure of education systems around the world. As shown in Figure 2.38, the richer countries, having well-developed secondary and tertiary structures, tend to allocate a lower proportion of their education budgets to primary schooling (usually less than one-third). In contrast, most developing-country governments, where tertiary systems are less well-established, allocate between one-third and half of their education spending to the primary system.

Partly reflecting this, public spending on the primary system is often a higher proportion of GNP in developing countries than in those which are more industrialized. It ranges from below 0.5% in Bangladesh to over 3% in Belize and Lesotho. However, in half of the countries with available data, primary education receives between 1.1% and 2.2% of national resources (Figure 2.39).

Finally, as regards *unit expenditures as a proportion of per capita GNP*, there is an extremely wide variation in values for the countries shown in Figure 2.39. The range goes from below 5% in Bangladesh, Botswana, Indonesia and the Lao People's Democratic Republic to more than 25% in Norway, Poland and 32% in Cuba. For half of the countries the value lies-between 11% and 17% of per capita GNP.

To summarize, in the richer countries shares of GNP allocated by governments to primary education average 1.4%, while unit expenditures in relation to per capita GNP are estimated at 18% on average.[33] In less-developed regions the average share of primary educational expenditure in the national wealth, at 1.7%, is slightly higher than in industrialized countries. However, as this spending targets a comparatively larger student population, the per student expenditure in relation to per capita GNP is on average lower (12%) than in the more industrialized countries.[34]

Figure 2.38. Public current expenditure on primary education as percentage of public current expenditure on education (2000)



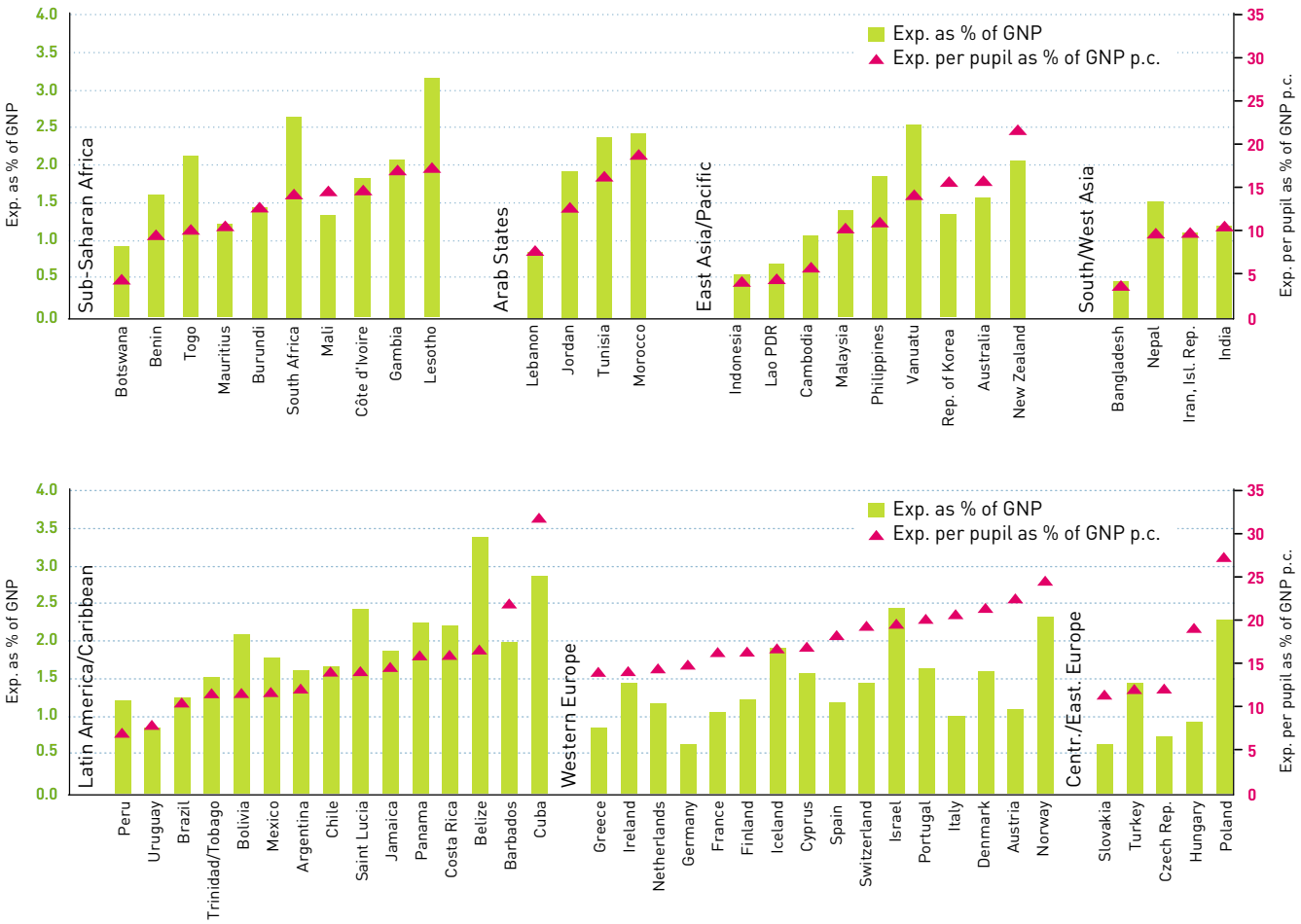
General note: See source table for detailed country notes.
Source: Statistical annex, Table 11.

32. This is somewhat lower than the 18.2% allocated by the best-performing EFA countries, as reported by the World Bank study (World Bank, 2003*b*, p. 61).

33. Averages mentioned in this paragraph are simple averages.

34. It is worth noting that in the World Bank's 'relative EFA success' countries, unit costs at primary level represented 11.8% of per capita GDP – not significantly different from this average for all developing countries indicated by the 2000 data (World Bank, 2003*b*, p. 51).

Figure 2.39. Public current expenditure on primary education as percentage of GNP and expenditure per pupil as percentage of per capita GNP (2000) (in increasing order of expenditure per pupil as percentage of per capita GNP)



General note: See source table for detailed country notes.
Source: Statistical annex, Table 11.

Learning achievement of girls and boys

While teachers and financial resources have an important influence on the quality of education, student achievement surveys provide a more direct measure of quality. Their limitations should however be kept in mind. Such surveys only evaluate measurable learning outcomes, not the broader impact of the school experience on the learner, nor the importance of the school as a social institution for the local community. And in looking at learning outcomes, they still tend to be limited to school subjects, particularly reading, mathematics and science.

These limitations are important in assessing gender disparities in school performance. Possible differences between girls and boys regarding those skills that transcend the school subjects – e.g. communication and teamwork – remain beyond our scope. The same goes for classroom practices which discriminate against girls – consciously or unconsciously – which are important constituents of quality.

Nevertheless, the following analysis of a number of surveys, together representing a reasonable global coverage, does allow some assessment to be made of the relative achievements of girls and boys.

PISA, the Programme for International Student Assessment (UNESCO Institute for Statistics/OECD, 2003*b*) examined the school performance of pupils at age 15. In 2003 it covered forty-two industrialized, transition and developing countries. It must be kept in mind that the NERs of most of the latter are higher than 95%, which may indicate the presence of a relatively well-developed education system.

For reading, girls performed better than boys in all the countries, while the disparities in most countries are substantial (see Figure 2.40). For mathematics, boys did better in thirty-four of the forty-two countries, but the differences were clearly smaller than for reading. For science, the performance of girls and boys was rather in balance.

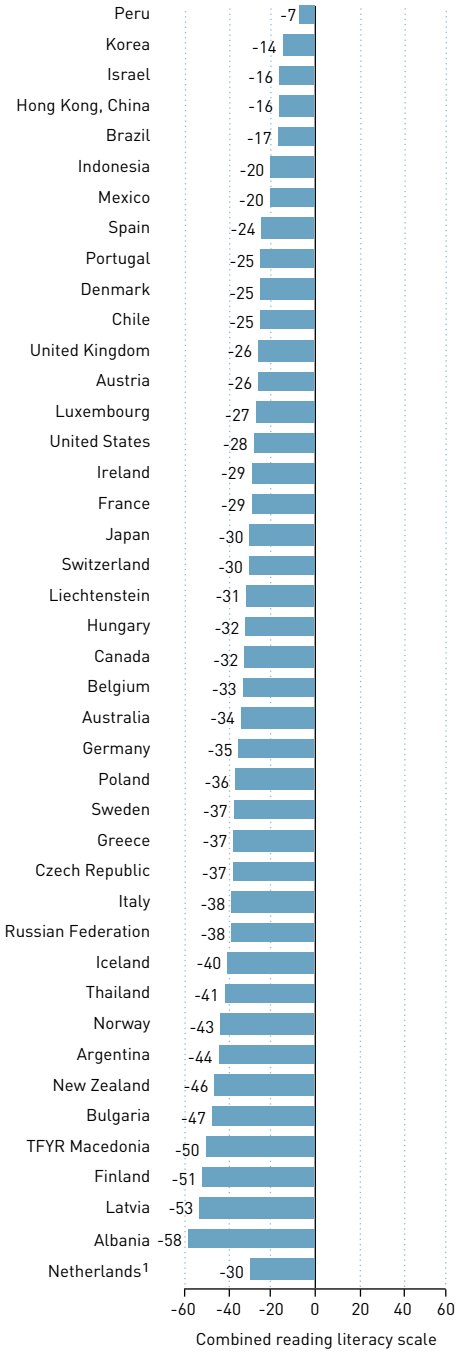
No generalizations can be made as to which countries have the larger performance gaps. For reading, where the differences are largest and in favour of girls, the developing and transition countries tend to be concentrated at both ends of the ranking, while most industrialized countries are found in the middle (Figure 2.40).

PIRLS, the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (Mullis et al., 2003) examined reading performance in Grade 4 in thirty-five industrialized, transition and developing countries. Like PISA, PIRLS found that girls outperformed boys in all countries. Of the developing countries participating, Colombia had the smallest gap. In Turkey and Morocco, the gap was near the international average. And Belize, the Islamic Republic of Iran and Kuwait had the largest gaps of all countries. Of these six countries, the Islamic Republic of Iran, Kuwait and Morocco have NERs below 85%, suggesting that moderate and large performance gaps in favour of girls also occur in some countries with less-developed education systems.

TIMSS, the Third International Mathematics and Science Study (initially 1995 and repeated in 1999) found boys doing slightly better than girls in some of the developing countries that participated in the study. There was also a slight tendency for this difference to increase in higher grades (Mullis et al., 2000).

The outcomes of PIRLS (girls clearly better in reading) and of TIMSS (boys slightly better in mathematics and science) are generally in

Figure 2.40. Gender difference in performance on the combined reading literacy scale, PISA (2003)
(Male score – Female score)



1. Response rate is too low to ensure comparability.
Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics/OECD (2003*b*, Figure 5.3).

accordance with the outcomes of PISA, although the overall performance of girls is better in PISA. This difference is attributed to the different nature of the tests. PISA laid more emphasis on life sciences, on scientific processes and application of knowledge, and contained more open-ended and contextualized items, which tend to favour girls. TIMSS chose a more theoretical approach and used more multiple-choice items, which favours boys.

The school surveys of the UNESCO Regional Bureau for Education in Latin America and the Caribbean (OREALC) found the same patterns: 'girls show better achievement in Language and slightly poorer achievement in Mathematics'. Overall, girls do better. These differences, though relatively small, do reach statistical significance (Casassus et al., 2002).

Surveys show learning achievement is related to socio-economic status.

The picture changes when less-developed countries are examined. Although the stronger affinity of girls for reading and the stronger affinity of boys for mathematics seem universal phenomena, the over-performance of girls does seem to be weaker or often absent in less-developed countries, in general.

The Monitoring Learning Achievement project (UNESCO/UNICEF, 2000) concludes for sub-Saharan Africa that gender differences are either small or insignificant, and are much smaller than disparities between countries. More recent data confirm this. In eight predominantly francophone African countries, MLA found slightly better performance for boys in the subjects for which boys usually have the greater affinity, such as mathematics, physics, chemistry and other sciences (UNESCO/UNICEF, 2003).

Studies by the Southern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) found relatively small gender disparities in reading. These were in favour of boys in three of a group of five anglophone African countries, while in the other two they were slightly more pronounced and in favour of girls (Saito, 1998; UNESCO, 2000*e*).

In francophone African countries, the Programme d'Analyse des Systèmes Éducatifs de la CONFEMEN (Michaelowa, 2002, 2003) examined performance in reading and mathematics, and also found very limited gender disparities. In terms of grade repetition, disparities were insignificant too.

However, the group of countries examined by PASEC have relatively low GPIs for primary education. The possibility cannot be excluded that the girls, in particular, of the poorest families are enrolled less. It is known from several surveys that learning achievement is related to socio-economic status. Hence, it is possible that the exclusion of the presumably weakest learners raises the average performance of those girls that are in school and thus included in the study. As the enrolment gap closes, this may reveal a hitherto hidden performance gap to the disadvantage of girls. The same may be the case in the PIRLS study for the Islamic Republic of Iran, Kuwait and Morocco.

Relatively low GPIs are not found for other countries participating in the surveys discussed above. In these cases, the equal performance of girls in the poorer countries and their better performance in the richer countries is a genuine tendency.

This tendency suggests that girls benefit more than boys when education somehow moves to higher levels of development. And it raises the question whether it is a matter of time before girls will outperform boys in poorer countries as well. The International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS) (OECD/Statistics Canada, 2000) allows us to perform a quasi-longitudinal analysis, albeit mainly for industrialized countries (www.nald.ca/nls/ials/introduc.htm).

IALS examined the literacy competences of adults between 16 and 64 years old. By comparing the various age categories in the participating countries, in one sense it is possible to look back in time. It appears that men outperformed women in the age group 56–64, and that the reverse is the case for the age group 16–25. Thus, in industrialized countries, the turning point between male and female over-performance lies just a few decades behind us.

Speculation about the causes of this transformation are numerous. One hypothesis is that the feminization of the teaching workforce plays a role in boosting girls' school performance in the richer countries.

Figure 2.41 shows a clear correlation between per capita GNP and the proportion of female teachers in primary education. It has already been shown that feminization of the teaching profession is associated with higher female intakes to school (Figure 2.15).

But whether more female teachers is also associated with performance differentials between boys and girls remains unclear. The PASEC study has investigated this and demonstrated that the gender of the teacher had indeed a strong and divergent impact on achievement. If the teacher is male, then the difference in achievement between girls and boys is augmented by 6.5% of the mean score, in favour of boys (Michaelowa, 2002).[35]

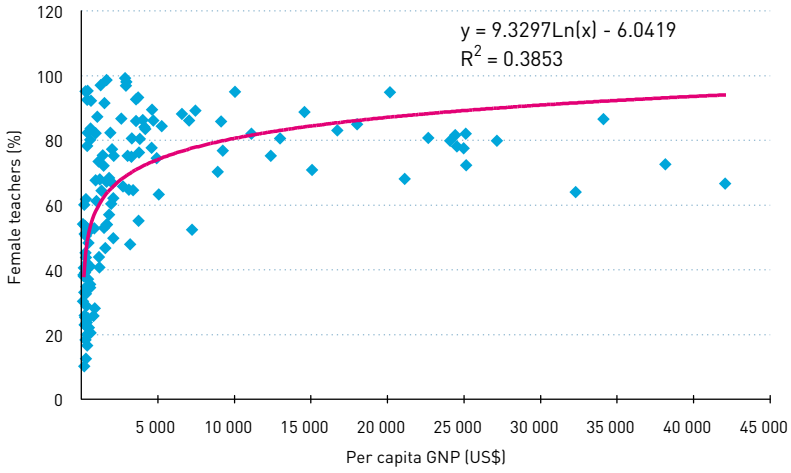
For the PISA study, in contrast, only a very weak correlation was found between the proportion of female teachers with achievement differentials for twenty-nine of the participating countries. The different findings for PASEC and PISA suggest that the influence of the gender of the teacher on gender differentials in learning outcomes is stronger in less-developed countries. Possibly this influence decreases as teaching methods and curricula develop in such a way that learning outcomes are less dependent on personal preferences and tendencies of the teacher. But this is rather speculative and more research is needed covering more countries and examining a broader range of variables.

Another hypothesis that deserves attention is that girls in poorer countries run a higher risk than boys of attending school less frequently, and having less time for homework. This would be caused by a greater need for girls to assist in the household, care for younger siblings and to help on the land. In its turn, this would be a result of parents attaching lower value to the education of girls compared with the education of boys.

PISA distinguished five performance levels. Figure 2.42 focuses on the lowest of these levels for reading, and shows the proportion of boys and girls at this level for the forty-two countries.

It shows there is no exception to the rule that there are more low-performing boys than girls in a country. But the size of the gap differs from country to country. Very large gaps, of 40% or more, are found in Albania, Indonesia, Thailand and The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia.

Figure 2.41. Percentage of female teachers in primary education and per capita GNP (2000)



Source: Statistical annex, Tables 1 and 8.

Gaps of around 30% are found in Argentina, Bulgaria, Chile and Peru. All these are developing countries or relatively poor transition countries. The largest gaps for industrialized countries are around 10%. Brazil and Mexico are the only developing countries with a more modest gap.

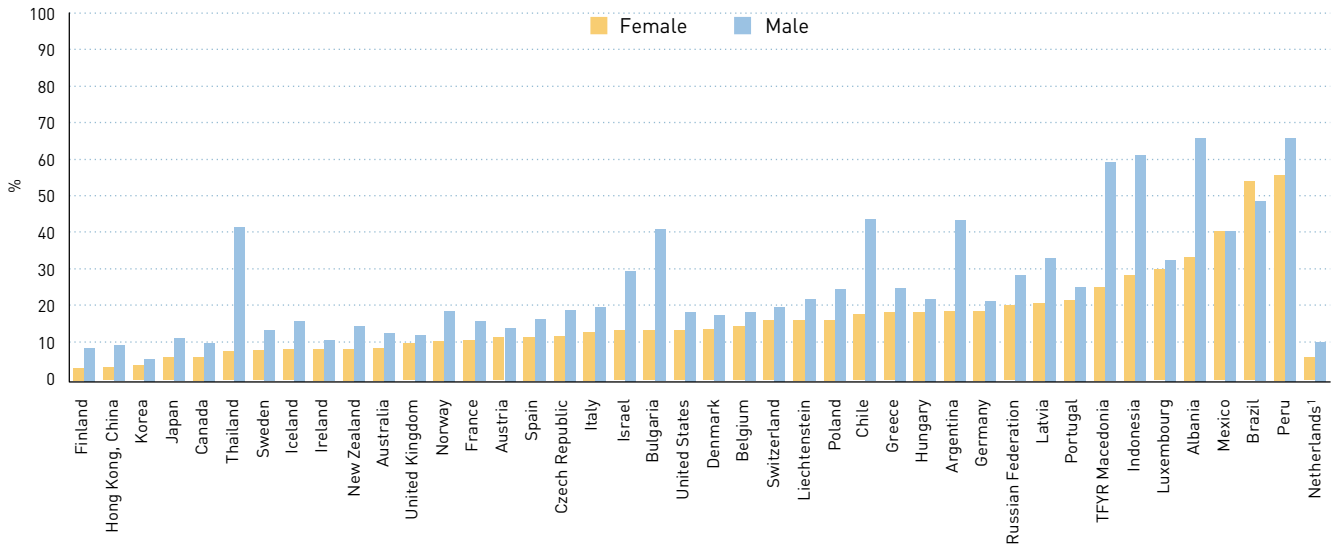
In understanding these figures, it must be kept in mind that PISA tests pupils at age 15 and that NER for secondary education is 47.5 in Indonesia, 55.4 in Thailand and 65.4 in Peru. In these countries it must be assumed that most of the very poorest girls and boys are not enrolled in secondary education. The NERs for the other countries just mentioned vary from 71.3 to 96.1. In all these countries, GPI for secondary education is near 1.00.

Thus it appears that the problem of low-performing boys at secondary level is greater in a number of transition and developing countries than it is in industrialized countries where it has been identified as a policy priority (see Chapter 5). In contrast, girls in these countries seem to see education more consciously as an opportunity to break their family's cycle of poverty or to further improve the quality of their lives. This hypothesis is supported by a number of additional outcomes of PISA.

A PASEC study indicates that the gender of the teacher has a strong and differential impact on achievement.

35. In the PASEC countries, the proportion of female primary teachers varied between 18% and 36% in 1995, against an average of about 50% in the countries covered by SACMEQ in 2000 (SACMEQ, 2002).

Figure 2.42. Percentage of male and female among the lowest performers on the combined reading literacy scale (2003)



1. Response rate is too low to ensure comparability.
Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics/OECD (2003*b*, Table 5.3b).

In all countries, girls are more interested in reading than boys.

Examining the learning styles of pupils, PISA distinguished cooperative and competitive learning styles. In the industrialized countries, the former are typically associated with girls, the latter with boys. In some countries, however, girls have competitive learning styles as well. There is a strong tendency for these to be transition countries and, to a slightly lesser extent, developing countries. Exceptions include Brazil and Mexico, the same countries where the gap between low-performing boys and girls is moderate.

Furthermore, the interest in reading is higher among girls than among boys in all countries. Boys tend to show a greater interest in mathematics than girls, but these differences are less marked, especially in the poorer countries. It can also be said that girls in poorer countries are more interested in mathematics than girls in richer countries, even if this does not translate into better performance (this is probably due to the higher quality of education in richer countries).

Roughly similar patterns are found by PISA regarding the time boys and girls spend on reading, their reading preferences and their self-concept. But most striking is perhaps that in forty out of forty-two countries, girls have higher expectations towards their future occupations at age 30 than boys. 'Once girls are in school they tend to progress as well as, or better than boys' (UNESCO, 2002*b*, p. 75). This chapter has further substantiated this statement. Generally speaking, girls attend school more frequently than boys; they repeat grades to a lesser extent; they are more interested in reading and spend more time on it; they are driven by higher expectations of the future; and they end up reaching higher levels of achievement and attending secondary and tertiary education in larger numbers than boys. There are many (usually) poor countries where such expressions of female dominance in educational achievement do not yet occur, or are absent due to the exclusion of girls. However, in middle- and higher-income countries this appears to be the most frequent pattern.

The causes of this apparently recent phenomenon are unclear. It has been shown that the feminization of the teaching workforce can probably not fully account for it. Another possible explanation is related to changes in the nature of work, organizations and social interaction (see, for example, Castells, 1997) resulting in more emphasis on skills and attitudes such as communication, co-operation, networking, creativity, imagination and flexibility. These changes seem to be impacting on content, pedagogy and testing practices in education (OECD, 2002*a*). Existing differences between the sexes – caused by a combination of subtle innate differences, parental behaviour and further socialization (Hayward, 2003) – may explain why girls thus far seem to respond better than boys to this new societal and educational context.

But this explanation remains hypothetical while the Report is not in a position to enhance our understanding of girls' strong record of educational attainment. It is clear, however, that large numbers of girls still have no access to education. These girls never have a chance to demonstrate their motivation and ability to learn. This is not only unjust. It represents a vast waste of talent for the girls concerned and for society at large.

The very many girls with no access to education never have a chance to show their keenness and ability to learn.

Comparing the progress of countries towards EFA

There are strong linkages between the six EFA goals.

It will be clear from the analysis presented earlier in this chapter that there are strong linkages between the six EFA goals. Countries moving rapidly towards universal provision of good quality schooling can also be expected to make good progress in reducing levels of youth illiteracy. Levels of gender parity in ECCE seem to have some influence on gender ratios further up the school system. Achieving gender parity at primary level generally has a positive, though delayed impact upon gender ratios at secondary and higher levels. Nevertheless, these interactions are not automatic. The links between primary enrolments and literacy are much more tentative in low-quality systems and there are many cases where parity in primary enrolments co-exist, for many years, with strong disparities at secondary and higher levels of education.

Separate consideration of each of the goals allows such comparisons to be made. For example, countries giving policy priority to one or other of the goals can be identified on the basis of the indicators we have discussed. On the other hand, it is useful to ask whether a more aggregate, or rounded, picture can be given, which could identify those countries doing well on all fronts, those succeeding in some areas but not others, and those experiencing rather more comprehensive difficulties in making progress towards EFA.

One way of doing this is to construct an index, which attempts to aggregate some, or most, of these separate trends. This is tackled below. First, however – and by way of an intermediate step – we compare the progress being made by countries towards the 2005 gender-parity goal by considering their primary and secondary systems within a unified framework.

Gender parity: progress and prospects

The gender goal for 2005 specifies the attainment of parity in enrolments between boys and girls at primary and secondary levels by that date. The current position of countries, with respect to this goal is summarised in Table 2.24.[36]

Table 2.24. Current situation of countries according to their distance from achieving the goal of gender parity in primary and secondary education

	Have achieved *GPI between 0.97 and 1*	Close to the goal *GPI between 0.95 and 0.96*	Medium position *GPI between 0.80 and 0.94*	Far from the goal *GPI < 0.80*	Number of countries in the sample
PRIMARY EDUCATION					
Arab States	8	3	7	2	20
Central and Eastern Europe	16	1	1		18
Central Asia	4	2	1		7
East Asia and the Pacific	15	4	5		24
Latin America and the Caribbean	22	4	3		29
North America and Western Europe	23				23
South and West Asia	2	1	2	1	6
Sub-Saharan Africa	10	5	12	13	40
Sub-total	**100**	**20**	**31**	**16**	**167**
SECONDARY EDUCATION					
Arab States	3	1	12	2	18
Central and Eastern Europe	15	1	1	1	18
Central Asia	4		3		7
East Asia and the Pacific	5	3	12	4	24
Latin America and the Caribbean	5	7	13	2	27
North America and Western Europe	12	4	6	1	23
South and West Asia		1	2	3	6
Sub-Saharan Africa	3	1	15	17	36
Sub-total	**47**	**18**	**64**	**30**	**159**

Source: Statistical annex, Tables 5 and 7.

36. In this table, values of the GPI greater than one – which indicate inequality in favour of girls – are inverted (1/GPI). This allows all GPI values to be compared on a scale having a maximum value of unity.

It can be seen that, among the countries having data for 2000, 60% had achieved gender parity at primary level and only about one-third had done so at secondary level. Those close to the goal amounted to 11% of countries at each level of schooling. Many others, however, were far from achieving parity – particularly at secondary level, where almost one-fifth of countries had GPI values less than 0.8.

The prospects for particular countries achieving the gender parity goal, on the basis of past rates of change, are shown in Table 2.25. These judgements thus assume that past rates of progress (or retrogression) will continue into the future[37]. Here, the sample size is smaller, because only those 128 countries with data for primary and secondary levels for both 1990 and 2000 are included. Thus, our overall assessment of the trajectory of nations towards achieving the gender sub-goal remains partial.

Nevertheless, it can be seen that:

- Less than half the countries shown (52 out of 128) have either already achieved gender parity in both primary and secondary enrolments or are likely to have done so by 2005. Most of these countries (in the green area of the table) are from North America and Western Europe (14) and Central and Eastern Europe (13). However they include countries from Latin America and the Caribbean (6) and from the Arab States (5).

37. The method used is explained in Appendix 2.

Table 2.25. Gender parity in primary and secondary education: national prospects for goal achievement in 2005 and 2015
(based on past trends, 1999–2000; all countries with GPI between 0.97 and 1.03 are considered to have achieved parity)

Gender parity in primary education	Gender parity in secondary education: Achieved in 2000	Likely to be achieved in 2005	Likely to be achieved in 2015	At risk of not achieving the goal by 2015	Number of countries
Achieved in 2000	Albania, Australia, Azerbaijan, Barbados, Belgium, Bulgaria, Canada, Cape Verde, Chile, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Ecuador, France, Georgia, Germany, Greece, Guyana, Hungary, Indonesia, Israel, Italy, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kuwait, Rep. of Korea, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Rep. of Moldova, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Romania, Rwanda, Slovakia, Slovenia, TFYR Macedonia, United States 40	Austria, Bolivia, Jamaica, Kenya, Malawi, Portugal, Samoa 7	Belize, Botswana, Finland, Namibia, Nicaragua, Panama, Qatar, Spain, United Rep. of Tanzania, Venezuela 10	Bahrain, Bangladesh, China, Colombia, Costa Rica, Denmark, Iceland, Ireland, Malaysia, Mauritius, Mexico, Myanmar, New Zealand, Philippines, Russian Federation, Serbia and Montenegro, Suriname, Sweden, Switzerland, Trinidad and Tobago, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, Vanuatu, Zimbabwe 24	81
Likely to be achieved in 2005	Oman 1	Egypt, Iran, Mauritania, Nepal 4	Brunei Darussalam, Gambia, **Lesotho**, Saudi Arabia 4	Morocco, Senegal, Tunisia 3	12
Likely to be achieved in 2015	Paraguay 1	Cuba, Sudan, Syrian Arab Republic 3	Comoros, Congo, Ghana, Uganda 4	Algeria, Benin, Cambodia, Chad, Lao PDR, Togo 6	14
At risk of not achieving the goal by 2015	Estonia, Kyrgyzstan, Swaziland 3	Sierra Leone 1	Burundi, Macao (China), Niger, South Africa, Thailand 5	Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Ethiopia, India, Iraq, Madagascar, **Mongolia**, Mozambique, Papua New Guinea, Saint Lucia, Turkey 12	21
Number of countries	**45**	**15**	**23**	**45**	**128**

Notes:
1. Where countries are shown in bold blue, enrolment disparities at the expense of boys are observed at both primary and secondary levels; non-bold blue indicates that such disparities occur at secondary level only.
2. Nine countries in the pink zone had high GPI values at both primary and secondary levels in 2000, even though their recent GPI trends had been slightly negative. They are in a different category to most of the other countries in this group, in that policy change could easily and quickly change their circumstances. These countries are: Denmark, Estonia, Kyrgyzstan, Macao (China), Madagascar, Mexico, Serbia and Montenegro, South Africa, and Swaziland.

Source: Statistical annex, Tables 5 and 7. The methodology is explained in Appendix 2.

For many countries unlikely to reach gender parity by 2005, policies are available to deliver it within a few years.

- There are a further 22 countries (shown in the yellow area of the table) which, while likely to miss the achievement of parity at primary or secondary level (or both) in 2005, should nevertheless achieve it by 2015. In most of these cases, as we would expect, the lagging sector will be secondary schooling – with only four countries likely to achieve gender parity in secondary school enrolments before having done so at primary level.

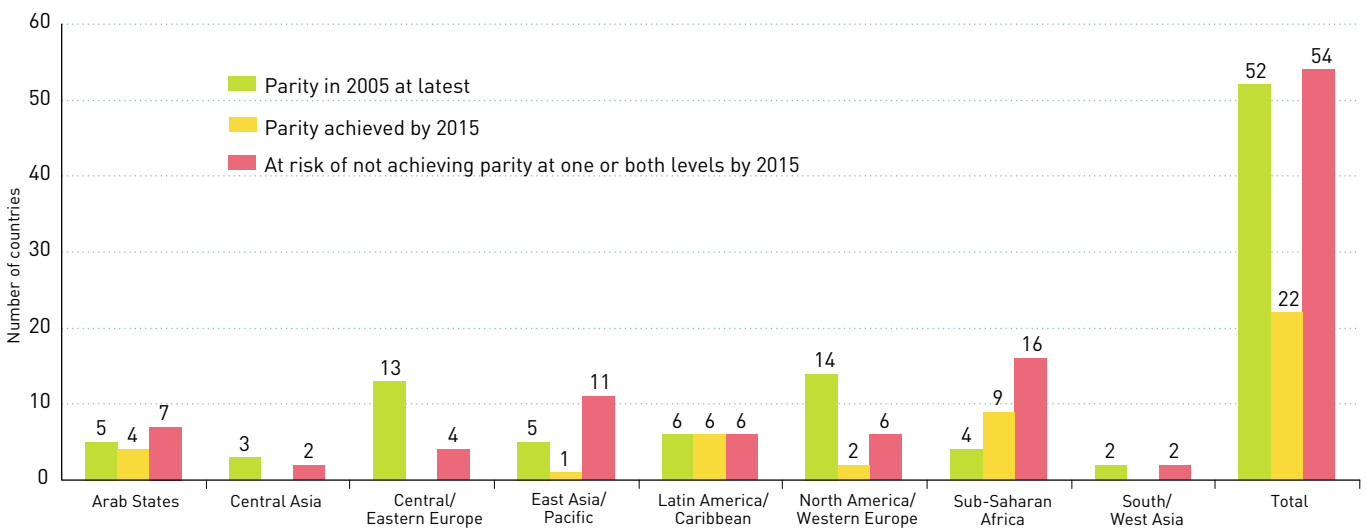
- More than 40% of the countries shown (54 out of 128) are at risk of not achieving gender parity either in primary (9) or secondary education (33) or at both levels (12), even by 2015. These countries (shown in the pink area of the table) are mainly from sub-Saharan Africa (16), East Asia and the Pacific (11), and the Arab States (7). In some of those where far fewer girls are enrolled than boys, their situation has recently further deteriorated. On the other hand, it should be noted that nine of these countries (indicated in the footnotes to the table) are presently very close to achieving gender parity at both primary and secondary levels. Nevertheless, they are shown as being at risk even in 2015 because their recent enrolment trends have led them further from gender parity. With changes in policy it would be relatively easy for a number of these countries to achieve the gender parity goal.

- Finally, the countries where enrolment inequalities are in favour of girls are shown in blue in the table. As we know from earlier in this chapter, such countries are concentrated in Latin America and the Caribbean, Europe, the Arab States and Asia. It is significant that in almost all the countries where, on present trends, such disadvantage would remain by 2015, it would be at secondary level only.

The regional prospects are further summarized in Figure 2.43, which indicates the extent to which the countries at risk of not meeting the gender-parity goals are concentrated in sub-Saharan Africa. However, it should also be noted from Table 2.25 that, if past trends were to continue, both China and India are among those countries at risk of not achieving gender parity, even by 2015.

It must be emphasised, however, that these outcomes are by no means immutable. Although almost 60% of countries for which we have data are likely to miss reaching gender parity at one or both levels by 2005, for a good number of them policies are available to deliver it within the

Figure 2.43. Prospects of achieving gender parity in primary and secondary education, by region



Source: Table 2.25.

space of a few years. The ways in which their past record could change, in response to consistent policy commitment and reform, are indicated in later chapters of this report.

The Education For All Development Index (EDI)

The prominence given by the Millennium Declaration to the achievement of UPE and to gender parity in education risks less attention being given, internationally, to the four other EFA goals. There is a question as to how much this matters – in the sense that their achievement may be necessary (although probably not sufficient) for the achievement of the other goals. In this context, it would be useful to have some means of synthesizing information on all, or most of the goals, so as to indicate relative levels of progress towards EFA as a whole. An EFA Development Index (EDI), using a composite of a number of relevant indicators, can provide one way of doing this.

There are well-known problems associated with the construction and interpretation of indices. These relate to which elements and indicators to select, how they should be aggregated and weighted across different fields, and how the results should be used. For example, the constituents of a Human Development Index can be debated in terms of the meaning of the concept, what should constitute its most important elements, how these elements might be proxied, and – more fundamentally – whether there are other, more important, objectives of development policy which vitiate the need for such an index. In the case of EFA, some of these problems are less pressing. The international community has defined EFA in terms of a set of six time-bound goals; at least some of these goals can be measured in a quantitative sense; and a set of indicators has been agreed as regards what variables best proxy their attainment. Thus, in the case of an EFA development index, some of the problems of indicator selection, of weighting and of interpretation are likely to be less difficult to resolve.

If a major objective of such an index is to measure overall progress towards EFA, its constituents should ideally reflect all the six goals. In practice, however, this is difficult, as Goal 3 – learning and life-skills programmes – is not yet conducive to quantitative measurement.[38] For rather different reasons, ECCE cannot easily be incorporated at present, because the data are insufficiently standardized across countries, and they are, in any case, available for only a small minority of states. Accordingly, an EDI has been designed which incorporates indicators for the four goals of UPE, adult literacy, gender parity and the quality of education.

One indicator has been included as a proxy measure for each of these four EDI components.[39] This is in accordance with the principle of considering each goal to be equally important and, thus, of giving the same weight to each of the index constituents. So the EDI value for a particular country is the arithmetical mean of the observed values for each of its different constituents. As each of its constituents are percentages, its value can vary from 0 to 1. The closer it is to its maximum value, the less distance a country is from the goal and the greater its EFA achievement.

The EDI constituents and their related indicators are listed below.[40]

EFA Development Index (EDI)
- UPE: Net enrolment ratio.
- Adult literacy: Literacy rate of the age group 15 years and over.
- Gender: Gender-specific EFA index; this is the simple average value of the GPIs in primary education, secondary education and adult literacy.
- Education quality: Survival rate to Grade 5 in primary education.

All the data used to calculate this composite index are for the year 2000 (or 1999 where more recent data are not available). They are drawn from the UIS database, with the exception of some survival rates to Grade 5, which were missing for some countries. Instead, these were obtained from the national 'EFA 2000 Assessment' reports. Only those countries with a complete set of indicators required to calculate the EDI are included in the analysis. This unfortunately means that a comprehensive global overview of progress towards the goals cannot yet be given.

There are well-known problems associated with construction and interpretation of indices.

38. See pages 84-95, above.

39. However, as explained below, the gender component of the EDI is itself a composite index comprising measures of gender parity in primary and secondary education and adult literacy.

40. Appendix 2 provides a justification for selecting these particular indicators.

Table 2.26. Distribution of countries according to their mean distance from the EFA Goals in 2000

	Achieved EDI: 0.98-1.00	Close to the goal EDI: 0.95-0.97	Intermediate Position EDI: 0.80-0.94	Far from the goal EDI: less than 0.80	Subtotal sample	Total number of countries
Arab States			11	6	17	20
Central and Eastern Europe	3	1			4	20
Central Asia		1	2		3	9
East Asia and Pacific	1		8	2	11	33
Latin America/Caribbean		6	12	2	20	41
North America/Western Europe	2	1			3	26
South and West Asia	1		1	4	6	9
Sub-Saharan Africa			8	22	30	45
Total	7	9	42	36	94	203

Source: Table 1, Appendix 2.

The EFA Development Index can be calculated for ninety-four countries for the year 2000. Consequently, slightly less than half of the countries in the world are covered by these estimates. The index values for all available countries are shown in Table 1 in Appendix 2, and their regional incidence is shown in Table 2.26. Estimates are available for between half and four-fifths of the countries in sub-Saharan Africa, the Arab States, South and West Asia and Latin America. There is lower coverage for the OECD group (where data on some variables such as adult literacy rates and survival rates to grade five of primary education are missing for almost all of these countries), for other European countries and for those of East and Central Asia.

Very few countries have achieved the four most quantifiable goals.

It can be seen that, among the ninety-four countries having the data, very few (16) have either achieved the four most quantifiable EFA goals or are close to doing so. These figures are surprising, even though they exclude most of the Western European and North American countries, where EFA goal achievement is higher. It is also notable that no country from sub-Saharan Africa, the Arab States, or from South and West Asia (with the exception of Maldives) is presently close to achieving the goals. On the other hand, Table 1 in Appendix 2 shows that those which are close include a number of countries from Latin America – Argentina, Chile, Cuba, Guyana, and Panama – which have a long-established tradition of emphasizing widespread participation in basic education.

Forty-two countries have EDI values between 0.80 to 0.94. Countries in this group can be found in all regions except North America and Western Europe, and Central and Eastern Europe. However, a further thirty-six countries (representing 40% of those with EDI data) are very far from achieving the EFA goals, with EDI values lower than 0.8. As many as twenty-two of these lowest EDI countries are from sub-Saharan Africa (more than 60% of those in this category). They also include India, Pakistan, Bangladesh and Nepal. Table 1 in Appendix 2 reveals that, in most of these cases, there is low achievement across each of the EFA goals. Primary-school enrolments are low, gender ratios are highly unequal, illiteracy is widespread and high drop-out rates mean that many children – sometimes a majority – never reach the fifth grade of primary school. Thus, countries in this group are faced with multiple challenges that will have to be tackled simultaneously if EFA is to be secured (Box 2.13).

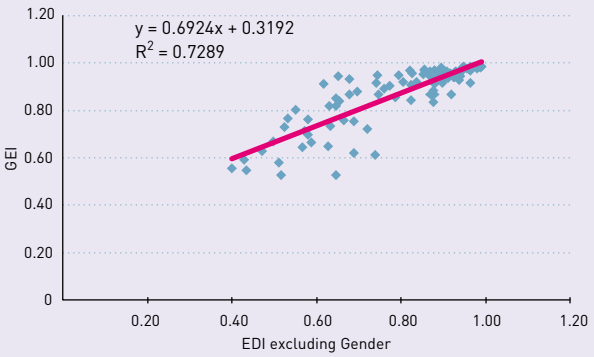
Box 2.13. Improving gender parity is the best predictor of progress towards EFA as a whole

The extent to which achieving one or other of the EFA goals is intertwined with achieving the rest can easily be demonstrated. The graphs below show how variation in each of the EDI constituents is associated with variation in the other three items. In general, it can be seen that countries achieving well on one of the EFA goals tend also to do well on the others. However, this also implies that those countries at low levels of EFA are faced with multiple aspects of educational deprivation – complicating massively their time-bound tasks.

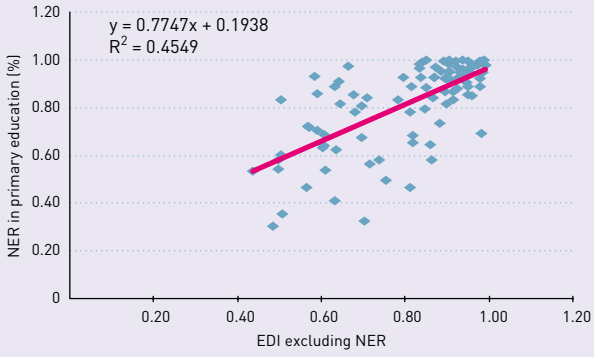
The results also show that the strongest association is between gender parity and the other EDI constituents. This variable explains 73% of the variance of mean scores for adult literacy, NER and the survival rate to grade 5 combined. Adult literacy is also a good predictor of EFA, explaining 67% of the variance of the other three EDI constituents. The NER and the survival rate are somewhat less strongly associated with the residual elements – explaining 45% and 32% of their respective variance in each case.

Thus, high survival rates and high NERs do not necessarily deliver gender parity and literacy in the short term. On the other hand, moves towards gender parity and, to a lesser extent, higher levels of adult literacy strongly signal the presence of other school-related improvements. These data show that, if we were seeking one indicator to summarize progress towards EFA, the single best proxy would be the gender-parity variable: the average gender balance among primary and secondary school pupils and literate adults.

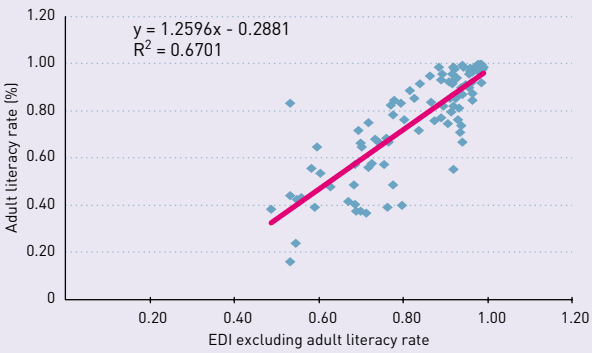
EDI and gender equality



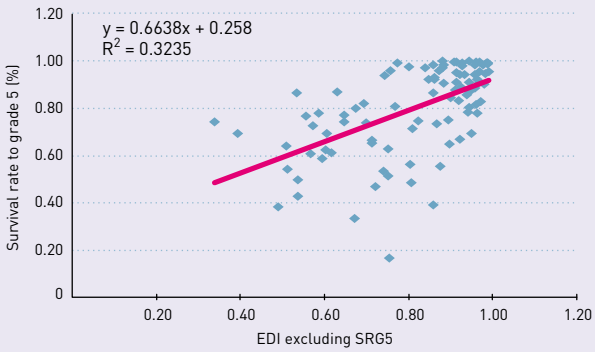
EDI and NER

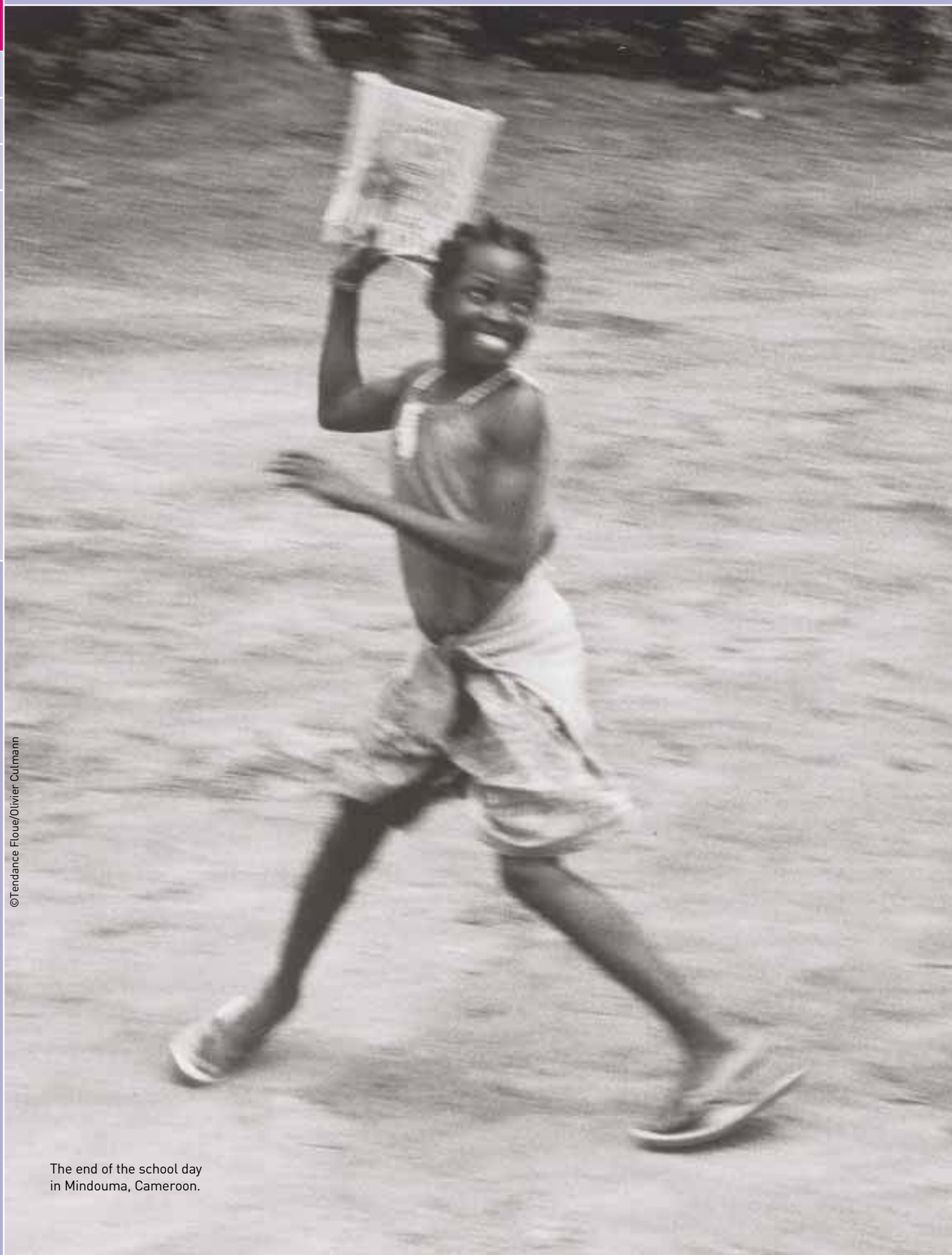


EDI and adult literacy



EDI and quality





©Tendance Floue/Olivier Culmann

The end of the school day
in Mindouma, Cameroon.

Chapter 3

Why are girls still held back?

Progress has been made towards gender parity in enrolment at primary and secondary levels in all regions over the last ten years. However, the record differs quite strongly between countries. Although for many the goal is now within reach, at current rates of progress a large minority of countries will not achieve gender parity at primary and secondary levels by 2005. This chapter identifies the most important factors that continue to hinder progress. The task of achieving gender equality in education at all levels by 2015 is more profoundly challenging. There has been little attempt to further define this goal. Accordingly, this chapter examines what is meant by 'gender equality in education', identifying constraints to its attainment and providing a basis for the policy analysis in Chapter 4.

The leap from parity to equality

Gender equality in education will not be possible without wider social change in many societies.

As indicated in Chapter 2, gender parity, which refers to the equal participation of both sexes in different levels of education, is a quantitative concept. Gender parity indicators are static, measuring, for example, the relative proportions of girls and boys with access to, or participating in, primary schooling. However, viewed over time, they can serve as more dynamic indicators of change. To the extent that progress towards gender parity suggests a weakening of the factors that keep women and men in unequal positions, it represents the first steps towards achieving equality of outcomes for the sexes.

However, gender parity indicators have some limitations, even when they are available over time. First, even if progress towards parity appears to be being made, this sometimes masks declines in male or female enrolment and participation, rather than indicating positive gains for both boys and girls. Second, a focus on quantitative balances reveals nothing about the processes by which they are being secured, nor about the qualitative changes that would be necessary if gender parity is to lead to full equality.

Gender equality requires the achievement of equal outcomes for women and men, notwithstanding that they are starting from different positions of advantage, and are constrained in different ways. Women differ from men both in terms of their biological capacities and in the socially constructed disadvantages they currently face. Inequalities arise from unequal power relations between women and men, and hence assessments of progress towards gender equality need to establish whether the changes that are being achieved are significantly altering these relations. The erasure of the social norms that see women and men as making unequal contributions to society and having unequal entitlements to its benefits is critical to achieving a society free from gender discrimination. Thus, whether women and men are being treated equally will depend on whether the fundamental freedoms and choices they confront are the same.

Education is in many ways a fulcrum for this process, as Chapters 3 and 4 demonstrate. It reflects contemporary norms and values, but it also helps to change them. Full gender equality in education would imply that girls and boys are offered the same chances to go to school and that they enjoy teaching methods and curricula free of stereotypes, and academic orientation and counselling unaffected by gender bias. Most fundamentally, it implies equality of outcomes in terms of length of schooling, learning achievement and academic qualifications and, more broadly, equal job opportunities and earnings for similar qualifications and experience. These objectives are demanding, and are far from being achieved in most societies. It is clear that the achievement of gender equality in education – in the sense of equal outcomes – will not be possible in the absence of wider social change in many societies. The question of whether and how this might occur over the coming decade requires an assessment not merely of the prospects for, and limits of, educational reform, but also of more fundamental changes that affect many other sectors and areas of life and work.

Constraints through a rights agenda

In order to examine these broad sets of constraints and possibilities, it is useful to employ a framework that draws upon the rights agenda articulated in Chapter 1. This distinguishes between individuals' rights *to* education and their rights *within* and *through* education.[1] The determinants of gender inequality within each of these dimensions need to be addressed if the gender goals are to be achieved.

The analysis of problems affecting the exercise of rights *to* education focuses on questions of educational access for boys and girls. The next two sections of this chapter examine constraints to the fulfilment of those rights operating within the family and within the wider society. Extreme circumstances of crisis such as those resulting from conflict and HIV/AIDS, which disrupt societies and families, are considered as well as educational processes.

The discussion then moves to a consideration of rights *within* education. The neglect of gender issues within education systems affects the achievement of gender parity and equality in a

1. Adapted from Wilson (2003). See also Subrahmanian (2003).

range of ways. Gender-aware school systems are crucial if participation of girls and boys is to be sustained. The elimination of gender inequalities within education can help to build the foundations of broader gender equality for the long term.

Finally, rights *through* education are considered in order to emphasize the interdependence of educational reform and broader social and economic change. Changes in any of the dimensions of gender inequality have an impact elsewhere. Equally, the maintenance of gender inequality outside the education system is one of the most profound constraints to achieving gender equality within it. Some important aspects of this interdependence are identified and analysed in the final part of the chapter.

Rights to education: what happens outside the school?

It is clear that extreme inequality in enrolments between girls and boys is particularly associated with low overall enrolments and with the incidence of poverty (Box 3.1). Inequality is not determined by poverty, because there are cases of poor countries where parity of enrolments has been achieved, but it appears to be part of the story. Why is this so?

In general, inequality in educational participation and outcomes reflects broader inequalities in society. These embrace social norms and customs, which create powerful incentives that guide people's behaviour, and determine the roles that women and men can have in the family

Box 3.1. Gender and primary enrolments: some simple associations

In general, the lower a country's primary enrolment ratio, the greater the proportionate inequality between male and female enrolments. In the great majority of cases, such inequality is to the disadvantage of girls. Accordingly, the expansion path for enrolment growth within countries is typically unequal – where enrolments are low, boys are given preference in most countries and most regions of the world (Figure 3.1). There are, however, significant exceptions. The Islamic Republic of Iran, the Niger, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia are all countries where net enrolments are far less than 100%, yet where gender parity has been virtually achieved. Thus, the national context, including differences in policy, can clearly change the pattern.

Poverty contributes to under-enrolment. Figure 3.2 shows that primary net enrolment ratios rise with per capita income. However, there is considerable variability around the regression line. This is particularly true for countries at income levels lower than US$1,000 per capita, where many of the states of sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia are concentrated.

Accordingly, the gendered inequality of enrolments also falls as per capita incomes increase (Figure 3.3). Again, however, there is substantial variation, particularly at lower income levels. Thus, incomes need to be quite high (in excess of US$3,500 per capita) before inequality in enrolment is consistently removed. Similar relationships to these are found at the secondary level.

Figure 3.1.
Scatter plot of the gender parity index (GPI) against net enrolment ratio (NER) in primary education (2000)

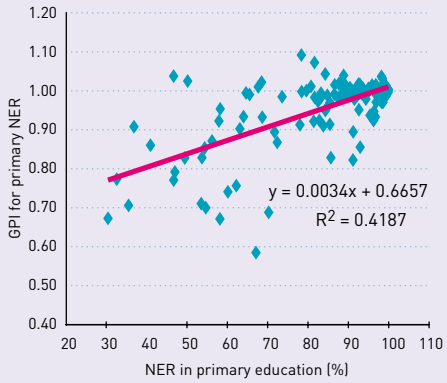


Figure 3.2.
Scatter plot of per capita GNP against primary NER (2000)

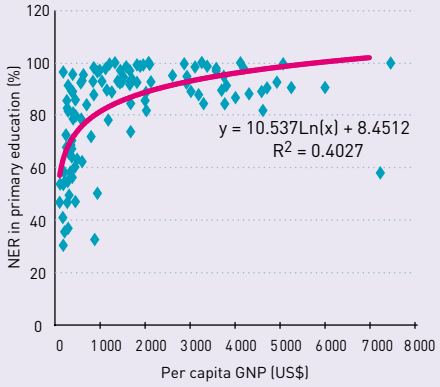
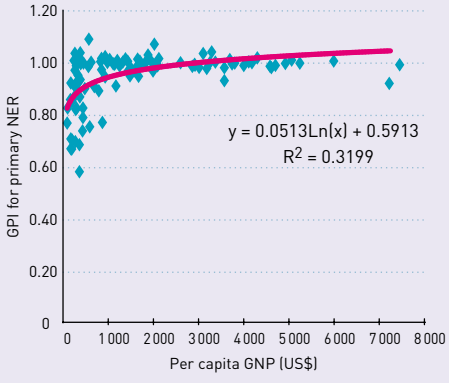


Figure 3.3.
Scatter plot of GPI for primary NER and per capita GNP (2000)



Source: Statistical annex, Tables 1 and 5.

and community. Social norms are embedded in kinship and religious systems that are highly diverse across – and often within – societies. However, such norms can and do change – in response to environmental and economic change and to broader political and social developments. Change can result from deliberate actions of state and civil society groups, leading to reforms in the legislative and institutional framework of society. In these ways, changes in the expectations and incentives that govern human behaviour – including those that affect educational participation and performance – can be achieved.

The most important place for decisions about participation in schooling is the family.

The critically important locus for decision-making as regards participation in schooling is the family. It is here that notions of gender relations are transmitted from one generation to the next. This happens implicitly via the gender roles that members of the household themselves fulfil, and explicitly by consequence of the gender frameworks within which children of each sex are brought up. Households allocate time for different activities among their members, and they also allocate resources – for consumption, savings and investment, including those associated with the formation of human capital – between each of them. As indicated above, decisions made by households are influenced by the broad social and institutional framework of custom and opportunity in which they are located. Nevertheless, changing the factors that affect household constraints, opportunities and incentives is a critically important means of influencing their decision-making. These issues are explored below.

In households, who decides?

The main ways in which children spend their time, and the amount of resources to which they have access, are determined by the households in which they live. The broad parameters for household behaviour are set by the social and institutional framework of each society. However, within that context, a key question is whether households make decisions in ways which balance the relative needs and interests of each of their individual members, or whether they do not. Traditionally it was thought they did. Economic and social policy proceeded as if households had a single set of preferences. The ways in which household resources, work obligations and opportunities for leisure were allocated among household members were not thought to be important. According to this 'unitary' model, it was taken as given, for example, that changes in the balance of expenditure would be consistent, not necessarily with an equal distribution of resources, but at least with maximizing household welfare, however defined (Becker, 1965). Yet concern about subgroups within households – such as women or children – invites the question of whether the distribution of power within the household results in some of its members having a less than equal share of its joint resources. In short, do women or girls have a tougher time than men or boys, in part because their influence over decision-making in the household is usually weaker?

Recent theoretical and empirical work shows that this is so. It appears that resource allocation decisions within households are inconsistent with the 'unitary' household model. In particular, additional income accruing to different household members has different implications for household expenditure patterns. Women seem to spend more on education, health and household services than do men. Thus the evidence against income and labour pooling and against family altruism is strong (Hoddinott et al., 1997) and an approach premised on bargaining within households better captures the reality.

From private to public sphere

While households are not a collection of individuals co-operating in the interests of maximizing economic gains (Kabeer, 2001), neither are they a groups of people acting as if they were single individuals. Households are, by and large, made up of families, and hence they are the sites of particular kinds of social relationships, which are very distinct from other relationships in any society. Institutional approaches that take account of this have been used to elucidate the process of household decision-making (Todaro and Fapohunda, 1988; Kabeer, 1994, 2000; Cain, 1984; Whitehead, 1981; Whitehead and Kabeer, 2000; Folbre, 1994).

Within such an approach, 'households' and other domestic arrangements are seen as institutional responses to the need for long-term stable relationships. These are based on meeting the basic survival needs of members, bearing and raising children and coping with illness, disability and old age in a world characterized by

uncertainty (Kabeer, 1994, Chap. 5). Powerful ideologies of family and kinship bind household members to each other through socially sanctioned 'implicit contracts'. These ideologies carry mutual claims and obligations in ways that are often highly unequal. They are not 'invented' by individual households; they are embedded in wider social norms and values and hence exercise an influence that goes beyond (but serves to buttress) the authority of senior individuals within the household (Whitehead, 1981).

Households take diverse forms across the world. One important principle of difference relates to gender relations.[2] Most societies observe some gender division of labour within the home, with women taking primary responsibility for caring for the family, whereas men tend to be associated with the work outside the home, often on a paid basis. This division of labour goes some way towards explaining the gender inequalities in human capabilities observed in many nations.

All-round dependence

However, societies differ considerably in the extent to which women also participate in paid work outside the home: the most marked gender inequalities are generally found in societies where women are confined to the home and denied the possibility of participating in work outside it (Townsend and Momsen, 1987; Kabeer, 2003*a*; Sen, 1990). These restrictions tend to be associated with other values and practices that further inhibit women's life chances, including patrilineal principles of inheritance and descent, where family line and property is transmitted through men; patriarchal structures of authority, where families are tightly knit and where most resources are under the control of the senior male; and patri-local systems of marriage requiring women to be absorbed into their husbands' families after marriage, distancing them from the support of their natal families. The restrictions on women's movements in the public domain in such societies reflect the importance attached to the biological paternity of children and the need to control women's sexuality. Denied access to resources of their own and restricted in their ability to provide for themselves, women tend to be regarded as economic dependents in such societies.

Son preference

Such societies have been – and many continue to be – characterized by marked son-preference and by discrimination against daughters from the early years of life. This occurs to such an extent that such societies often have excess levels of female mortality and a higher proportion of men to women in the population than is considered 'standard' in the rest of the world (Kabeer, 2003*b*). Countries in which there is strong cultural preference for sons also tend to have the greatest levels of gender inequalities (UNIFEM, 2002, p. 13). These societies exhibit 'extreme' forms of patriarchy. They are to be found in countries of North Africa, the Middle East, South Asia (Pakistan, much of India and Bangladesh) and East Asia (China, Republic of Korea). Gender inequalities in education in such societies are simply one aspect of a generalized and systematic discrimination against women and girls.

Countries with strong cultural preference for sons usually have the greatest gender inequalities.

Although other parts of the world are also characterized by a gender division of domestic labour, they do not exercise the same restrictions on women's ability to participate in the wider economy – even though such participation may be onerous, given women's other domestic responsibilities. Thus while gender inequalities exist in these societies, they have not taken the extreme, life-threatening forms noted above.

In these ways, differences in gender relations within and outside the household reflect society-wide norms, values and practices rather than privately determined choices. To that extent they change only slowly in response to changes in individual or household circumstances. At the same time, they are not immutable. Like other aspects of social behaviour, they have often shown evidence of change over time, with both positive and negative outcomes for women.

Acting on social and economic forces

Thus it is the complexity of interaction between social norms and values and broader economic change which explains the diversity of enrolment outcomes illustrated in Figures 3.1 to 3.3 (see Box 3.1). The mechanisms that are capable of delivering greater equality are not necessarily put in place by economic growth – or by income growth at the household level – alone. Other social forces are of equal significance, as demonstrated later in this report.

2. Indeed, while absolute levels of education across the world are closely associated with levels of economic development, it is impossible to explain observed patterns of gender inequality in education without some reference to patterns of gender relations prevailing in different contexts (Kabeer, 2003*a*).

Box 3.2. Gender inequalities in education: the South Asian case

The broad pattern of social relations in South Asia provides a compelling illustration of their influence on gendered outcomes. Throughout that region, variations in gender inequality in education partly mirror regional variations in patriarchy. There is a well-documented 'north–south' divide among Indian states such that those in the north-western plains have historically displayed a pattern of extreme discrimination whereas southern states have had more egalitarian relations (Dyson and Moore, 1983; Miller, 1981). It is also significant that the northern states generally had higher levels of fertility, lower levels of contraceptive use, lower levels of female labour-force participation and more marked son-preference than states in the south.

This regional pattern confounds the relationship between economic development and gender equality at the 'state' level. Thus, Punjab and Haryana in northern India reported the highest state-level per capita incomes in 1981 as well as some of the lowest sex ratios (around 870 women to 1,000 men) whereas Kerala and Tamil Nadu, both southern states with lower per capita incomes, reported sex ratios of 1,032 and 977, respectively. The relationship between gender equality and poverty is further complicated by caste. Historical evidence and contemporary data all confirm that gender discrimination is particularly marked among the propertied castes in northern India. It has been shown that, in the early 1930s, sex ratios among the 0–7 age group were generally substantially in favour of males among the propertied castes in the northern plains of India, and even more so among the propertied upper castes. In the southern states, on the other hand, the propertied castes either had balanced or female-biased sex ratios whereas the 'unpropertied' castes had balanced or slightly male-biased ratios (Miller, 1985). The pattern was continued into the 1980s, but there was a 'worsening' of sex ratios both among poorer castes and in some of the southern states over time, suggesting the spread of forms of gender discrimination to groups and areas where they were not previously prevalent (Agnihotri, 2000).

Elsewhere in the region, Pakistan displays many of the characteristics of the 'northern' pattern while Sri Lanka appears to have more in common with the southern states. The mountainous areas of northern India and Nepal are generally more egalitarian than the plains. Bangladesh, along with eastern states of India, has proved less easy to classify. They have certain characteristics in common with the northern states but appear not to have such markedly adverse sex ratios (Dyson and Moore, 1983).

Thus, in South Asia, variations in poverty provide only part of the explanation for observed variations in gender inequality in education. Pakistan, for example, with higher per capita GNP than either India or Bangladesh, reports higher levels of gender inequality in education than either country (Annex, Table 1).

Source: Kabeer (2003*a*, 2003*b*).

One of the commonest reasons for children not attending school is that their families need them to work.

Child labour: a major brake on schooling

Whether all children will be sent to school depends on the extent to which households continue to see themselves as requiring the labour of their children in order to achieve tolerable levels of welfare. Owing to the importance of child labour as a major constraint on school participation – with a strongly differentiated impact on girls and boys – this factor needs prominent attention in policy design.

Figures only tell part of the story

One of the commonest reasons for children not attending school is that their families need them to work. Sometimes this work is paid, but mostly it is unpaid and takes place within the household or on the family farm. Global estimates of the incidence of work performed by children are available – as for adults – only for work leading to a marketable output. This includes waged work, but also regular work done on a household farm or enterprise. People engaged in these economic activities are conventionally described as being economically active and, when they are children, as being child labourers. Most recent estimates suggest that about 18% of children aged 5–14 are economically active in those ways, amounting to some 211 million children in 2000 (Table 3.1), roughly half of whom were girls. About 25 million of these children were estimated to be involved in work for their families which was consistent with their development. But some 186 million of them were involved in some form of child labour which was harmful to their development. Although many of these child labourers work for only a few hours per week,

more than half of them are estimated to be working full time on the production of marketable output (ILO, 2002*a*). There are no reliable global estimates for the number of children engaged in domestic chores and other household work that does not lead to marketable output. It is safe to assume, however, that the number of such children is several times greater than those formally described as being 'economically active' – and thus as comprising 'child labour' – and that the girls who find themselves in this category considerably outnumber the boys.

There are dramatic differences in the incidence of child labour by region. Africa has the highest incidence (41%) while Asia and Latin America have 21% and 17%, respectively. Asia, being more population-dense, has the largest number of child labourers. Of children in work, it is estimated that 61% are in Asia (128 million), 32% in Africa (68 million) and 7% (15 million) in Latin America. While the incidence of child labour in Asia and Latin America has witnessed a secular decline in the post-war era, this is not the case in sub-Saharan Africa. There, fertility remains high and per capita resources for education have often been in decline. Slow or negative economic growth, famine and disease, war and conflict and the spread of HIV/AIDS in Africa have all contributed further to keeping the incidence of child labour high.

Parents: the main employer

The vast majority of working children – i.e. those helping to produce marketable output – in developing countries are engaged in agricultural work, typically on family-run farms.[3] Accordingly, the work participation rates of children tend to be higher in rural than in urban areas. Child work in export-sector factories, many of which are in urban locations, is thus by no means the general case of child labour. Although in Latin America and Asia, a small but significant fraction of children work outside the household for a wage, this is much less common in Africa, where wage labour markets are more incipient. Parents are, therefore, the main employers of children, and affecting their circumstances and attitudes is the major challenge in reducing child labour.

Second, and contrary to what is often assumed, child labour is not the inverse of school attendance. Many children from all developing regions, but especially African children, combine working on family-run farms and enterprises with attending school.[4] Inevitably, however, there is a trade-off between work participation and school attendance in such circumstances.[5] Achievement is also affected: the quality of the school experience for working children is undermined not only by their more irregular attendance, but also by their ability to apply themselves while at school being reduced by their responsibilities outside it.[6]

Third, most countries exhibit large gender differentials in child labour-force participation. In Africa and Asia, the educational participation and attainment of girls tends to be less than that of boys. However, the data on child labour do not always show girls as being more heavily engaged in work than boys because they are often more likely than boys to be classed as 'inactive'. This probably corresponds to their having a greater engagement in household chores, which is not conventionally counted as economic activity.[7] Often the poverty of households is a distinguishing characteristic – with those supplying boy labourers being on average poorer than those supplying girl labourers. In rural Pakistan, for example, it appears that boys take wage work only when their income contribution is necessary to household subsistence, whereas girls take wage work even when the household could survive without the money (Bhalotra, 2000). A broad interpretation of the empirical literature

Table 3.1. Number and percentages of children engaged in economic activity, child labour and worst forms of child labour, by age (2000)

	5–14 years		15–17 years		Total	
	Number (millions)	% of age group	Number (millions)	% of age group	Number (millions)	% of age group
Economically active children	210.8	18	140.9	42	351.7	23
of which: Child labourers	186.3	16	59.2	18	245.5	16
of which: Children in worst forms of child labour	–	–	–	–	178.9	11.5
Children in hazardous work	111.3	9	59.2	18	170.5	11
Children in unconditional worst forms[1]	–	–	–	–	8.4	0.5

Note: A dash indicates that figures are not available. ILO estimates for 2000; United Nations estimates for 2001.
1. For example, forced and bonded labour, prostitution and pornography and other illicit activities.
Sources: ILO (2002*a*, p. 18); United Nations (2001*b*).

3. This fact emerges from an array of household survey data from developing countries including the World Bank Living Standards Measurement Surveys (LSMS) and the International Labour Organization's SIMPOC Surveys. Many authors report the higher incidence of rural as compared with urban work and of household-based as opposed to market work. For partial surveys of the empirical research see Andvig (1999), Bhalotra and Tzannatos (2002), Edmonds (2003). A comparison of African and Asian data is made, using the cases of Ghana and Pakistan, in Bhalotra and Heady (2001).

4. Relevant data for India are presented in Cigno and Rosati (2002) (where, exceptionally, the fraction of 'idle' children is greater among boys than girls), for Nepal and Viet Nam in Edmonds (2003), for Ethiopia in Cockburn (2002) and for Ghana and Pakistan in Bhalotra and Heady (2001).

5. See, for example, Boozer and Suri (2001), for Ghana.

6. This is shown, for Ghana, in Heady (2003) and discussed, for Ethiopia, in Cockburn (2001*b*).

7. For these reasons many empirical studies investigating the effects of gender produce mixed results. See Psacharopoulos (1997), Alessie et al. (1992), Canagarajah and Coulombe (1997) and DeTray (1983) where data for boys and girls are pooled, and a gender dummy variable is introduced. In general, significant gender effects are found where separate models for girls and boys are estimated [e.g. Nielsen (1998), Ilahi (1999), Cockburn (2001*a*), Ray (2000), Bhalotra (2000, 2001), Bhalotra and Heady (2000)] or when surveys explicitly include domestic chores alongside work aimed at producing marketable output.

In Ethiopia and Guinea, up to a third of school drop-outs said their need to earn money or work on the family farm were their main reasons for leaving school early.

suggests that the proportions in work and out of school are larger for girls than for boys in Asia, the proportion in work but not necessarily the proportion out of school is larger for boys than for girls in Latin America, and the proportions of boys and girls in work are roughly similar in most parts of Africa, although the girls who are out of school comprise a significant majority.

Girls and domestic work

In all these cases there is strong gender segmentation in occupations. This is particularly so if domestic labour is included. Even where their labour participation rates are similar, boys and girls often specialize in different sorts of work. For example, in Ethiopia, Guinea and the United Republic of Tanzania, girls specialize in domestic work, such as looking after siblings, preparing and cooking food, cleaning the house and fetching water and firewood. Boys, on the other hand, are mainly involved in working on the family farm, looking after livestock and engaging in income-earning activities. In terms of the range and frequency of work activities practised in these three countries, including domestic chores, girls help their families more than boys (Colclough et al., 2003, pp. 136–7; Cockburn, 2001*b*). In rural Pakistan, girls in waged work are mainly engaged in seasonal agricultural work, whereas boys in waged work are primarily engaged in the non-agricultural sector (Bhalotra, 2000). Proxy evidence also exists from household surveys for many developing countries, which find that a substantial fraction of children are neither in work nor in school. This fraction is typically larger for girls than for boys – an indication that 'doing nothing', as reported by such surveys will, in many cases, correspond to doing housework. Other school-based surveys for a large number of countries show that household and domestic work is a significant reason for non-attendance, and more so for girls than for boys. In Ethiopia and Guinea, between one-quarter and one-third of school drop-outs surveyed indicated that their need to earn money or to work at home on the family farm were the main reasons for leaving school early. In both countries the girls who dropped out for these reasons did so mainly in order to help the family in the home, whereas the boys who did so cited work on the family farm, or earning money as having been their main intent (Colclough et al., 2003).

Finally, the history and geography of child labour show that its incidence falls as economic development proceeds.[8] Its existence is undoubtedly partly a result of poverty. However, the beneficial impact of increased wealth or income may often be rather indirect. In many cases those at school are on average from richer households than school drop-outs who, in turn, are from better-off backgrounds than those children who have never been enrolled.[9] On the other hand, household surveys often suggest that the relationship between income and child labour at the household level is weak and, related to this, surveys often reveal a considerable prevalence of child labour among households that are not subsistence poor (Andvig, 1999; Bhalotra and Tzannatos, 2002; Brown et al., 2003). Furthermore, the ownership of productive assets such as land sometimes increases child labour, owing to the increased need for household labour for those with larger land holdings.[10] This needs further investigation in a broader range of contexts, because the effectiveness of income transfer programmes aimed at reducing child labour is dependent on parents being altruistic – in the sense that those having the choice would not want their children to work.

Targeting mothers

One of the explanations for the indirect relationship between income and child labour may be – as discussed above – that women and men have different preferences and power within households. A growing literature argues that the relative power of women in deciding how to spend household resources (including deciding on the level of investment in schooling) increases with their earning power. Recent work has shown that the incidence of child labour can be expected to be lowest where power is equally divided between husbands and wives (Basu, 2001). Data from Indonesia suggest that children work less and study more in households where the mother has more influence in decision-making (Galasso, 1999). Other studies allow for the possibility that child workers are independent bargainers who influence the allocation of resources within the household. In rural Pakistan, for example, ignoring work status, no gender differential is apparent in the allocation of resources. However, once work status is allowed for, it is found that working boys acquire a larger share of household resources such as food and child-specific goods than do non-working (or dependent) boys. In

8. This is evident from aggregate statistics on child labour presented by country and year (see ILO, 2002). Using cross-country data for eighty-three rich and poor countries, Dessy and Vencatachellum (2003) find a negative correlation of child labour and the log of per capita GDP (at purchasing power parity). (They also find a positive relation of child labour incidence and the log of the Gini index of inequality.)

9. In Ethiopia and Guinea, increases in household wealth improve the chances of all children's school attendance, but significantly more so for girls than for boys. See Rose and Al-Samarrai (2001); Tembon and Al-Samarrai (1999).

10. Bhalotra and Heady (2000) illustrate this argument with a theoretical model, and present evidence from rural Ghana and Pakistan. See also Cockburn (2001*a*) and Skoufias (1993).

contrast, working does not bestow any benefit on girls. Although this may reflect differential preferences, it may rather be that dependent girls are as heavily engaged in domestic chores as working girls are in more explicit forms of work. This is in contrast to working boys who may in fact be more active than dependent boys (Bhalotra and Attfield, 1998).

In the name of tradition

Social norms play a significant role in explaining why and how gender differentiation occurs, how it becomes legitimized through divisions of labour between men and women, and how this division of labour results in the contributions of girls and boys being valued differently. Norms of female dependence on males are institutionalized through a range of social mechanisms so that they come to appear natural and immutable. These norms are usually stubborn, but they can be challenged through pro-active measures.

Contrary to the assumptions of many parents, girls will go to great lengths to attend school (see Box 3.3). Once there, they work hard and often outperform boys in their studies, as Chapter 2 demonstrates. However, many parents recognize that existing social conditions are often unsupportive of those girls and women who offend social norms. Some Ethiopian fathers, for example, noted that more educated girls face problems because they cannot find a husband or employment opportunities; they will get older, have to stay with their parents and bring shame upon the family; thus the only options are for educated girls to migrate to bigger towns, often to lead a miserable life working as house servants or even prostitutes (Colclough et al., 2003).

Early marriage as a form of insurance

Where female autonomy is considered unstable or risky, early marriage is used as a means of securing daughters' futures. This massively impedes the educational progress of girls in many countries. Data from India for 1996 show that 38% of girls aged 15–19 were married.[11] In rural areas of Albania and Tajikistan it is not uncommon for poor families to endorse the early marriage of girls to lighten the family's economic burden. In these circumstances, early marriage (at age 15 or 16) becomes a reason to leave school (Magno et al., 2002). Here, and in the other countries shown in Table 3.2, girls are significantly more likely to be married than their male peers.

Although it is well known that marriage of children and adolescents before the age of 18 is very common in some parts of the world, its overall prevalence is difficult to assess. Many such marriages are not registered. Small-scale studies suggest, however, that national data significantly underestimate its prevalence. For

Box 3.3. Ethiopian girls speak up

Silenat Libsework, student:

I am now in grade four. I was 7 years old when I was married. Now I am 14. I wanted to come back to school and left my husband. I am now doing well. I have never failed in my exams. I am the first daughter. My two younger brothers are in grades seven and four. The youngest sister is not yet of school age. I regret that I was married and now I advise others not to do so.

Tadfe Tsega, student:

Now I am in grade two. I am 15 years old I was married twice, at the ages of 10 and 12. I did not stay with my second husband. My cousin advised me to go to school. I am the first child to my family and I have three sisters and two brothers. I like my lessons. I stood seventh among 120 students. My younger sister was married but because of my advice she now goes to school. My parents are not very willing to send me to school. None the less I want to continue and will advise other girls to do the same.

Source: Cited in Yelfign (2003).

Table 3.2. Married adolescents: percentage of 15–19 year olds married, various years

	Boys	Girls
Sub-Saharan Africa		
D. R. Congo	5	74
Niger	4	70
Congo	12	56
Uganda	11	50
Mali	5	50
Asia		
Afghanistan	9	54
Bangladesh	5	51
Nepal	14	42
Middle East		
Iraq	15	28
Syrian Arab Rep.	4	25
Yemen	5	24
Latin America and Caribbean		
Honduras	7	30

Source: Cited in Wilson (2003).

11. These comprised 46% of those in rural areas and 22% of those in urban centres.

Girls are sometimes 'kidnapped' on their way to or even at school by parents for marriage to their sons.

example, in 1998, in the Indian state of Madhya Pradesh, 14% of girls between the ages of 10 and 14 were already married. In Nepal, 40% of girls are married by the time they are 15. In Ethiopia and in some countries in West Africa, marriage at 7 or 8 is not uncommon, although in some cases girls are reported to be able to carry on their education even after moving to their in-laws' household (Rose, 2003*a*). Even boys marry under pressure from parents, earlier than they would wish although not as early as girls (Save the Children, 2003).

In themselves, changes to the legal age of marriage are unlikely to alter local practices if underlying conditions are not changed. For example, despite a recent policy change in Ethiopia, whereby the minimum official age of marriage for girls became 18, in some parts of the country girls are still married before the age of 10. Moreover, in some areas girls are not infrequently 'kidnapped' on their way to school, or even from within the school compound itself, by the parents of boys, for marriage to their sons. Cognisant of this risk, some parents refuse to send their daughters to school. Promoting the importance of girls' education through campaigns, role models, improving conditions of safety and security for girls and working directly with adolescent girls to strengthen their voice are all important measures to help communities to allow girls to complete their education.

Cultural practices and rites of passage

A more complex set of issues affecting girls' education are traditional practices that mark adolescence and the rites of passage. Box 3.4 discusses some of those that continue, in the name of religion or culture, to prevent both boys and girls from enjoying rights and freedoms associated with childhood. Many of these are linked to the construction of sexuality of young boys and girls, and in most cases result in restrictions being placed particularly on the freedom of girls to enjoy their right to education.

Some cultural practices inadvertently affect the incentives to educate girls. For example, the practice of bride price or *lobola* in many parts of southern Africa, whereby educated girls may attract a higher bride price, can serve as a powerful incentive for some parents to educate their daughters (SADC, 1999). In contrast, the practice of dowry in India often acts as a depressant on investments in a daughter, be it their education or health, by emphasizing the importance of girls' eligibility for marriage to the exclusion of all other considerations of personhood (Palriwala, 2003). However, where education is seen as improving the prospects for girls in the marriage market, it may be used purely as a means to that end (Jeffery and Basu, 1996; Jeffery et al., 2003).

Box 3.4. Puberty myths

Rites of passage for boys and girls differ around the world, but in most cases, they reflect gendered norms and beliefs about appropriate roles for adult life. There are many different practices associated with puberty, reproduction, marriage and the control of female sexuality. For example, in Nepal, Ghana and Nigeria, girls can be enslaved to atone for the sins of a male relative or to provide security for their family in other ways. In Ghana, the practise of 'trokosi' involves offering young female virgins – sometimes as young as 5 – to shrines where they are kept in servitude to priests in reparation for the sins of family members. One study estimated that in southern Ghana there were over 4,700 women in bondage in 1997. Female genital mutilation (FGM) remains widespread in both Islamic and Christian communities. It arises from myths relating to hygiene and sexuality, and is practised by people from all social classes, including the educated elite. Severe health, sexual and psychological effects are associated with FGM.

Poverty, conflict and complex crises such as those triggered by HIV/AIDS can also perpetuate such practices. For example, in the Sudan, increased poverty and displacement as a result of civil war appear to have increased the rate of early marriage, resulting in early pregnancies and a disruption of schooling. FGM has also spread among communities for whom this practice was not traditional.

Source: Save the Children (2003).

Adolescence and pregnancy

Social pressures on girls and boys are particularly strong during their puberty and the development of adolescent sexuality. In many countries, adolescent pregnancy, either within or outside marriage, almost always results in the discontinuation of a girl's schooling. In both Malawi and Chile, pregnancy was often mentioned as the most important reason for girls leaving school early, although statistical evidence is sparse (Kadzamira and Chibwana, 2000; Avalos, 2003). In the United Republic of Tanzania, the strong enforcing of compulsory education has meant that early marriage is not an important factor affecting girls, but pregnancy was cited as an important reason for girls dropping out of school. In addition, the high costs of schooling and the inability of poorer girls to buy school uniforms also may encourage them to seek sexual relationships with older men who can provide them with money.

Data compiled by the Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE, 1994) in eastern and southern Africa indicate that the school careers of many girls are cut short because they are expelled from school on becoming pregnant. Pre-marital pregnancy among girls is stigmatized in African communities even though its determining factors remain unaddressed. In Guinea and Malawi, where girls are now encouraged to return to school after pregnancy, few girls do so, partly because of parental fears that they would become pregnant again, and partly because girls are afraid of ridicule (Colclough et al., 2003).

Sexual taboos

A recent series of studies about management of puberty in primary schools in Uganda, Kenya and Zimbabwe concluded that the current management of sexual maturation within the primary system fails to meet the needs of children, but especially those of girls. In particular, children were denied:

- accessible and accurate information about the process of sexual maturation;
- essential facilities to ensure that children, especially girls, are not excluded from participation because of their maturing bodies;
- an appropriate value system through which boys and girls can be guided into safe and healthy adulthood.

The studies document the ways in which poor management of sexual maturation has had a detrimental impact on children's acquisition of basic learning competencies, and how girls who experienced menstruation without adequate preparation, or facilities, were regularly absent or even dropped out of primary school (Kasente, 2003).

Rights to education: children in special circumstances

Much of the preceding discussion has focused on families and the operation of gender inequalities within them. However, increasing numbers of children do not always fall within the conventional boundary of the 'family', and for them educational decision-making may be affected by a range of other factors. Households suffering from the strain of crises such as those unleashed by conflict and civil war and by the HIV/AIDS pandemic may no longer be able to send their children to school.

Households suffering from the strain of civil war and the HIV/AIDS pandemic may no longer be able to send their children to school.

Foster children

It may seem obvious to observe that whether or not children are brought up by their parents significantly affects their life chances. This, however, is an important factor in many developing countries, where households are large and complex. Nephews, nieces and sisters-in-law may often be counted among children along with sons and daughters of the head of household. In sub-Saharan Africa there is, further, a high prevalence of the practice of fostering children and of taking in orphans. In principle, it might be expected that parental altruism towards their own children would lead to non-biological children of household heads being more prone to involvement in child labour and less likely to be enrolled in school than biological children. This is confirmed by evidence from African countries.[12] Evidence of the biological-child effect, however, appears to be less apparent for child labour than it is for schooling. For example, an analysis of Peruvian data finds no effect (Levison and Moe, 1998). On the other hand, in rural Pakistan, sons and daughters of the household head are more likely to be in work than other children in the household. In rural Ghana, sons of the head of household are less likely to be in work but for daughters there are no differences, compared

12. Case et al. (2002) indicate that, in a cross-section of African countries, biological children of the household head, as opposed to other relatives and non-relatives, are more likely to attend school.

Box 3.5. How foster children fare in West Africa

The fostering of children is an ancient phenomenon in many parts of the world. In West Africa, where it is widespread, the traditional causes vary widely. They include illness, death, divorce or separation of parents, socialization and the wish to strengthen family ties (by blood or marriage). For the societies involved, child 'circulation' is a characteristic of family systems, fitting in with patterns of family solidarity and systems of rights and obligations.

In addition to reinforcing social bonds, this practice also appears to help maintain high fertility rates by spreading the economic burden of child-rearing more evenly. In some cases children may still have one or both biological parents alive, possibly even within the same household, although the household head may not be their parent.

Given the variations in definition, it is difficult to arrive at clear estimates of the exact extent to which fostering is taking place, as all children not living with a parent are deemed to be in 'foster care'. Demographic and health survey reports for eleven countries[13] provide more accurate information about parents' survival and residence, especially for children aged between 6–9 and 10–14, which is the usual school-age group. If children living with neither parent (whether alive or not) are considered to be in 'foster care' in these countries, then:

- foster children account for 10%–20% of the 6–9, and 13% –25% of the 10–14 age groups;
- in the overwhelming majority of these cases, both parents are alive but do not live with their child.

One factor explaining the large number of children involved is that many migrate from school-deprived areas in order to attend school elsewhere. On the other hand, there are gender differences. For girls, fostering may often be a reflection of the demand for domestic labour, whereas for boys it may reflect a concern with improving their schooling and life opportunities. The relationship between the custody of very young children and housework raises problems, particularly in households where both spouses work outside the home.

Similarly, the reality of many fostering situations is often not conducive to children's development. The costs for children's education, the extent of the guardian's responsibility for the child, and the emotional relationship between them are also likely to have a major influence on the opportunities made available for children in foster care. Actual situations are also highly diverse. Correspondingly, it is likely that a lower involvement on the part of the foster child's natural parent, especially financially (or in kind), would lead to a higher risk that the foster child will suffer mistreatment in the host family.

An analysis of data from a survey on the 'social dimensions of adjustment' in Côte d'Ivoire showed that education expenses earmarked for foster children were lower than those allotted to the household head's own children (De Vreyer, 1994). Usually, the host family expects foster children to perform some domestic tasks (washing dishes and clothes, carrying water, helping out with the cooking and shopping), or even to contribute to certain productive or commercial activities. Considered as a kind of payment, those chores might of course be compatible with a socialization and upbringing process in its broadest sense. But it has also been shown that 'sometimes these children are less well-fed, and work more than the others in the household, under the pretext of giving them a good upbringing. ... These children are practically thought of as domestic servants, and that can only have a negative influence on their scholastic performance' (Vandermeersch, 2000, p. 431). Thus, their chances of repeating, failing and dropping out of school are high. This problem is more acute for girls, who are required to perform more domestic chores. Moreover, fostering also carries the risk of 'psychological suffering' for the child (Savané, 1994). Thus, fostering for purposes of school enrolment does not protect children from abuse, mistreatment and other forms of exploitation that might lead them to fail or drop out of school.

Shocks and crises aggravate these circumstances. In particular, the HIV/AIDS pandemic sharply increases the number of foster children owing to parental mortality, thereby stretching the capacity of foster parents to provide for their families.

One key policy response is to increase provision of educational opportunities, particularly in rural areas. Moreover, developing early childhood centres to allow women to work and to have their younger children looked after by others could provide significant support.

Source: Pilon (2003).

13. Benin, 2001; Burkina Faso; 1992/93; Côte d'Ivoire, 1994; Ghana, 1998; Guinea, 1999; Mali, 2001; Mauritania, 2000/01; Niger, 1998; Nigeria, 1999; Senegal, 1992/93; Togo, 1998.

with other 10–14-year-old girls in the household (Bhalotra and Heady, 2000). These differences may partly exist because – as in the case of several West African countries – education features prominently in the reasons for fostering, particularly in the case of boys (Box 3.5). It can be expected, therefore, that it is also likely to be part of a solution.

HIV/AIDS: when women are hardest hit

In 2002, an estimated 42 million people worldwide lived with HIV/AIDS. The 5 million new infections and the 3.1 million HIV/AIDS-related deaths accounted for a rise of 2 million compared with the year before (UNAIDS/WHO, 2002). Behind these cold figures hides the immeasurable detrimental impact of HIV/AIDS on development in general and on education in particular, described in the *EFA Report 2002* (UNESCO, 2002*b*, pp. 117–22, 147–57).

The global proportion of women among the infected adults (aged 15–49) is estimated to be equal to, or somewhat higher than, the proportion of men. But there are striking differences among regions, and there is a tendency for the proportion of women to be higher in less-developed regions. In sub-Saharan Africa, women make up as much as 58% of those living with HIV/AIDS, against 20% in North America.[14]

The picture is especially bleak for adolescent girls, aged 15–19; in some of the worst-affected countries in southern Africa and the Caribbean, girls in this age group are infected at rates four to seven times higher than boys, a disparity linked to widespread exploitation, sexual abuse and discriminatory practices (Human Rights Watch, 2003, p. 12).

A primary factor in girls' vulnerability to HIV infection involves sexual violence and coercion. A Human Rights Watch report on Zambia stated: 'An alarming and apparently increasing number of abuses against girls come from members of their own families. Given the high HIV prevalence in the Zambian population, sexual abuse carries a high risk of HIV transmission. Nevertheless, the family, the broader community, and the law enforcement agencies are often complicit in attempting to hide the abuse. Effective protection mechanisms targeted at abuse against girls in the family are virtually nonexistent' (Human Rights Watch, 2003, p. 25).

Not even schools are safe places for girls. A South African Demographic and Health Survey asked women about rape in childhood, and found that schoolteachers were those most commonly responsible (33%) (Jewkes et al., 2002). The data show that approximately 1 in 200 South African women aged 15–49 was raped by a school teacher before the age of 15. For schoolgirls, more particularly, the South African Medical Research Council reported that half of those surveyed in 2000 had been forced to have sex against their will, one-third of them by teachers (Coombe, 2001). If both these figures are accurate, they imply that the incidence of rape has increased very substantially over recent decades. Given that South Africa has the largest number of people living with HIV/AIDS in the world, the implications of these levels of sexual violence are particularly disturbing.

A main reason for girls' vulnerability to HIV infection is sexual violence and coercion.

In many high-prevalence countries, poverty conspires with HIV/AIDS to affect the lives of girls very seriously (UNICEF, 2003*a*). When HIV/AIDS hits a family, girls are often the first to be taken out of school to care for an ailing parent or family member, or to take on responsibility for their siblings, sometimes as head of household. The direct costs of schooling may also soon become unbearable for such affected families, where in the worst cases girls may even be forced to provide for themselves and their families by engaging in relationships that might heighten, for themselves, the risk of HIV infection.

Girls' education is an important means of breaking such patterns of economic deprivation and dependence. It is however, sadly ironic that although education is an effective means of addressing the HIV/AIDS crisis, the epidemic puts new barriers in the way of girls' abilities to access education, whilst also undermining the education system itself (Fleishman, 2003). Nevertheless, there are indications that HIV infection may be declining more markedly among young, educated women than among those with less education. Studies point to the example of Zambia, where prevalence for young women aged between 15 and 19 dropped from 27% in 1993 to 15% in 1998. The decline was greatest among those with secondary and higher levels of education. Some have concluded that, if this apparent relationship between more education and less HIV is robust, in the absence of a physiological vaccine against HIV infection, society has at its disposal a 'social vaccine' in the

14. At the end of 2002, UNAIDS figures on the percentages of women (15–49 years) among those living with HIV/AIDS were: 58% in Africa; 55% in North Africa and the Middle East; 50% in the Caribbean; 36% in South and South-East Asia; 30% in Latin America; 27% in Eastern Europe and Central Asia; 25% in Western Europe; and 20% in North America (UNAIDS, 2002, p. 8).

Box 3.6. Fighting HIV/AIDS in Brazilian schools

The Culture and Communication Project implemented by UNAIDS has been a success story since it began in 1987. Working in 400 schools in 97 cities, it has published and distributed more than 900,000 newsletters and newspapers written by and for the students and their teachers. The publications cover issues such as reproductive health, STI/AIDS, human rights and advocacy. Since 1987, the project has run training courses for almost 2,000 students. With the support of UNICEF and the MacArthur Foundation, it aims to reach 1,000 schools by 2005.

Source: UNAIDS (2002).

form of education (Coombe and Kelly, 2001). In addition, there is some recent evidence of decline, or levelling off, of HIV prevalence in some urban areas of sub-Saharan Africa, which, for those between 15 and 19 years, may indicate some impact of prevention efforts (Donnelly, 2003). Box 3.6 provides an example from Brazil.

However, it does not follow that 'health literacy' is a natural product of general literacy, as the experience of South Africa and Botswana demonstrates. Both countries have relatively high levels of literacy and high HIV prevalence rates. This underscores the need to invest both in general literacy and health literacy specific to HIV/AIDS. This requires attention not only to basic facts about HIV/AIDS but also to enabling girls and young women negotiate their social and sexual lives more independently, armed with a better understanding of the implications of sexual activity (Fleishman, 2003).

But are education systems sufficiently prepared to play a crucial role in combating the epidemic? Stephen Lewis, the United Nations Secretary-General's Special Envoy for HIV/AIDS in Africa, reports that in 'all of the countries visited, teachers were dead, teachers were dying, teachers were ill and away from school. ... It felt, in every instance, as though the education sector was under siege. In Zambia, they lost 1,967 teachers in 2001, over 2,000 teachers in 2002; the teacher's colleges are graduating fewer than 1,000 a year. In parts of Malawi, HIV-positive teachers are estimated at over 30%'.[15]

Thus, extra resources would already be needed to merely keep education systems in affected countries functioning as they are. But actually to fight HIV/AIDS by means of education, even more resources are needed both on the supply side – to promote new training related to HIV/AIDS, to develop new curricula and content, and to provide counselling service; and on the demand side – to enable orphans and other affected children to attend school. All this needs to be accomplished at a time when other public sectors, especially health care, are claiming an ever-increasing share of the government budgets.

The worst-affected countries cannot mobilize these resources themselves by internal reallocation (UNESCO, 2002*b*, pp. 147–57). While one could argue that countries in normal circumstances need eventually to be able to sustain their education systems independently from external support, this principle needs to be set aside as long as HIV/AIDS ruins the lives of so many orphaned and infected girls and boys; and so long as it continues to have such a dramatic impact on the availability of the most important resource education systems have at their disposal – teachers.

Civilians at the heart of conflict

Armed conflict is a major barrier to development in general and to gender equality in education in particular. Armed conflict is estimated to affect some thirty countries in the world, mostly those who can least afford it; 80% of the world's wars are in Africa and Asia;[16] most conflicts during 2001 were internal (SIPRI Yearbook, 2003). In such internal struggle for control over territory and populations, civilians are increasingly placed at the heart of the conflict. Militias multiply and small arms proliferate. Civilians not only make up the majority of victims, they are increasingly the targets of conflict. Far from being unfortunate collateral damage of war, the destruction of civilian populations has been the very aim of some of the wars of the 1990s, as in Rwanda and Bosnia. Civilian casualties in wartime have climbed from 5% of the total in the early twentieth century to up to 90% during the wars of the 1990s.

Civilians are not only most of the victims, but increasingly the targets of conflict.

Impact of armed conflict on girls and women

The effects of armed conflict are different for men, women, boys and girls. In Bosnia and

15. Stephen Lewis, notes for a press briefing at the United Nations, 8 January 2003.

16. An armed conflict is defined as a political conflict in which 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 have been killed by the fighting during the course of the conflict (Project Ploughshares, 2002).

Herzegovina in 1995, Muslim men and older boys were rounded up and detained or executed, whereas women and girls were forced to leave (ICRC, 2001). Women and girls, on the other hand, are continually threatened by rape and sexual exploitation during armed conflict. During the conflict in the former Yugoslavia there were an estimated 20,000 victims of sexual assault, and in the 1994 genocide in Rwanda, many adolescent girls who survived militia attacks were raped (UNICEF, 1996). In times of war, in addition to the dangers of gunfire, bombings, landmines and sexual assault, women and girls also face the risk of increased domestic violence. Domestic violence is common during peacetime, but it increases during and after conflict. Many things contribute to the increase in domestic violence: the availability of weapons, the violence that male family members have experienced or caused, the lack of jobs, shelter and basic services (UNIFEM, 2002). Girls and women are therefore doubly vulnerable in times of war.

Education in the cross-fire

The destruction of educational infrastructure represents one of the greatest developmental setbacks for countries affected by conflict. In Mozambique, some 45% of primary-school networks were destroyed, and during the crisis in Rwanda more than two-thirds of teachers either fled or were killed (Machel, 1996). The lost years of education make the recovery after war even more difficult. Once the fighting stops, the lack of schools and teachers, the inability of authorities to rebuild the education system and to train, retrain and deploy new or returning teachers, is a difficult challenge that can take many years to overcome.

Providing education in situations of emergency and crisis is critical, both as a way to resist the enemy and to provide some sense of normalcy in disrupted lives. It is also the foundation on which to rebuild societies. Because schools are often targeted, alternative sites for classrooms have to be found, alternating the venues regularly. In Eritrea in the late 1980s, classes were often held under trees, in caves or in camouflaged huts built from sticks and foliage. Similar arrangements were made during the fighting in the former Yugoslavia, where classes were held in cellars of private homes, often by candlelight, witnessing the importance of maintaining education no matter how difficult the circumstances (Machel, 1996). In interviews with the Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children in 2000, Burundian women expressed concern about children's and adolescents' lack of access to school, where the situation had further deteriorated due to insecurity. They reiterated the need to raise levels of school attendance and literacy, and again offer children and adolescents alternatives to violence and prostitution (Watchlist, 2002).

Girls at high risk

It is estimated that half of the 104 million out-of-school children, two-thirds of whom are girls, live in countries in the midst of or recovering from conflict. Of the seventeen sub-Saharan countries in which enrolment rates declined in the 1990s, six are states that are affected by or are recovering from major armed conflict (Angola, Burundi, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Liberia, Sierra Leone and Somalia) and of the fourteen countries with a very low enrolment GPI of between 0.6 and 0.84, three are currently in conflict (Burundi, Côte d'Ivoire and Liberia) and two are recovering from it (Ethiopia and Mozambique). Of the twenty-five countries with the lowest levels of female adult literacy, ten are either experiencing armed conflict or recovering from it.[17] It is also significant that of the twenty-five countries targeted recently by UNICEF for accelerated action to improve girls' participation in education,[18] eight have experienced recent conflict within their borders (Kirk, 2003).

There is ample evidence from the Machel report and from other sources that armed conflict particularly disrupts the education of girls (Machel, 2002). During conflict girls may not be allowed to go to school because parents fear attacks on the way. The HIV/AIDs threat makes this of even greater concern. Of the seventeen countries with over 100,000 children orphaned by AIDS, thirteen are in conflict or on the brink of conflict. In the Democratic Republic of the Congo, it is thought that adult HIV/AIDS prevalence has risen steeply to 20%, and that in 2001, 930,000 children under 15 had lost either their mother or both parents to the epidemic. The vulnerability of women and girls to sexual violence in situations of conflict makes them also especially vulnerable to HIV/AIDS infection. This was indicated in a recent study in the highly affected region of North Kivu (Democratic Republic of the Congo), where estimated infection rates are 54% among adult women, 32% among adult men, and 26% among children (Watchlist, 2003). Infection rates

Devastation of educational infrastructure is a huge developmental setback for countries affected by conflict.

17. Angola, Burundi, Chad, Côte d'Ivoire, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Mozambique, Pakistan, Sierra Leone, the Sudan.

18. UNICEF's '25 by 2005' initiative is likely to happen in the following countries: Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Benin, Bhutan, Bolivia, Burkina Faso, the Central African Republic, Chad, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Guinea, India, Malawi, Mali, Nepal, Nigeria, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, the Sudan, Turkey, the United Republic of Tanzania, Yemen, Zambia.

of military forces can be far higher than those of the local population. Traditional chores such as collecting firewood and water represent a real danger during wartime. All these factors impact negatively on education. In southern Sudan, the demand that girls care for younger siblings and children has considerably increased during civil war, as adults and particularly women have become more engaged in livelihood activities than during pre-war periods (Biong Deng, 2003).

In the case of the Aboke girls in northern Uganda, 139 girls were specifically targeted, removed from a girls' boarding school, and forced into the rebel forces (De Temmerman, 2001). In northern Uganda, families have married their daughters to militia members in order to protect themselves and their girls. The same also happened in Somalia (UNICEF, 2001*b*). In post-conflict periods, sexual violence and exploitation of women does not necessarily abate. In Rwanda, for example, during and after the conflict, girls tended to stay close to their homes, remaining for the most part with their mothers; education was the first of their activities to be sacrificed (Oxfam UK, 1999).

Despite its many horrific outcomes, the destruction caused by armed conflict may open up avenues for women that challenge their traditional roles and responsibilities.

Uprooted and out of school

Recent conflicts have resulted in huge refugee populations, making demands on an already overstretched education system. The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) cares for 20 million 'persons of concern', mainly refugees and asylum seekers but also internally displaced persons. These have been uprooted because of internal warfare but have not reached a neighbouring country, and are therefore not protected by international law. The United Nations Special Representative for Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) estimates there are 25 million IDPs worldwide, with major concentrations in Afghanistan, Angola, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Colombia, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Sri Lanka, the Sudan, and countries of the former Soviet Union. The majority are women and children. In nearly half of these countries, IDPs faced sexual violence. A 2002 study in Guinea, Liberia and Sierra Leone found that displaced women and girls in camps were constrained to exchange sex for scarce food and other basics – even for humanitarian aid. Twelve million children aged 5–17 are without access to education due to conflict (Global IDP Project, 2003).

Killer mines

One of the most neglected but significant education-related outcomes of conflict is disability, particularly that caused by landmines. In Africa, an estimated 37 million mines are embedded in the soil of at least nineteen countries. Since May 1995, children have comprised about half the victims of the 50,000–100,000 anti-personnel mines laid in Rwanda. Angola alone has an estimated 10 million landmines and an amputee population of 70,000, of whom 8,000 are children (Machel, 1996). For every child killed in armed conflict, three are injured and permanently disabled. About two-fifths of the 26,000 persons killed and injured by landmines each year are children. Over 10 million children have been psychologically traumatized by armed conflicts (UNESCO website).

Education, gender and conflict: a challenge and an opportunity

Notwithstanding its many horrific outcomes, the general destruction caused by armed conflict may open up some avenues for women that challenge their traditional roles and responsibilities. Women may find themselves working outside the home for the first time, becoming the income-earners and living in a more public sphere. Male involvement in fighting often leaves women – and even young girls – heading households. After the genocide in Rwanda, females for a time accounted for 70% of the population. In southern Sudan only one-third of the population is male (Obura, 2001). Thus, conflict tends to result in women taking on additional responsibilities (El-Bushra et al., 2002). In post-conflict Somalia, in the absence of men, women have become increasingly involved in income-generating activities and in household decision-making. This is also true in El Salvador (ICRC, 2001). The role of women in the 1979 Iranian revolution led to their recognition of their own power and rights. In spite of the influence of religious fundamentalism and the rule of religio-political leaders, Iranian women have had significant achievements in the realm of education (Mehran, 2003). In Eritrea, those fighting for national independence designed a school curriculum which reflected a commitment to socialist equality and the rights of women. Classes were co-educational and girls were encouraged to participate fully in all fields, particularly the technical ones (UNICEF website).

Box 3.7. Girls in the armed forces

It is estimated that in the 1990s approximately 100,000 girls directly participated in conflicts in at least thirty-nine countries around the world. In terms of absolute numbers, Africa is the region with the highest number of children directly involved (McKay and Mazurana, 2000), but the issue is clearly a global one. Precise data are limited, but in countries such as El Salvador, Ethiopia, Sierra Leone and Uganda, it is estimated that 30% of child soldiers are girls. The Peruvian Shining Path has one of the highest female participation rates. In Asia, young girls are recruited by the Sri Lankan Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam (LTTE), 900–1,000 girls are participating in armed conflict in the north-east Indian state of Manipur, and large numbers of Nepalese girls are involved in the 'People's War' of the Maoist insurgents (Coalition to Stop the Use of Child Soldiers, 2000).

The term 'girl soldier', however, tends to deflect attention from girls' multiple roles, not only as fighters, but also as cooks, porters, spies and as 'wives', servants and/or sex slaves. Disarmament, demobilization, rehabilitation and reintegration (DDRR) programmes tend to assume male experiences, and to ignore the quite different ways in which boys and girls participate in armed forces and reintegrate into communities. In Angola, for example, when the surrender of weapons was a criterion for eligibility, girls who had been involved with the military, but not as fighters, were excluded. Those programmes that include girls nevertheless tend to ignore central gender issues. Little attention may be given, for example, to addressing the complex shifts in gender identities, roles and responsibilities created by conflict (Strickland and Duvvury, 2003). The tendency to channel girls only into gender-typical activities, such as soap-making or dress-making, is also a potential source of problems (Barth, 2003).

The stigma of being involved with armed forces and their various atrocities may be stronger for girls than for boys. There are high rates of pregnancy, and for young mothers there are serious practical, cultural and psychological barriers to school attendance and reintegration (McKay and Mazurana, 2002). Communities can be particularly hostile to girls who have had a child of the enemy. They can often be rejected by their families, becoming vulnerable to prostitution.

Source: Kirk (2003).

Education is a political asset and can be a stabilizing factor on which to build a new post-conflict society but education systems can also alienate groups from each other.

Education is a political asset, and can be used as a stabilizing factor on which to build a new post-conflict society, but education systems can also be used to alienate groups from each other. One recent study (UNICEF, 2001*a*) notes that in many conflicts around the world, such as the Balkans and Rwanda, education systems can be used negatively, as a weapon of cultural repression and to promote intolerance. Segregated education, as in apartheid South Africa, can be used as a means of reinforcing inequality and promoting stereotypes, including gender stereotypes. Post-conflict reconstruction opens up the opportunity to transform conventional education systems and to renew both teaching methods and curricula.

When gender meets disadvantage

Earlier sections of this chapter show that many cultural practices perpetuate gender inequality, and that more extreme circumstances often exacerbate it. Such trends are often associated with other kinds of disadvantage, which can be mutually reinforcing.[19]

The hidden face of disability

Girls with disabilities are a large and diverse group whose educational needs have gone largely unnoticed by those committed to promoting either gender equity or disability equity. Evidence is scarce,[20] but it seems clear that these girls are not faring well. Widespread cultural biases based on both gender and on disability greatly limit the educational opportunities of such girls.

Disabled children are at severe risk of exclusion from school and other social activities. Especially in the case of girls, the victims may be seen as a burden on the family because marriage prospects may be hampered. It is quite usual for a disabled woman to be hidden by her family. In the Palestinian Autonomous Territories, for example, because of the symbolic importance of female beauty and health and the pivotal role of women in the family, a disabled woman is seen as a failure on several counts (Atshan, 1997, p. 54, cited in Rousso, 2003).

Although available data are limited, they indicate that women and girls with disabilities fare less

19. In India, for example, the most educationally disadvantaged children are triply disadvantaged: by geographical location, by gender and, importantly, by caste (Ramachandran, 2003).

20. A recent review found mainly anecdotal information in response to a request for information on barriers to education for disabled girls, sent out to a broad range of disability, disabled women's and educational organizations in Africa, the Asia-Pacific region, Australia, Eastern and Western Europe, Canada and Latin America. Out of the two dozen or so responses received, a few made reference to recent reports on the status of disabled women and girls in their country, and some created reports on disabled girls and education in response to the request. Most simply shared their perceptions on the issue or acknowledged that they had no information (Rousso, 2003).

well in the educational arena than either their disabled male or non-disabled female counterparts.[21] For example, UNESCO, the World Blind Union and others estimate the literacy rate for disabled women at only 1%, compared with an estimate of about 3% for people with disabilities as a whole (Groce, 1997). Statistics from individual countries and regions, while often higher, nonetheless confirm the gender inequalities (Nagata, 2003). In terms of school enrolment, UNESCO suggests that more than 90% of children with disabilities in developing countries do not attend school (UNESCO website).

There are many definitions of disability, not only across but also within countries (see Box 3.8 for those used in OECD countries). These varied definitions demonstrate that disability is a social construct, as much rooted in cultural, social, political, legal and economic factors as in biology. While the World Health Organization (WHO) is currently leading an effort to achieve a new international definition that considers many of these factors, no consensus has yet been reached. Here, girls with disabilities are defined as those with physical, sensory, emotional, intellectual, learning, health or other disabilities that may be visible or invisible, stable or progressive, occurring at birth or during childhood. Their access to education is affected by their gender, their type of disability, the socio-economic status of their family, their ethnicity, whether they live in an urban or rural area, and a host of other factors.

There is a circular relationship between poverty and disability which also accentuates gender bias.

Given the diversity of definitions, no clear global statistics are available. WHO has estimated that between 7% and 10% of the world population have some type of disability and that 80% of these people live in developing countries (WHO, 1999). UNESCO and others estimate that the number of children with disabilities under the age of 18 around the world varies from 120 million to 150 million. Even assuming that girls make up somewhat less than half of all children with disabilities, as some research suggests (Groce, 1999, see also Box 3.8), the number of girls with disabilities worldwide is very substantial.

Poverty and disability: a vicious circle

There is a circular relationship between poverty and disability which also accentuates gender bias. On the one hand, insufficient nutrition causes disability, as is the case for 500,000 children every year who lose some part of their vision due to vitamin A deficiency, and for over 40 million babies who risk mental impairment due to insufficient iodine in their mothers' diets. Child labour and maltreatment can lead to mental illness, physical and psychological disabilities. Women and girls, in the face of limited resources, are more likely than their male counterparts to be deprived of basic necessities, such as food and medicine (Groce, 1997). On the other hand, disability can also contribute to poverty, because of the additional expenses that it entails and because of the difficulties facing disabled income-earners. Thus, disabled girls are more likely to grow up in poor families, a reality that places them at further educational disadvantage.

Lack of programmes and policies for disabled girls

Just as there is little available information, so there is a dearth of programmes specifically aimed at addressing the educational needs of disabled girls (Box 3.9). In the United States, while there is a range of initiatives to promote educational equity for girls, these have largely overlooked disabled girls (Froschl et al., 2001). Similarly, strong disability rights legislation has produced a range of efforts to promote educational equity for disabled children, but few initiatives have included gender-specific components to address the unique barriers facing disabled girls. Other countries have similar experience. For example, the Southern African Development Community (SADC) notes: 'Despite the fact that the disabled girl-child deserves special attention, no country in the SADC has given the matter specific attention' (SADC, 1999). Elsewhere, while there are examples of special schools for disabled girls, there was no evidence that their programmes are gender sensitive, in the sense of being designed with girls' unique needs in mind (Rousso, 2003).

The rural–urban divide

National statistics often conceal strong regional patterns of inequality. In Ethiopia, for example, under-enrolment is very much a rural phenomenon, and a gender gap is largely absent in urban areas, where primary GERs are over 100% for both boys and girls. In rural areas, on the other hand, only 25% of school-age girls are enrolled in primary school compared with 31% of

21. The literature on disabled girls and education is sparse even for industrialized countries (Rousso, 2001). Research results are mainly the product of small qualitative studies. Such research, while invaluable in identifying barriers, rarely includes comparisons with both disabled boys and non-disabled girls, thereby making it difficult to identify the joint impact of gender and disability bias.

Box 3.8. Disabilities and gender in OECD countries

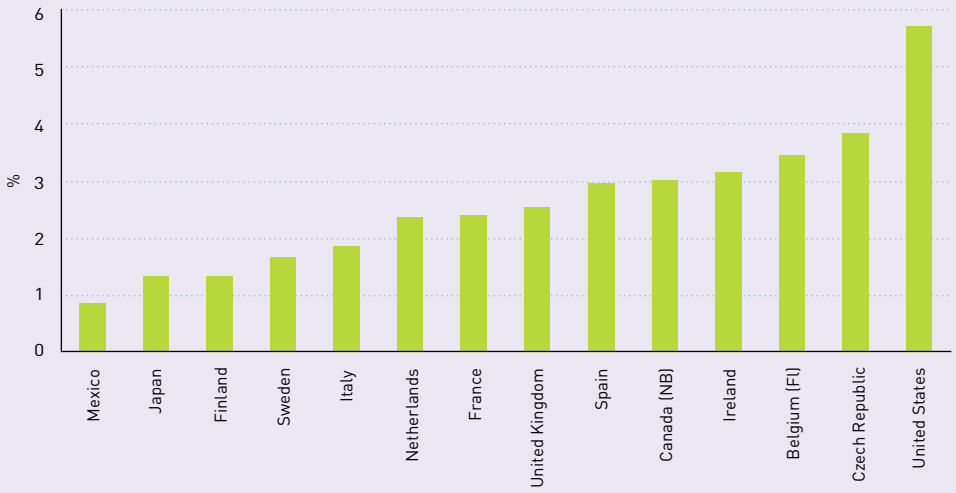
OECD countries have distinguished three categories of disability:

A. Organic disabilities such as blindness, deafness and severe mental handicaps.

B. Disabilities that are at least partially acquired, such as behaviour problems and specific learning disabilities such as dyslexia.

C. Disadvantages – rather than disabilities – associated with social background.

Figure 3.4. Students receiving additional resources in primary education in cross-national category A as a percentage of all children in primary education



Category A: Students receiving additional resources in primary education as a percentage of all primary education pupils, OECD countries. The overall median value for these countries is 2.3%. However, the amount of variation across countries seems remarkable, as the incidence of *organic* disabilities is not likely to vary strongly among countries, particularly among those at similar levels of income. However, as the figure represents the number of children receiving additional resources, their magnitude is influenced by differences in policies and diagnostic practices between countries. A relatively low score may indicate more severe selection criteria for special care, stronger financial constraints, or lack of political will to invest in care for disabled children. Although the data are not shown here, even stronger variation among countries occurs for children in Category B.

In eight of the ten countries (or regions) having the data, less than 40% of the children in Category A are girls. Only in Flanders does the female share (slightly) exceed 50%. In Category B, the seven countries that have the data report even lower female shares, ranging from just over 25% (Czech Republic) to just over 40% (Spain).

Although there is some evidence that boys are more vulnerable than girls to the effects of illness and trauma during their developmental years, this is unlikely to fully explain the differences. It may be that boys' behaviour results in their being identified as disabled more frequently than girls. This may be especially relevant to Category B children, which in many countries include those with behaviour problems. Alternatively, it may be that in some countries a greater social priority attached to boys' education results in their being more easily accorded additional resources to enhance their school performance. More research is needed to identify the causes of these trends.

Source: Evans and Deluca (2003).

Gender disadvantage in education is particularly high among marginalized groups and increases with poverty and social disadvantage.

boys, and it is estimated that a mere 1% of girls and 1.6% of boys in rural Ethiopia completed the eight-year primary cycle in 2000. The two predominantly pastoralist regions (Somali and Afar) exhibit the lowest primary enrolment rates (11% and 7%, respectively, in 1995/96), whereas the rate for pastoralist girls is estimated to be below 1% (World Bank, 1998). The achievement of enrolment and gender equity targets is therefore to a large extent dependent on improvements occurring particularly in the two pastoralist regions, and in rural areas more generally (Rose, 2003*a*).

In Chile, data disaggregated by geographical location shows widening gender and rural–urban gaps in educational participation for teenage children. Household wealth also intervenes, with rural non-poor girls having marginal advantage over boys, but rural poor boys having an advantage over girls. Both poor and non-poor households have higher participation rates in urban compared with rural areas. The pattern is intensified in the 20–24 age group. Contexts of poverty and marginalization are, of course, not static. In China, for example, access to education of disadvantaged groups – minorities, migrant populations and the urban and rural poor – has worsened as the transition to a market economy, the collapse of previous social support systems and increased rural–urban migration pose severe challenges for educational provision (Maher and Ling, 2003). In Bangladesh, too, there has been a significant decline during the 1990s in the number of urban students achieving the basic competencies. This suggests an inability of the school system to cope with the large additional migrant population. Their destination is often the urban slum communities, which become educationally disadvantaged, particularly where these semi-permanent settlements are not legally recognized by urban authorities (Fransman et al., 2003).

Box 3.9. Harassment of disabled girls

Little policy attention has been paid to the combined sexual and disability harassment that female students with disabilities may encounter. Yet pilot studies from the United States suggest that students with disabilities face higher rates of harassment in school than non-disabled students, and that disabled girls face higher rates of harassment than both disabled boys and non-disabled girls. Girls with multiple disabilities are at particularly high risk.

Harassment by teachers and other adults appears to be particularly widespread in residential schools (Sobsey, 1994). Reports from other regions, including Australia, Latin America and Mexico (INMUJERES, 2002) also acknowledge sexual and/or disability harassment in school as a barrier to learning for girls with disabilities.

Sources: Joint Commission of the Chancellor and the Special Commissioner for the Prevention of Child Sexual Abuse (1994), cited in Linn and Rousso (2001); Rousso (1996), cited in Linn and Rousso (2001); INMUJERES (2002); Alicia Contreras, personal communication (24 April 2003); Bramley et al. (1990); Hastings (1995).

Indigenous peoples and ethnic minorities

Indigenous peoples fare poorly in education relative to non-indigenous children. In Chile, indigenous children and young people perform less well than children of non-indigenous groups, especially at secondary and higher education levels, and with marked gender disparities. A high proportion of girls leave school early, as a consequence of 'behaviour problems' (Avalos, 2003). In Romania, Roma girls' access to education tends to be limited by their communities' traditional attitudes to women's status. These girls tend to drop out of school earlier than boys, because of their substantial household and family responsibilities. They may also be married early or bear children before the age of 15 (Magno et al., 2002).

Data disaggregated by gender alone hides other inequalities. In the United Kingdom, attention paid to male disadvantage in education (discussed in detail below), masks both the educational disadvantages faced by some girls and the particular success of boys from elite and professional classes. Although gender differences have recently been eliminated in terms of performance, neither social class inequality nor ethnic differences have been transformed in such a way. Recent research suggests that these other social divisions have become more extensive. Statistics that focus only on the national gender gap can therefore distort the picture (Arnot and Phipps, 2003). Thus, gender disadvantage in education (and more widely) is particularly concentrated among marginalized groups, and intensifies with poverty and social disadvantage.

Rights to education: the supply of schooling

Earlier sections of this chapter have shown that household decisions to send children to school are strongly influenced by the economic, social and cultural contexts in which they find themselves. They are also, however, affected by the terms on which schooling is made available to them, and by its quality. These 'supply-side' issues – which include matters of costs, distance to school, the school facilities available, and broader matters of school quality and content – can have a significant impact upon whether or not girls attend. This section examines the nature and impact of some of theses constraints.

Schooling costs: unequal impacts

The direct costs of schooling to households are made up of tuition or other fees, and the costs of purchasing books, materials, school uniforms and transport to school. Household decisions to educate the children respond to changes in the cost of these items. Although many empirical studies, based on household data, suggest that demand reductions are comparatively small in response to small increases in costs, some evidence indicates – as would be expected – that enrolments among the poor are much more sensitive to cost increases than is the case with richer households.[22]

Evidence on the gendered impact of such charges is available from micro studies, although this is mainly from studies modelling the impact of lower travel costs, showing a strong and positive gendered impact: girls enrolments rise, and do so more strongly than those of boys, in response to reductions in travel costs to school.[23] Similarly, clothing costs may differ for boys and girls. Clothes for school in Ethiopia, and uniforms in Guinea and the United Republic of Tanzania, were the highest direct cost items facing parents in the mid-1990s (USAID, 1994; Sow, 1994; Mason and Khandker, 1996). More recent work in the United Republic of Tanzania showed that uniforms remained the most expensive cost item, and that girls' uniforms were perceived by parents to be slightly more expensive than those for boys (Peasgood et al., 1997). Taking all these items into account, the direct costs of schooling in the United Republic of Tanzania were estimated to be 14% more for girls than for boys at primary level (Mason and Khandker, 1996).

There is strong evidence from more qualitative sources that direct costs are one of the most important causes of non-attendance and early drop-out from school. School costs are reported to be significant in this respect in China, Egypt, Ghana, Indonesia, Mexico, Pakistan and, for girls, in Bangladesh (Filmer, 2001; World Bank, 2002*e*). In Malawi, from over 1,000 primary-school drop-outs interviewed, half of the boys from rural areas and 44% of the boys from urban areas cited the lack of money for school expenses as the main reason for their having left school prematurely. This was also the most important factor for girls, although a smaller proportion of girls than boys – about one-third in both rural and urban areas indicated this (Kadzamira and Chibwana, 2000, p. 61).

Direct costs are one of the main causes of non-attendance and early drop-out from school.

Children often also indicate their 'need to work' as the dominant reason for leaving school. If these two sets of causes are combined – i.e. costs and income – a majority of children are typically found to cite economic circumstances as the main reasons for their having left school. They accounted for 75% of the school drop-outs interviewed in Zambia, 70% in Uganda and Ethiopia, 57% in Ghana, 45% in Malawi and 40% in Guinea.[24] In Tajikistan, in 2002, 68% of parents surveyed considered family poverty and the increased costs of education as the primary reason for girls' non-attendance (University Degree Women Association, 2002).

Finally, separate evidence is available from a wide range of sources on the importance of household income as a determinant of school enrolments. In Senegal, the enrolment of children aged 6–14 from the poorest households is 52 percentage points lower than for those from the richest households. In Zambia there is a 36 percentage point gap (World Bank, 2002*e*). Here too there are gender differences: in Ethiopia, increasing a household's wealth index by one unit increases a boy's chances of attending school by 16%, whereas a girl's chances are increased by 41% (Rose and Al-Samarrai, 2001). In Guinea, whereas the effect is insignificant for boys, girls' chances are increased by 9% (Tembon and Al-Samarrai, 1999). These results indicate that poverty in a family will have a more detrimental effect on the decision to enrol a girl in school than a boy.

For all these reasons, measures to reduce the direct costs of schooling are one of the most

22. Jimenez (1987) summarizes the results of ten studies, most of which suggest average price elasticities substantially less than unity. More recent studies from Africa include Birdsall and Orivel (1996), for Mali, and Grootaert (1999) for Côte d'Ivoire. Evidence by income group is not widely available, but Gertler and Glewwe (1990, p. 269) estimate that the price elasticity of demand for education among the poorest quartile of the rural population in Peru was, in 1985–86, generally between two and three times as large as that for the richest quartile. More recent evidence from rural Ethiopia confirms this larger and significant negative effect among a sample of poor households (Weir, 2000).

23. The results of five such studies are conveniently summarized by the World Bank (2002*a*, Table 4.2). On the other hand, to argue that this result is directly relevant to the gendered impact of general fee increases overlooks the fact that reductions in travel time may be intrinsically more preferred by parents for their girls than for their boys. Accordingly, this constituent of total costs is not, in itself, necessarily gender neutral.

24. See Kasonde-Ng'andu et al. (2000); Tumushabe et al. (2000); Rose et al. (1997); Avotri et al. (2000); Kadzamira and Chibwana (2000); and Tembon et al. (1997). Results are further discussed and compared in Colclough et al. (2003).

Reducing direct costs of schooling is one of the best ways of increasing school enrolment, especially of girls and the poor.

potent ways of increasing school enrolments – particularly for poorer households, and particularly for girls. There is ample experience, now, of the potentially huge numbers of children who may enrol in school when costs are sharply reduced. For example, following the implementation of fee-free primary-education policies in Malawi and Uganda, primary enrolments increased in the mid-1990s by 52% and 200%, respectively.[25] Despite this evidence and the many human rights instruments, ratified by the vast majority of nations, which commit states to the provision of 'free and compulsory' education at primary level,[26] school fees continue to be levied in at least one hundred and one countries around the world (Table 3.3).

Enduring school fees: how free is 'free'?

The level and type of fees imposed vary between countries. A recent study undertaken across seventy-nine countries showed that seventy-seven of them had at least one kind of fee at primary level. The results are summarized in Table 3.4. The most prevalent fee is PTA or community contributions – charged in over 70% of cases.[27] The costs of textbooks and uniforms are also commonly assigned to parents, as are fees for sports and other activities. Tuition fees

Table 3.3. Countries with primary school fees by region

Africa	Asia	Eastern Europe and Central Asia	Middle East and North Africa	Latin America and the Caribbean	Developed countries
Angola^	Bhutan^w	Armenia^w	Djibouti	*Bolivia*^w	No tuition fees are charged, but some direct costs have been reported from:
Benin^w	Cambodia^w	Azerbaijan^w	Egypt^	*Brazil*^w	Austria^
Burkina Faso^w	China^w	Belarus^	Israel^	Colombia^w	Belgium^
Burundi	Fiji	Bosnia^w	Lebanon^	*Dominican Rep.*^w	Japan^
Cape Verde^w	Indonesia^w	Bulgaria^w	Qatar^	Grenada	Korea, Rep. of^
C. A. R.	Lao PDR^w	Georgia^	Saudi Arabia^	Guatemala^w	Netherlands^
Chad^w	Malaysia	Kyrgyzstan^	Sudan^	Guyana^	New Zealand^
Côte d'Ivoire	Maldives	*Latvia*^w	United Arab E.^	Haiti	Poland^
Comoros^w	Mongolia^	Rep. Moldova^w	Yemen^	*Mexico*^w	
Congo^	Myanmar	Tajikistan^w		Nicaragua^w	
D. R. Congo^	Nepal^w	TFYR Macedonia^w		Paraguay^w	
Equatorial Guinea^	Pakistan^w	Romania^w		Peru^w	
Eritrea^w	Papua N. Guinea^w	Russian Fed.^w		St. Lucia	
Ethiopia^w	Philippines^w	Turkey^w		St. Vincent/ Grenadines	
Gabon	Singapore	Ukraine^		Suriname^	
Gambia^w	*Solomon Is.*^w	Uzbekistan^		Trinidad/Tobago^w	
Ghana^w	Vanuatu				
Guinea	Viet Nam^w				
Guinea-Bissau^w					
Liberia					
Madagascar^w					
Mali^w					
Mauritania^w					
Mozambique^w					
Namibia^					
Niger^w					
[Nigeria]^w					
Rwanda					
Senegal^w					
Sierra Leone					
South Africa					
Swaziland					
Togo^w					
Zambia^w					
Zimbabwe					

Note: Countries with a commitment to the elimination of school fees in square brackets; countries with ^ have legal guarantee of free education; w are identified in a review of school fees in 79 out of 125 countries where the World Bank is providing loans for education; countries in italics appear only in the World Bank (2002e) study.
Sources: Tomasevski (2003); World Bank (2002e).

25. Note that other policies aimed at stimulating demand, including the non-enforcement of uniform and a policy to allow pregnant girls back to school after delivery, accompanied the abolition of fees in Malawi.

26. The right to education is guaranteed, *inter alia*, in Article 13 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, Article 28 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child, Article 2 of Protocol I to the European Convention on Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms, Article 13 of the Additional Protocol on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights to the American Convention on Human Rights, Article 17 of the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights and Article 11 of the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child. It is also recognized in many non-legally-binding documents. Particularly important is the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (Article 26). See Chapter 1 for further discussion.

27. These fees are particularly prevalent in Africa, covering 81% of countries surveyed.

are charged in only about 40% of cases – somewhat less than the incidence of the other charges mentioned above. It is noteworthy, once again, that these charges are levied in a substantial proportion of countries where it is formally illegal to do so.

Fixing school costs, as part of UPE policy, may not work in practice. Schools often operate discretionary and ad hoc policies, and costs can often vary between schools. Treatment of poor children in such contexts tends to be highly arbitrary. Thus even where sanctions are not applied on non-payment of fees, the existence of fee policies obviously serves as a deterrent to their avoidance (World Bank, 2002*e*). Unexpected costs such as funeral expenses for teachers, or farewell events, may be requested in an ad hoc fashion, as evidence from Zambia shows (Kasonde-Ng'andu et al., 2000). In some cases, children may not be allowed to attend school if they are not able to afford books, pens or 'adequate' clothing. Finally, significant non-monetary contributions are often made by parents (and children) in the form of preparation of food or cooking for school meetings, cleaning the playground and school buildings, maintenance of buildings and gardens, and collecting water and firewood. In some countries, these activities are not voluntary but imposed (Kasonde-Ng'andu et al., 2000).

At present, a substantial part of the costs of primary education are borne by households. It is estimated that this usually amounts to at least 20% and often as much as 90% of total annual unit costs (Bray, 1996). In Cambodia, for example, despite a constitutional commitment to provide free education for all, parents and the community together bear 75% of the real costs of education, with the state thereby contributing a minor amount (Hammarberg, 1999, para. 111). Furthermore, in six African least developed countries the average parental contribution represented slightly less than one-third of the total annual costs at primary level (UNESCO, 2002*b*, Figure 4.1, p. 143). None of these considerations imply that policies to institute 'free' schooling should not be pursued with urgency. They merely make their implementation more complicated than it might seem – as Chapter 4 shows.

Table 3.4. Summary fee survey results

	Countries with fees	Percentage of countries in survey	Countries with illegal fees	Percentage of fee-charging countries with illegal fees
At least one fee	77	97	n.a.	n.a.
Tuition fees	30	38	11	37
Textbook charges	37	47	12	32
Compulsory uniforms	39	49	0	0
PTA/community contribution	56	71	22	39
Activity fees	34	43	13	38

Source: World Bank (2002*e*).

Reducing distance

Even where direct costs do not serve as a barrier, it is well documented that the distance of the school from the home has an impact on enrolment (Gertler and Glewwe, 1990; Lavy, 1992; USAID, 1994). The average distance of schools from homes declines as the expansion of primary and secondary systems proceeds. However, remote habitations and dispersed populations continue to suffer disadvantages based on the lack of physical access and this remains a problem, particularly at secondary level, in many countries. Where distance is a factor, girls feel the effects more severely. Focus group evidence from Africa indicates parents' reluctance to send girls to schools far from home. Reasons cited were sometimes that girls were considered to be weaker than boys and hence unable to expend the energy required to walk to and from school. A more fundamental concern, however, was for their safety en route – an issue that is addressed more directly below (Colclough et al., 2003, p. 143; Anderson-Levitt et al., 1994).

Where there are not enough school places, enrolment is often staggered, so children enter school later than they should.

Enough schools for all

Where there are insufficient school places, enrolment is often staggered, resulting in children entering school later than they are meant to. Starting school late is likely to have greater negative impacts on girls' survival rates – because, for reasons discussed above, they are more likely to be withdrawn from school at puberty than are boys. Primary school availability may also be biased against girls where single-sex schooling is the norm, and where the priority

of expanding enrolment is biased towards schools for boys. In Pakistan, despite a doubling in the number of single-sex public primary schools between 1988 and 1998, the percentage of girls' schools among all public primary schools has remained roughly unchanged, at about 30% (Mahmood, 1997). This proportion reflects the earlier government practice of building approximately one girls' school for every two boys' schools (Warwick and Reimers, 1995). Villages in rural Pakistan are hence more likely to have boys' than girls' schools. Little is known about the extent to which investments have been made to upgrade and improve conditions in existing public primary-school facilities nor about how these resources might have been distributed between schools for boys and girls (Lloyd et al., 2002).

In some countries NGOs are major contributors to educational provision.

Narrowing this gap is, therefore, a vital step in countries where single-sex schools are important for girls' schooling. A study of household demand and gender differences in primary-school access in Pakistan concluded that the decision by parents to enrol their daughters is most influenced by the presence of a single-sex public school in their village, followed closely by their perceptions of the quality of the school (Lloyd et al., 2002).

Co-ordinating the expansion of school places at both lower and higher levels of schooling can also be important. In Mali, for example, despite recent school expansion there remains a serious lack of places in the second stage of basic education. Many children in the first stage of basic education are enrolled under a double-shift system, and there are not enough spaces to include all who graduate in the second stage. Where some children have to remain out of school, it is more often the girls who lose out (Lange, 2003*a*).

Improving hygiene

The provision of gender-aware infrastructure can be extremely important for ensuring girls' full participation in schooling. The absence of latrines for girls can be decisive, particularly for menstruating girls. Fewer than half the schools visited during a recent Ethiopian study had latrines, and only one of these schools had a separate latrine for boys and girls. Only one-third of schools studied in Guinea had latrines, and in most cases these were not suitable for use (Rose et al., 1997; Tembon et al., 1997). Where enrolments increase rapidly, pressure on school infrastructure can result in overcrowding, and in poor sanitation and hygiene if there are insufficient toilets.

As with reducing the distance between schools and homes, the case for investing in water, toilets and basic school infrastructure is most persuasively made by governments that, having done so, have experienced remarkable progress in closing gender gaps and universalizing education (see also Box 3.10). In Bangladesh, drinking water is now available in or near over 90% of schools. Almost half of government schools have their own drinking-water facilities.[28] Shortfalls still remain however – over 30% of co-educational schools had no toilet facilities, and only 19% had separate facilities for boys and girls (Chowdhury et al., 2002).

Non-state providers: a booster for girls' education?

In most countries in the developing world, non-state providers have had a longer engagement with education service provision than the state. Their motivations and target groups are diverse. In some countries, NGOs are major contributors to educational provision, as in the case of the Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC). These providers are generally committed to promoting equity in education, ensuring that education reaches the poorest, most disadvantaged groups. Commercial providers are also growing rapidly in many countries. Their motives vary, ranging from enterprises seeking to fulfil a particular social responsibility – for example to their own employees – to those that run schools with a view to delivering high-quality education to improve the skills base and/or make a profit.

Community groups, such as religious bodies, also often run schools, targeting particular groups within the community, or located in areas where their particular social groups are dominant. Others may be set up by the state, but managed and run by local communities, which are responsible for recruiting local teachers and managing the schooling process. Different types of non-state schools, therefore, have a range of objectives, and may be aimed at different groups in the population.

28. These, however, remain somewhat maldistributed, with 61% of urban schools and only 42% of rural schools having such facilities (Chowdhury et al., 2002).

Box 3.10. The importance of the physical environment for disabled girls

The relative inaccessibility of some school buildings for disabled girls – including stairs, narrow corridors, small desks and inaccessible bathrooms – is often a major barrier. As with getting to and from school, differences in male and female socialization in Latin America, and probably elsewhere, allow boys to ask for help more readily from friends, who in turn, being male, may be better able to help.

Inaccessible toilets, as well as the nature of some disabilities, might mean that a disabled girl would need help with toileting. As many cultures emphasize modesty and privacy, the need for such personal assistance can be highly problematic; it can also intensify safety concerns. Reports from Australia, Mexico and Uganda identify inadequate toileting facilities as a barrier to education for girls with disabilities.

Menstruation, which some disabled girls might need help to manage, can also be a compounding factor. Menstruation can trigger the fears of some parents of disabled daughters, emphasizing their sexual vulnerability and further discouraging school attendance. Schools may lack the resources or willingness to provide personal assistance, and a disabled girl's need for help in such personal tasks can reinforce negative stereotypes about her potential, raising staff anxieties around sexuality.

Sources: DWNRO (n.d.); Bramley et al. (1990); Alicia Contreras, personal communication (2003).

Higher income, private schooling

The paucity of official data makes it hard to arrive at conclusions about the impact of private schooling on gender equality, but evidence from some countries helps to identify some stylized facts. Access to private schools remains mainly limited to the non-poor in most countries, and reflects prevailing biases that affect girls' education. Access to private schooling for girls is largely associated with household wealth. In Pakistan, for example, increases in private school enrolment are associated primarily with rising levels of household income. For girls, a shift from low to middle levels of household consumption resulted in a rise in enrolment in public primary, but a shift from middle to higher income levels is associated with increased frequency of private schooling. Furthermore, whereas mothers' education to primary or higher levels reduced apparent discrimination between sons and daughters in enrolment, there remains a significantly greater likelihood of daughters being sent to public primary schools and sons to private ones (Lloyd et al., 2002, cited in Fransman, 2003).

In Mali, a country which is unlikely to achieve gender parity goals in primary or secondary education by 2005, the proportion of state schools in overall schooling provision has steadily declined, as non-state schools, particularly community ones, have overtaken state schools in the first stage of basic education. The latter, however, have higher female enrolments relative to other types of school, and hence the decline in their share means that the state needs to play a greater role in promoting gender equity in non-state schools (Lange, 2003*a*). At secondary level, on the other hand, private schools have contributed to an improvement in gender parity. This reflects class privileges – new private senior secondary schools have given better-off town dwellers access to 'safer' schools for their daughters because the discipline and security in these schools is considered to be better. Thus gender gaps may be closing at the level of better-off households who are able to afford the privileges that private schools offer their daughters.

Private schools in many poor countries are neither necessarily better than public schools, nor preferred choices to state schools for many parents. In Pakistan, there is little evidence to establish that private school availability increases overall enrolment in rural areas where a public school is already present (Lange, 2003*a*). In India, too, government schools are the preferred choice of poor parents for their daughters (Ramachandran, 2003). Furthermore, children disadvantaged on account of economic status, caste and gender return to public schools at upper primary and secondary levels to take advantage of scholarships and other subsidies provided by the state (Balagopalan and Subrahmanian, 2003). The increased availability of public girls' schools and the improvement in their quality thus remains a key policy challenge where gender ratios remain highly unequal.

More and better public schools for girls remains a key policy challenge.

In Malawi, discussions with parents and school committees showed that the burden of community activities was placed mainly on women.

Community schools

Community schools often play an important role in supplementing the public education system. Defined in various ways, they are usually characterized by the community either contributing significant funding to, and/or controlling the management of schools. Community schools span religious as well as state sectors, and may in some cases include schools established under decentralization programmes.

Several rationales exist for community schools in Africa. They increase access to education where government resources are lacking, and are often portrayed as being more relevant to local development needs than public schools. Community schools are often characterized as being cost-effective, providing at least comparable if not better instructional services for less money. Community participation is expected to improve educational quality and increase student achievement, through enhancing teacher accountability and allowing for localized management of schooling processes. Another goal of community schools is improved governance, partly by developing local democratic organizations such as school management committees (Miller-Grandvaux and Yoder, 2002).

Do community schools benefit everyone?

Several studies report that community schools are successful in improving access to schooling, and some note that girls' enrolments, in particular, have improved (Rose, 2003*a*). However, there are often hidden class and gender inequalities in the ways in which communities function. The 'community' does not represent a homogeneous group of people, devoid of power relations, and does not necessarily present shared interests and concerns on the part of its members. Thus the promotion of community participation can fail to acknowledge the ways in which local power is reinforced (Wolf et al., 1997; Mosse, 2001).

Although innovative programmes aimed at encouraging community involvement in schooling address a range of constraints faced by children from poor households, they can nevertheless increase the direct costs for such households. Community schools are often established in poor, remote communities, but can require greater real contributions from the community than government schools serving wealthier areas (Hyde, 2003). Mali is a fairly typical case, where the Save the Children-US community schools require school management committees to mobilize resources for school construction, and subsequently for teacher salaries (Tietjen, 1999). Although construction costs and teacher payments overall are lower than in government schools, their being met by the community rather than by the government has a strongly regressive impact.

Unpaid labour of women

Community schools may also exacerbate gender inequalities, not least as a consequence of the expectations placed on community members for contributing to and sustaining educational endeavours. The shift from household to community contributions that has occurred following the abolition of fees and subsequent promotion of community participation in some countries, often has implications for the relative burden placed on women and men. For example, in Malawi, men were most often responsible for paying school fees before their abolition, whereas women provide more support to the community schools that were subsequently established (Rose, 2003*a*). Similarly, in Benin, women tend to provide the human contributions, whereas men contribute more in financial and material terms (Salami and Kpamegan, 2002).

With respect to community participation in existing government schools, a recent survey in Malawi indicates gender inequalities in community contributions within households. Of 238 households interviewed, 70% of those involved in providing non-monetary contributions were women (Rose, 2003*a*). Wives of heads of households provided most of the labour, followed by female heads, with male heads least likely to contribute labour. On the other hand, women participate far less in decision-making than their prominent role in giving their labour and time would suggest (Box 3.11). Discussions with parents and school committees generally reinforced the view that the burden of community activities was placed mainly on women.

In recognition of these extra and unequally shared costs, some programmes allocate a monetary value to the labour contributions of community members. However, marketization of community participation has in some cases intensified intra-household inequalities in

Box 3.11. Unequal partnerships on school committees

School committees are a chance for communities to exercise their voice in deciding how the school should function. Despite much literature emphasizing the important role of women in promoting positive educational outcomes for their daughters, the participation of women in school committees reflects more general gender inequalities in decision-making processes and in the exercise of influence over schooling.

Attempts have been made to ensure diversity of membership of school committees in a number of countries in sub-Saharan Africa. However, they generally work within existing community structures and power relations. Malawian legislation stipulates that one-third of places on school committees should be reserved for women. But this tends not to ensure their active participation, even where the quota is met. At seven of twenty schools visited there were no women on the committee. At one, women absented themselves on account of household responsibilities. Furthermore, it was evident from discussions held with school committees that even if women were present, they often would not speak.

Similarly, in Ghana school committees rarely meet national requirements for women representatives, as membership is based on existing positions of leadership in the community and school which are usually held by men (Condy, 1998; Pryor and Ampiah, 2003). Evidence from Uganda also indicates that men mainly dominate discussions in committees, with only a few women speaking. Women feel inhibited from taking part in formal discussions where tradition assigns decision-making roles to men (Suzuki, forthcoming).

Source: Rose (2003*a*).

community participation. For example, at a school visited in Malawi, it was noted that brickmaking undertaken by men was remunerated as it required skill, whereas carrying water by women, often for long distances, was not given any value despite the amount of time and energy involved (Rose, 2003*a*). Kadzamira and Ndalama (1997) also found that men participated more in services for which they were paid in Malawi, whereas all contributions provided by women were free.

Religious education...

Over recent years there appears to have been a significant increase in the time given to religious instruction in school systems around the world.[29] In parallel with this, the role of faith-based organizations as providers of education has remained strong. Historically, they have played an important part in education in many countries, offering schooling to children from deprived social groups, reducing private costs, expanding school places and improving school infrastructure. Their role has been particularly significant at times when economic crisis has resulted in reductions in public services (Kandiyoti, 1995). Their influence on gender equality in education, however, has been mixed.

... helps to boost gender parity...

Faith-based organizations affect the education of girls in two ways – by providing opportunities for them to attend school and by influencing the content of education in ways that reflect local beliefs and practices.

Parents are often attracted to sending their daughters to religious schools because the values they represent are judged important for girls' socialization. Cross-national comparative data are not available, but it is evident that religious schools have had a positive impact in boosting girls' enrolment in the Islamic Republic of Iran, where 95% of female children attend primary school (Box 3.12) (WEDO, 1998). In Mali, recent enrolment growth has been partly facilitated by many more children entering *medersas* [religious schools] (Lange, 2003*a*). In Bangladesh, *medersas* have also helped the country's educational progress, accounting for about 15% of post-primary enrolments by the turn of the century, of which over 40% were girls.[30]

... but does it promote gender equality?

However, evidence suggests that religious schools boost the enrolment of girls partly because of the sex-stereotyped messages they generally provide, which reflect gender-differentiated community norms. Accordingly, most religious schools tend to reinforce stereotypes of women as submissive and dependent, rather than undermine them.

29. In approximately half of all countries, religious education is compulsory at some point during the first nine years of schooling. In fifty-four of these countries, approximately 8% of total teaching time is devoted to religious instruction, which compares with around 4% over the period 1970–86 (UNESCO-IBE, 2003).

30. CDP Task Force 2001, cited in Fransman et al. (2003).

Religious schools are more likely to uphold gender differences than eradicate them.

Parents may value this kind of socialization for both boys and girls, but often send daughters only to religious schools. Boys, on the other hand, may be sent to both religious *and* secular schools to expose them to the full range of the curriculum. Although most religions do not explicitly discourage female education, many do so in practice by requiring girls' schooling to offer a different curriculum to that offered to boys. Religious doctrine may explicitly sanction the gender division of labour and the subordination of women. Women are usually expected to be the bearers and markers of tradition and religious identity. Thus as agents of socialization within the family, their schooling in religious beliefs and tradition may be considered more important than promoting their own educational advancement. Gender inequalities follow from educational experiences designed to socialize girls into narrowly conceived roles of wives and mothers.

Thus religious education can contribute strongly to boosting parity for girls, by offering them safe spaces to enter the public domain and receive an education. However, religious schools are often conservative institutions, established to preserve and protect traditions, many of which are likely to uphold gender differences between women and men rather than eradicate them. Faith-based organizations generally lag far behind other non-state providers of education in giving an explicit commitment to gender equality, with the notable exceptions of faiths such as Baha'i, and the Quaker movement (Tietjen, 2000). The vocational training they provide is often in the domestic arts. Examples include the Salesian Sisters in Honduras, who operate a Sunday school for poor girls who are trained in sewing, dressmaking, needlework and cooking. Training provided by the Roman Catholic organization Opus Dei, in Kenya, segregated men into training for technology and mechanical trades, and women into developing skills for catering and hospitality [cooking and cleaning] (Tietjen, 2000). These initiatives, although well intentioned and admirable in other ways, nevertheless reflect and strengthen traditional interpretations of gender roles.

The impact of religious schooling on gender equality is difficult to predict

Women's increased access to formal education, even in contexts where religious belief influences the entire education system, can nevertheless lead to changes in women's status. In the Islamic Republic of Iran, the paradox of schooling under highly conservative conditions is that women's very participation in education provides an impetus for social change. Education shows people how to question received wisdom. There is evidence that educated women in Iran are delaying their age of marriage, and seeking changes in the traditional role of women in family and society (Mehran, 2003).

In Saudi Arabia, the government first allowed girls to participate during the 1960s. Sensitive to widespread opposition, it determined that girls' education would be within 'Islamic margins', aimed at training women for suitably feminine tasks. These margins became broader as access to higher education brought women into the professions. Although gender segregation continued, women rapidly caught up with men's education in terms of participation and performance. During the 1980s, however, in response to rising conservative sentiment, women's freedoms to travel abroad for study, to manage businesses, even to eat in restaurants, were all curbed (Doumato, 1995). Changes in the balance between politics, economy and society continue to make equality gains for women hard to predict in some cases, and hard to sustain in others.

Box 3.12. Iran: conservative policies boost girls' schooling

The 'Islamization' of education in post-revolutionary Iran has led to increased demand for girls' schooling, mainly because it has assured traditional families that the school climate is not in conflict with the values cherished at home. The main education policies introduced by the religio-political leadership, shortly after the 1979 revolution, were as follows: banning co-education at all levels except at universities; assigning female teachers to girls' schools and male teachers to boys' schools; changing the content and pictures of school textbooks to portray a traditional division of labour between men and women in private and public spheres; introducing compulsory veiling for all female students and teachers; directing students towards 'male- or female-oriented' fields of study based on their sex; and barring women from entering 'masculine' disciplines at university. Although some of the above measures have weakened over time, they have acted as an assurance for more conservative families that their daughters would be studying in an Islamic setting.

Source: Mehran (2003).

Religious institutions can exert influence over policy-making

Religious institutions exert important influence over policy-making in some countries. In the Islamic Republic of Iran, for example, the influence of the religious leadership is patent, as discussed earlier. Notwithstanding its distinguished role in opposing persecution, the Church in Latin America has also helped to prevent some gender equity initiatives from being attempted. In Chile, for example, a programme initiated in 1996 by the Ministry of Education and the women's national service (Servicio Nacional de la Mujer – SERNAM) focused on informing secondary-school communities (teachers, parents and young students) about sexuality and related issues. Resistance from conservative families and Church representatives, who felt the campaign condoned the use of contraceptives and early sexual relations, led to the initiative being abandoned (Avalos, 2003). In Costa Rica, the Roman Catholic Church used its influence to block the implementation of sex education policies in the 'Young Love Programme', started in 1999. It mobilized religious associations and neo-conservative groups to oppose contraception and the use of condoms in preventing the transmission of HIV/AIDS. It also challenged the contents and methods of sex education in state primary and secondary schools on the grounds that it threatened Christian morality. These controversies compelled the state to modify its approach (Guzman and Letendre, 2003). Similar controversies are reported from Argentina and Mexico (Tietjen, 2000, p. 150).

Addressing the role of faith-based organizations in education is complex and important, but the sector should be seen as dynamic, not static. Religious schools operate in a political environment and they are often opened in the context of religious competition, within or between faiths. Religious schooling may be particularly important to religious minorities in societies where maintenance of their identity is considered at risk. As research in India has shown, the rise of religious schools is often a response to failure of the public system to reach areas where religious minorities and other socially disadvantaged groups are located (Jeffery et al., 2003).

The tension between the rights to gender equality, to religious freedom, and to choose schooling on cultural or religious grounds, needs debate in many societies. As much of the content of religion is dependent on textual interpretation, there are many opportunities for religious schools, engaging with other education stakeholders, to address gender equality issues more systematically than in the past, as Chapter 4 indicates.

Rights within education

Schools are not safe havens

International efforts to increase participation in schools, especially for girls, and to improve the quality of the school experience, have tended to assume that schools are universally benign. Indeed, education institutions are supposed to be places of learning, growth and empowerment, particularly for girls. When launching the United Nations Girls' Education Initiative at the 2000 World Education Forum in Dakar, United Nations Secretary-General Kofi Annan emphasized the importance of girls' education as a *tool for preventing conflict and building peace* (UNESCO, 2000*b*).

Schools are often places of intolerance, discrimination and violence. Girls are disproportionately the victims.

Recent research, however, shows that far from being safe havens for learning, schools are often sites of intolerance, discrimination and violence. Girls are disproportionately the victims. Many girls who surmount the barriers preventing them from attending school face harassment and sexual abuse from their peers or from their teachers once they are enrolled. This violence against girls perpetuates the gender gap in education and impedes their right to education. Closing the gender gap means confronting sexual violence and harassment of girls in schools.

> *Violence against women is a manifestation of historically unequal power relations between men and women, which have led to domination over and discrimination against women by men and to the prevention of the full advancement of women ... Violence against women is one of the crucial social mechanisms by which women are forced into a subordinate position compared with men.*
>
> Declaration on Elimination of Violence Against Women, United Nations General Assembly Resolution 48/104, 20 December 1993.

Although gender-based violence is often not reported, and thus not distinguished from other forms of school violence, there is no doubt that underachievement and high drop-out rates for some children are linked to gender-based violence. One recent report from South Africa (Human Rights Watch, 2001*a*) found that the threat of violence at school is one of the most significant challenges to learning for children. In Ghana, Malawi and Zimbabwe, high levels of sexual aggression from boys, and sometimes from teachers, against junior secondary girls went largely unpunished (Leach, 2003). In Latin America, a study on Ecuador (World Bank, 2000) reports that 22% of adolescent girls had been victims of sexual abuse in an educational setting.

What is gender-based violence in schools?

Permissive attitudes to violence against girls help perpetuate it.

Explicit gender violence is chiefly sexual violence, but other forms such as unregulated and excessive corporal punishment, bullying and physical assault – sometimes with guns and knives – verbal abuse and teachers' use of pupils for free labour can all be gender-specific. Aggressive and intimidating behaviour, unsolicited physical contact such as touching and groping, assault, coercive sex and rape, all constitute abuse. This is also true of any sexual relationship formed by a teacher with a pupil. In most national contexts this kind of relationship offends teachers' conditions of employment and – in the case of minors – is a criminal offence. Such behaviour exploits the teacher's position of authority and betrays their duty of care.

Sexual abuse may also occur outside the school with adult men (sometimes called 'sugar daddies') engaging in transactional sex in exchange for gifts or money. A report from one South African township (Wood and Jewkes, 1997) showed that physical assault, rape and coercive sex had become the norm, making it very difficult for adolescent girls to protect themselves against unwanted sexual intercourse, pregnancy and HIV infection. Boys seemed to define their masculinity by the number of their sexual partners and by their ability to control girlfriends. They saw sex as their right, and forced sex as legitimate.

Sexual violence in schools is not a new phenomenon. Niehaus (2000) shows that sexual relations between teachers and schoolgirls in South Africa were common even in the 1950s. It is often made more commonplace by popular prejudice. One South African survey indicated that eight in ten young men believed that women were responsible for causing sexual violence and three in ten thought that women who were raped 'asked for it' (Human Rights Watch, 2001*a*). Female victims of sexual violence are often reluctant to report the crime to the police or the family. In a country where the women's virginity is associated with the family honour, a woman can either be forced to marry her attacker or may be murdered by her shamed father or brothers, so called 'honour killings'. A common prejudice is that women 'provoke' men to attack or harass them.

Not just a developing-country problem

A large body of research on school violence and bullying exists in Europe and North America. It shows that boys are more often involved in violence, both as perpetrators and victims. In the United States, 25% of 16-year-olds – three times as many boys as girls – reported that they had been victims of some form of violence during the year (Finkelhor and Dziuba-Letherman, 1994). In France, 17% of adolescents had been victims of violence – twice as many boys as girls (Choquet and Ledoux, 1994). These findings suggest that it is mainly boys who expose themselves to risky behaviour and exert their performance of masculinity to subordinate other boys. In the case of sexual violence, however, girls are overwhelmingly the victims.

Ending impunity

Permissive attitudes regarding violence against girls help to perpetuate it. An American study found that 'In schools, harassment often happens while many people watch ... When sexual harassment happens in public and is not condemned, it becomes, with time, part of the social norm' (Stein, 1995). The few studies that have been carried out suggest that much gender violence in schools is unreported or under-reported, because students fear victimization, punishment or ridicule (Leach et al., 2003; Human Rights Watch, 2001*a*). Girls may also have incorporated violent gender relations to such an extent that they have accepted it as part of the school experience.

Violent schools may thus have far-reaching consequences for gender relations between men and women later in life. Interventions against

gender violence in schools are essential to lay the foundation for equitable relations between men and women in society.

Making schools safe and equitable: the role of teachers

Efforts at the national level to tackle teacher misconduct are at best patchy. Studies from sub-Saharan Africa indicate that prosecutions of teachers for sexual assault or rape are rare, and that those that are pursued often fail. There is a lack of political will to tackle the problem and much shifting of responsibility from one government office to another. Parents and communities find it difficult to report teachers for misconduct.

Teachers often require pupils to perform tasks for them in school in ways that reinforce gender differentiation. Girls may be asked to clean floors and fetch water, whereas boys are required to clear bushes, cut grass and carry bricks. A study from nine countries in sub-Saharan Africa showed that girls were in general more involved in such chores than boys (Colclough et al., 2003). In Malawi, girls were sometimes expected to substitute for male teachers' wives when they were away, performing tasks such as cleaning the house, fetching water and pounding maize. In Guinea, parents mentioned teacher harassment as a factor that influenced the withdrawal of daughters from school after basic skills of literacy and numeracy were acquired. Gender differentiation does not have to take violent forms for it to have negative effects. Many studies show how teachers' attitudes infuse everyday practices within schools, impacting on the formation of gender identities. This may happen even where teachers believe that they are treating girls and boys equally.

Everyday classroom practices reinforce prejudice

In Tajikistan, teachers are stricter with girls than with boys, applying different standards of behaviour to them and often forbidding girls from participating in activities that are considered natural for boys (Magno et al., 2002). A study in Albania revealed a widely held prejudice among teachers that boys are more intelligent than girls, and that girls were only able to do well by working extremely hard (Magno et al., 2003). In Romania, teachers saw boys' and girls' potential occupations differently – appropriate jobs for boys were those that were well-paid or prestigious, such as financier, pilot, politician or computer specialist, whereas less well-paid jobs such as hairdresser, flight attendant or secretary were seen as more appropriate for girls. These views often arise from deeply held attitudes – in Bangladesh most teachers themselves did not expect their own daughters to take a job after finishing their education. A majority of both male and female teachers interviewed conceded that if they had 100 taka to spend, their first priority would be to spend it on their son (Shondhane, 2001).

Such discriminatory attitudes affect relationships between boys and girls within the classroom. Lessons observed in Jamaican schools were characterized by a lack of praise from teachers for boys, and teachers gave boys a disproportionate number of reprimands. A significant number of former students claimed that girls were given better treatment and sometimes escaped punishment that would have been meted out had the offender been a boy. Teachers were also said to be more likely to give more menial tasks such as yard-cleaning and running errands to boys, thus reinforcing commonly held gender stereotypes. Such actions by teachers lower the self-esteem of the boys affected (Sewell et al., 2003).

Teacher training rarely focuses on gender awareness.

Teacher training, however, rarely focuses on issues of gender awareness. None of the teachers in Ethiopia and less than one-fifth of those in Guinea had attended gender sensitization courses (Colclough et al., 2003). Of twenty-five transitional countries in Eastern Europe, only eleven had pre-service teacher-training courses in gender awareness, while only two of them had in-service training courses, despite the fact that twenty-three of these countries offer gender-studies courses at university level (Magno et al., 2002).

Sexism in textbooks and curricula

Alerting teachers to the implications of gender differentiation in the classroom is nevertheless unlikely to make a significant difference if the curriculum itself remains gender biased. Getting the curriculum 'right' is important, although extremely challenging. In some countries, parents may not send daughters to school if they feel that the curriculum is promoting ideas that are at odds with prevailing social norms. In

Guinea, parents perceived subjects such as home economics, childcare and sewing, gardening and handicrafts as important for girls, and criticized their absence from the schooling curriculum (Tembon et al., 1997). Yet expansion of schooling achieved on the basis of conventional notions of appropriate social roles for girls and boys would seriously thwart progress towards the 2015 goals. This phenomenon is not just restricted to more 'traditional' societies – in France, a report published in 1997 by two parliamentarians noted that school books and teaching materials under-represented women and too frequently characterized them only in their roles as mothers and wives. This was despite two decades of stated policy concern about gender bias in textbooks (Baudino, 2003).

Silences in the curriculum about gender inequality – the 'evaded curriculum' – are a danger.

Sexism in textbooks thus continues to require attention, but the issue does not only concern the nature of the examples used. Silences in the curriculum about the issue of gender inequality – or what is sometimes termed the 'evaded curriculum' (American Association of University Women, 1992), are equally important. The experience of transitional countries in Eastern Europe is salutary in this regard. Some have been facing reversals in their overall educational situation, together with declines in their GPI.

Box 3.13. Enduring stereotypes

In most countries of Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia, textbooks present men and women as having different gender roles. In particular, women are predominantly portrayed undertaking domestic activities at home. For example, Polish textbooks usually present women as mothers and housewives in family roles, doing housework. Estonian textbooks contain traditional gender stereotypes by portraying girls and women at home and in childcare roles, very rarely depicting boys and men cooking, cleaning or taking care of children. In Albania, Hungary, Kazakhstan and Tajikistan, the majority of textbooks do not portray women outside their home environments. In Azerbaijan, one textbook implicitly condemns women who work outside the home, stating: 'In modern families there is a dangerous decrease in the number of children. Among the main causes are urban ways of living, the fact that women work too, and higher levels of education.' In cases where women working outside the household are depicted, they tend again to be in stereotypical roles. For example, primary-school textbooks in Romania depict women as schoolteachers, villagers, fruit or flower sellers, whereas men are viewed as astronauts, policemen, physicians, actors, conductors and masons.

Source: Magno et al. (2002).

While women made rapid gains under socialist governments, particularly in respect of employment equity, less attention was paid to gender equality within the family, with underlying ideologies of gender difference remaining relatively untouched. These are reflected in the gender bias which remains within the curriculum, as Box 3.13 illustrates.

Women teachers as role models

The importance of female role models is widely accepted as a means of promoting greater gender equality: they expand the aspirations of young girls, and demonstrate that barriers to female advancement are usually socially constructed rather than reflecting their different capacities or interests. Evidence from Jamaica shows that girls in sampled schools look up to and emulate women (usually their mothers) as boys do to men (usually their fathers). Role models for older children are less frequently family members but remain defined by gender (Sewell et al., 2003). Thus non-stereotypical role models for both boys and girls are potentially an important means of changing attitudes about gender.

While the number of female teachers has increased gradually in India, the proportion remains extremely low in most parts of the country. Almost 90% of single-teacher schools – which account for at least 20% of all schools – are staffed by men. Furthermore, 72% of two-teacher schools have no female teachers (Ramachandran, 2003). Single and two-teacher schools tend to be located in remote and rural habitations, where girls are particularly disadvantaged. In Togo, the GPI for teachers worsened over the 1990s, from an already low level of 0.19 to 0.14 in favour of male teachers. Gender parity trends for teachers reflect the fact that increasing competition between young men and women for the few posts available has seen women become increasingly unsuccessful in being offered those posts (Lange, 2003*b*).

Research in Ethiopia, Ghana and the United Republic of Tanzania also revealed that the distribution of female teachers varies strongly between schools. This partly derives from working conditions – female teachers tend to be posted to urban schools that are more accessible, where the acceptability of female teachers may be easier to achieve, and where

conditions of travel or accommodation may be more secure (Colclough et al., 2003). In contrast, in Pakistan, women teachers in urban areas are sometimes reported to find the environment around schools unfriendly, both physically and culturally, leading them to seek housing with watchmen, high boundary walls or companions for their safety (Warwick and Reimers, 1995, cited in Chapman and Adams, 2002).

Traditional forms of pre-service teacher training can be a disincentive for women's participation in countries where cultural norms prevent them from staying overnight away from home, or where being trained by male teachers is not considered appropriate. In countries with poorly developed tertiary education systems, small proportions of female teachers in turn reflect low gender parity in higher education, and the priority given to male employment (Gisselbrecht, 1996; Rose, 2003*a*). As the case of Mali illustrates, biases may also arise from the preferences of parents and communities, in contexts where they either pay for or control schooling (see Box 3.14).

Box 3.14. Sexism and parental preferences in Mali impact negatively on recruitment of female teachers

The ratio of female to male teachers in Malian primary schools ranged from 0.38 in state schools to 0.05 in *medersas* in 2000/01. Both communities and parents tend to favour male teachers. Thus in community schools, which are becoming increasingly important in the Malian education expansion process, the female/male ratio among teachers is also very low, at 0.24. In private secular or Roman Catholic schools, where students are drawn from better-off families, there is a preference for male teachers, reflecting the views of the families who fund the schools. Increased school autonomy and decentralization mean that the government has less opportunity to influence these outcomes: the diverse parties involved in school management, including households, community leaders, local politicians and local authorities, often have more 'traditional' attitudes towards male and female roles.

Sources: Sangaré et al. (2000); Lange (2003*a*).

An unequal distribution of female teachers is also typically found *within* schools. In Guinea and Malawi, female teachers are generally assigned to the lower classes (Grades 1–4) whereas male teachers tend to be in the higher grades. The explanation given by teachers interviewed was that lower classes were easier to teach and pupils were less difficult to handle than those in senior classes. The view that female teachers find it hard to teach more senior groups overlooks the fact that lower grades often have larger class sizes, and perpetuates a notion that female teachers' intellectual abilities are lower than those of male teachers (Kadzamira and Chibwana, 2000).

Risks of a feminized profession

The extent of feminization of the teaching profession tends to increase as school enrolments of girls and/or the economic roles of women expand. In some cases, however, this trend is accelerated by wage reductions imposed by economic transition and adjustment (see Box 3.15). In India, studies show a higher percentage of women teachers in 'Alternative Schools' relative to formal government schools in some states. In the case of Bihar, with a low level of female literacy, teachers in the Alternative Schools are all female, due to a requirement to recruit only women teachers. Similarly, in the state of West Bengal, where only 25% of single-teacher schools have women teachers, all of the Alternative Schools for which data are available have women teachers, following a decision to appoint women above the age of 40 with five to eight years of schooling to such posts (Ramachandran, 2003). These shifts towards feminization are being made within a changing professional structure – contracts are short and insecure, and the pay is far less than that received by teachers in the formal government schools. There are similarities in Mali, where gender parity is higher among 'relief teachers' who have lower pay and less permanent tenure than other teachers (Lange, 2003*a*). These examples indicate that the diversification of employment opportunities for women and the goal of creating more female role models for schoolchildren should not be allowed to threaten the implementation of gender equality in employment contracts and non-discrimination in training opportunities and teaching responsibilities.

Box 3.15. In the former socialist bloc, female teachers on the rise as real wages fall

As is the case elsewhere around the world, schools in Central and South-Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union are becoming increasingly feminized environments. In all the countries in the region, the majority of primary-school teachers are women and in most of the countries this is true of secondary-school teachers also. However, circumstances differ from country to country. Female teachers constitute more than 90% of all primary teachers in Armenia, Belarus, Bulgaria, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Lithuania, the Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, and Ukraine, and between 75% and 90% in Azerbaijan, Croatia, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Poland, Romania and Uzbekistan.

In most countries, the percentage of female teachers has been increasing during the transition period. Between 1991 and 2000, for example, the proportion of female secondary-school teachers in Albania doubled to 52%, and in Azerbaijan it grew rapidly to reach 79% in 1998.

Economic transition has often been associated with declining real wages for teachers, which has led to an exodus of men from the classroom. In some of these countries, teachers' salaries are no longer sufficient for basic subsistence. In others, salaries for teachers are very low compared with those available in the private sector:

'There are cultural expectations in Azerbaijan that a male is head of the family and as such is expected to provide for the family. ... Many males are forced to leave teaching to pursue other more highly paid careers. Among women, teaching is seen as a career that fits well with raising a family since a choice can be made between teaching a single (half day) or a double shift (full day)' (UNESCO, 2000*g*).

School management hierarchies also reflect gender inequalities. In Uzbekistan, whereas the majority of teachers are women, most school heads are men. Women are poorly represented in management structures in Croatian schools, whereas in Azerbaijan the majority of men employed in education are school administrators and managers.

Source: Magno et al. (2002).

Where gender parity is still far off and education systems are poor, both boys and girls fare badly.

Rights through education: achieving equality of outcomes

Data from Chapter 2 show that where education systems are well developed and where girls enjoy equal participation in schooling, the boys often find themselves outperformed by them. What explains this tendency?

Results from learning outcomes surveys and others, reported in detail in Chapter 2, show the following:

- Girls achieve much better reading scores than boys in all the countries surveyed in the latest PISA survey (UNESCO Institute for Statistics/OECD, 2003*b*); boys do somewhat better than girls in mathematics in most countries; the performance of boys and girls is roughly equal in science. These results are drawn from countries which all have primary NERs higher than 95. Thus they each have a well-developed education system.
- Data for developing countries show that the over-performance of girls is weaker than in the PISA group, and sometimes does not occur.

These findings, however, cannot be generalized to other countries. For many, where gender parity is still far from being achieved, and where education systems are poor, both boys and girls fare badly. Improvements in performance or variations in performance gaps may reflect socio-economic advantages. In Mali, where overall repetition rates are high, the gender gap in repetition is narrow for the first stage of basic education, but increases to about 5 percentage points by the second stage of basic education, with more girls repeating years and dropping out than boys. However, at secondary level, the opposite happens, with – over the period 1967–94 – almost always a smaller proportion of girls repeating than boys (Gisselbrecht, 1996, cited in Lange, 2003*a*). This probably reflects the low access of girls to secondary schooling in Mali, where those who do attend are usually from more privileged backgrounds (Lange, 2003*a*).

In Ethiopia, some subjects reveal wider gender gaps in performance than others, notably mathematics, in an education system where aggregate achievement for boys is slightly higher than for girls, though with some regional variations (Rose, 2003*a*). Gaps between boys and girls do widen through the system – in 2000/01 only 20% of girls passed the Grade 10 examinations compared with 53% of boys, and 46% and 67% respectively passed the Grade 12 examinations (Rose, 2003*a*). In Togo, both boys and girls fare badly in schools, but the impact of girls' failure has more serious implications in that parents are less tolerant of repetition on the part of their daughters than of their sons. Hence poor performance by girls more frequently leads to their withdrawal from school (Lange, 2003*b*).

Boys' relative underperformance: cause for concern?

Evidence that girls are outperforming boys has created a public stir in many countries, not least because it appears to confound assumptions about the nature of gender inequality. Careful interpretation of the evidence is required to establish which girls are outperforming which boys, in what institutional context this occurs, and whether there are wider socio-cultural factors that affect these outcomes. Some of these issues are discussed below. Evidence that girls are outperforming boys does not always indicate a reversal of gender inequality; it rather suggests changes in patterns of gender differentiation.

The poor performance of boys has been much noted in the United Kingdom and France.

The United Kingdom and France are both countries where the relative underperformance of boys has received much attention. Recent reports from the United Kingdom Government's Department for Education and Skills reflect this concern (UK Government, DfES, 2000). Box 3.16 reviews some of the debates and indicates likely causes. The Caribbean region is also well known for girls' better performance, having closed the gender gap before the 1990s and having maintained a female enrolment advantage over the decade. In Caribbean states, on average, girls start schooling earlier, attend school more regularly, drop out of school less frequently, stay in school longer, and achieve higher levels of functional education at the end of schooling than

Box 3.16. Why do girls consistently outperform boys in the United Kingdom?

Girls' relatively better performance in examinations at age 16 has been a recent phenomenon in the United Kingdom, achieved over the last decade. During the 1960s, boys outperformed girls by about 5%; for the next fifteen years, boys and girls were performing at almost equivalent levels. However, from about 1987 only about eighty boys to every hundred girls achieved five high-grade passes at 16+. Thus, after the mid-1980s, girls turned the tide of credentialism, in their favour.

This new pattern of achievement has become evident even from very young ages. Those studies that have tracked boys' and girls' progress through primary and secondary schools indicate that girls make better progress than boys in reading, mathematics, and verbal and non-verbal reasoning. Data collected from national assessments at the age of 7 demonstrate that girls have a better start at reading than boys and that their lead in English is maintained at ages 11 and 14 (Arnot et al., 1998). Thus a sizeable gap between boys and girls in reading and English is sustained throughout compulsory schooling. By 2000, approximately 15% more girls than boys obtained high grades in English examinations at age 16 (UK Government, 2000). The fact that boys have not reduced this female 'advantage' in language-related subjects is one of the principal reasons why they have lost ground relative to girls in terms of their overall school qualifications.

The UK Department for Education and Skills, which has developed a website addressing the problem of boys' underachievement, attributes the problem to the following characteristics:

- Girls put greater emphasis on collaboration, talk and sharing;
- At each age girls have greater maturity and more effective learning strategies;
- (Some) boys disregard authority, academic work and formal achievement;
- There are differences in students' attitudes to work, and in their goals and aspirations, which are linked to the wider social context of changing labour markets, and male employment prospects;
- There are different gender interactions between pupils and teachers in the classroom, particularly as perceived by (some) boys;
- Laddish behaviour, bravado and noise, as boys seek to define their masculinity, have a negative influence;
- Male peer-group pressure weakens an academic work ethic;
- Boys make efforts to avoid failure; but a 'can't do/can't win' insecurity leads to a 'won't try/won't play' culture.

Source: Arnot and Phipps (2003).

boys. This pattern also holds true for adult literacy. In these countries, women are more literate than men. For example, the National Literacy Survey in Jamaica in 1994 reported that the literacy rate among the population aged 15 and older was 81.3% for women and 69.4% for men. Thus, the gender gap in the Caribbean is the reverse of what it is in most other parts of the developing world (Miller, 2000).

Reforms for better learning

In both France and the United Kingdom, policy reform has contributed greatly to closing gender gaps and to fostering a stronger culture of equality between male and female. The improved performance of girls relative to boys in the United Kingdom may partly reflect adjustments in the curriculum and examinations. Girls tend to master reading skills at an earlier age. Thus, the introduction of a National Curriculum requiring boys to engage more in language-based studies tends to improve girls' relative performance. Similarly, assigning greater assessment weight to course work (as distinct from written examinations) may also have benefited girls (UK National Commission for UNESCO, 2003). Research suggests that girls tend to do better than boys on sustained tasks that are open-ended, process-based, related to realistic situations and that require pupils to think for themselves; boys, on the other hand, show greater adaptability to more traditional learning approaches with a strong emphasis on memorization (Arnot and Phipps, 2003).

Education policy reforms do not in all cases result in closing of gender gaps in learning and performance. The 'tremendous paradox' of Jamaican education revealed by one recent study is that, despite strongly positive investments in the education sector and high enrolment rates throughout lower-secondary school, students demonstrate low learning interest and participation (Sewell et al., 2003). Special concerns arise about examination performance and reading ability, which in particular reflect socio-economic disadvantage. Poor reading ability starts in the lower grades, and is particularly concentrated among boys. By the time students reach Grade 6, one-third of them read below their expected level. By Grade 9 a huge divide is in place, where large numbers of students, especially boys, are not able to read or write. Some are functionally illiterate. Because of their reading deficiency, they are at a huge disadvantage. Despite boys and girls entering Grade 1 in equal numbers, and with roughly the same kinds of experiences and skills, major distinctions are observable in their attitude to and interest in their studies. This leads to large differences in the quality of work produced and in their academic performance by the time they reach Grades 5 and 6. However, the evidence suggests that male performance tends to be mainly a reflection of lower attendance, rather than lower performance *per se* (Sewell et al., 2003). The interconnections between schooling performance and gender identities provide indicative explanations for some of these trends (Box 3.17).

As education systems move towards gender parity and improved quality, girls are likely to perform better than boys.

Does gender parity translate into gender equality?

Data reviewed in previous sections suggest that as education systems move towards gender parity and improved quality, girls are likely to perform better than boys. However, what does this mean in terms of greater gender equality? Many examples exist of the ways in which girls are unable to convert their academic edge over boys into greater equality in other spheres of life. In these circumstances their 'rights through education' remain blighted. In Chile, for example, despite girls achieving better results than boys in secondary school, they perform less well in the university selection test. A comparison of a cohort of students taking the System of Measurement of Educational Quality (SIMCE) test in 1998 and the university selection test in 2002 found that the poorer results of women in the latter were not reflected by their earlier schooling achievement. One explanation suggested was that men were more concerned to ensure that they achieved the scores needed to enter prestigious university programmes and hence took crash courses to prepare for the entrance tests (Avalos, 2003).

Drawing women to science

The differences in subject choices made by male and female students are revealing in this respect. In France, data relating to gender balance in the science baccalaureate streams show that, despite their performing marginally better than boys in science at secondary level, only 44.2% of science pupils in 2000 were girls. In other words, while they are over-represented among general baccalaureate pupils (58%), the reverse is true when it comes to science subjects. Thus other

Box 3.17. Caribbean paradox

Recent attention drawn to the 'underperformance of boys in Jamaica and the Caribbean countries has been associated with concern about the growing number of young males engaged in serious crimes, and has helped focus on the complex links between schooling and society' [Sewell et al., 2003]. Historically, men have occupied a wider social space, controlled more resources, maintained a higher social position and exercised greater power than women. However, recent experience suggests that this privilege has come at a price.

A study of socialization patterns in Dominica, Guyana and Jamaica found that, despite some minor differences related to ethnicity and class, the socialization of boys and girls was quite 'gendered' in terms of the nature of household chores, degree of parental supervision, severity of discipline/punishment, and expectations in relation to sexuality and its expressions.

Girls in the study of Dominica had more positive attitudes towards schooling and reported that they were supervised more closely by their parents and received higher levels of encouragement. Parents also ensured that girls were more occupied with housework than boys, who were often left to their own devices. Focus-group discussion with parents suggested that interest in reading might have been engendered at an early age, with parents more likely to buy a book or doll for a girl, whereas a boy would receive a gun or other toy. The differing nature of such gifts seems to be bound up with the parents' concepts of masculinity.

The positive reinforcement that girls receive from the home and within the school is mutually reinforcing. Teachers at school encounter boys who appear to be less motivated and less likely to make an effort than girls, which tends to reinforce their own perceptions. Parental attention to girls and their schooling appears driven partly by a recognition that in Jamaican society the rules of the game are different for the two sexes and by a fear of early pregnancy – now more heightened with the growing threat of HIV/AIDS among the adolescent population.

Traditional norms are therefore under transition. While gender norms have always been less restrictive than elsewhere, the mismatch between male gender identities and the education system has grown. As schools become increasingly feminized spaces, boys tend to develop their identities within a much more restrictive concept of masculinity.

Sources: Sewell et al. (2003); Bailey (2003); Figueroa (2000).

factors prevent girls from turning their academically strong performance into opting to study science in the higher grades (Baudino, 2003).

Subject streaming in Chile occurs halfway through the secondary-school system, when the common curriculum is divided after two years into academic and technical specializations. Secondary technical education has become much sought-after, as it provides greater chances of subsequent employment than the academic stream. Census data suggest that 82.2% of girls compared with 33.8% of boys were enrolled in commercial specializations, whereas 58.5% of boys compared with 13.1% of girls were enrolled in industrial specializations. Thus, of those girls who join the technical streams the majority opt for traditional commercial and secretarial specializations rather than for those preferred by boys.

The feminization of higher education in the 1990s has been a striking feature in countries of Central Europe, the former Yugoslavia, South-Eastern Europe and the Baltic States and the former Soviet Union. For example, the gross enrolment ratios for women in higher education exceeded those of men by more than 15% in Bulgaria, Estonia, Lithuania, Poland, the Russian Federation and Slovenia during the late 1990s. In Latvia, this difference reached 25% in the 1998/99 academic year. One recent study from the region suggests that these trends may reflect a preference by male students for vocational and technical training, rather than university study, in order to gain more quickly the qualifications that will allow them to join the labour market. On the other hand, within higher education, women are concentrated in subjects leading towards their chosen professions in sectors such as education and health, whereas men dominate in academic programs related to governance, finance and banking (Magno et al., 2002). Similar tendencies are also found in many other countries and regions of the world (Arnot and Phipps, 2003; Guzman and Letendre, 2003).

Women are concentrated in subjects leading towards jobs in education and health, while men dominate in courses about governance, finance and banking.

The idea of subject 'choice' needs to be interpreted with care. Although a function of students' aspirations, these themselves are strongly influenced by expectations of what opportunities are likely to be on offer. Box 3.18 shows that both the home environment and the

Box 3.18. Student 'choices' are never unfettered

Despite girls doing well in school in many contexts, parents may continue to hold stereotypical views about the abilities of girls relative to boys. In Mali, for example, almost one-third of 300 households surveyed said that the reason they differentiated between boys and girls was because boys were more intelligent. These expectations, being constantly reinforced within the home environment, inevitably influence subsequent behaviour.

Furthermore, the world of work also gives gendered messages, which influence boys' aspirations in different ways to those of girls. In Chile, a survey of aspirations of out-of-school 14–17-year-olds revealed that two-thirds of boys hoped to find a job, compared with only one-third of girls; on the other hand, over half of the girls hoped to get back to school compared with less than half of the boys. In the older group of 18–24-year-olds, more women hoped to study and more men hoped to find work.

These aspirations indicate that boys see the world of work as their dominant opportunity and are keen to enter it early, whereas girls are more likely to want to stay on in higher education in order to improve their chances in the labour market. Somewhat perversely, labour market discrimination seems here to be fuelling greater gender parity in education. This outcome, however, is far from being generally the case. It is more common for restricted job opportunities for women to lead to lower educational persistence and performance. An example is given by Togo where a general lack of employment for women, and a scarcity of jobs for school-leavers and diploma-holders since the implementation of economic reforms, is reported to have undermined the demand for girls' schooling.

Occupational expectations are widely reported to influence subject choice.

PISA survey data explored the occupations students' expected to have at age 30, and found that female students in the participating countries were far more likely than males to report expected occupations related to medicine, biology, nutrition and teaching. Male students on the other hand were more likely to expect careers associated with physics, mathematics or engineering. It is unsurprising that subject choices reflect these occupational expectations.

Note: PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment) is an initiative covering twenty-eight OECD and fifteen non-OECD countries, aimed at measuring 'how well young adults at age 15, and therefore approaching the end of compulsory schooling, are prepared to meet the challenges of today's knowledge societies'.

Sources: Avalos (2003); UNESCO Institute for Statistics/OECD (2003*b*, p. 12); Lange (2003*a*, 2003*b*).

labour market can profoundly influence student performance and choice. Thus, achieving a better balance in the participation of males and females in many educational programmes is likely to be influenced as much by changes outside the educational domain as within it.

In Asia, higher rates of unemployment prevail for women at all educational levels.

Does the labour market reward girls?

Despite genuine and soundly based concern about male underachievement, it is clear that many societies have different expectations for males and females. The underachievement of men in the educational arena has not yet resulted in their falling behind in the economic and political spheres. It seems that women may often require higher levels of attainment than men if they are to be successful in competition for jobs, equal remuneration, decision-making positions and access to an equal share of productive resources.[31]

By the same token, a recent survey of Asian countries' performance in relation to gender equity shows that higher rates of unemployment prevail for women at all educational levels. For example, in Indonesia and Sri Lanka (both countries having reached close to gender parity in enrolments), the unemployment rates for women are higher than those for men across all levels of education. The Indonesian figures show further that women's unemployment rates rise with their level of education, up to and including those with university degrees. Equally, women with vocational education are more likely to be unemployed than men (Lee, 2002).

Has women's greater presence in the workforce had an impact on gender wage gaps? There is a large amount of evidence on this question which cannot be fully treated here. However, the reliability and interpretability of the data on pay relativities by gender pose major problems. A recent UNIFEM report (UNIFEM, 2000) made a heroic effort to tackle this question, but was constrained by the limited range of countries for which internationally comparable datasets were available (especially to assess change over time), as well as by the incomplete coverage of different economic sectors, with a bias towards urban formal sectors. Despite such shortcomings, the report argues that in industry and services,

31. Bailey (2003). Empirical evidence for this is however ambiguous (Kamalich and Polachek, 1982; Sloane, 1985).

women on average earned 22% less than men in the late 1990s. In East Asia, where more reliable datasets are available, there is some evidence that the gender wage gaps narrowed in a number of countries during the 1980s and 1990s, but even so they remained large by international standards (Seguino, 1997, cited in Razavi, 2003). Except in the case of service and farm occupations, men's wages are between 20% and 100% higher than those of women and the male wage advantage occurs across all levels of education (Lee, 2002).

Beyond equal numbers

This chapter shows that education generates opportunity for women and men and that it, in turn, is shaped by the existing norms and values which create gendered educational choices and outcomes.

Much has changed in the world to impact on girls' education. While poverty continues to be a major factor in the countries that have the highest levels of gender disparity, evidence shows that where the gaps are closing, have closed, or are reversing slightly in favour of girls, they are doing so in ways that remain tightly scripted by notions of gender differences between men and women. We have seen that, when given opportunities for education, girls take advantage of them, work hard and perform well. However, it is ironic that boys' declining levels of educational performance may partly reflect wider inequalities in the labour market, which continue to favour men, whereas opportunities for women often remain determined by the notion that women's primary role is within the family as unpaid carers. Further, boys' relatively worse performance in some contexts indicates how masculine identity can have a negative impact on boys' ability to perform as well as girls. The role of education as a key institution for socializing young people is paramount in this respect.

Urgent action is therefore required to close gaps between boys and girls in countries where the gender gap in education is still large. Addressing poverty and economic constraints, as well as practices that continue to legitimize unequal investment in boys and girls, require urgent attention. Making schools safe environments and ensuring equity in the distribution of educational resources are crucial measures for promoting gender parity. However, the provision of infrastructure is not sufficient in itself. Attention paid to the content of textbooks, to process and to classroom practice is an important precondition of ensuring the enrolment and completion of girls and boys. Discriminatory content and bias in textbooks serves to reaffirm the wider social inequalities that prevent girls from taking advantage of educational opportunities in the first place.

The challenges of achieving parity do not end with the achievement of equal numbers of boys and girls in school, although that does represent a significant step towards the achievement of gender equality in education. As this chapter shows, gender equality is not a purely quantitative goal – it relates to the wider issues of equal opportunity, treatment and outcomes in education and in society more generally.

Box 3.19. Education, gender and employment in Maghreb countries

The Maghreb region demonstrates the difficulty of making linear assumptions about the links between education and employment for women. It shows that while education can influence women's opportunities to find formal employment in non-traditional sectors, economic policies, legislation and the social environment also matter.

Both Tunisia and Algeria have attained gender parity in education but Tunisian women have wide access to the labour market, whereas in Algeria it is much more restricted. Tunisia introduced curriculum reform to improve the image of women. The education system has expanded. Social reforms have been implemented, giving women the right to vote and improved divorce and marriage rights. Nearly 70% of Tunisian women are employed in the formal sector, and there is a growing number of female engineers. However, in Algeria, declining rates of female participation in the formal sector are largely associated with the decline of the public sector, which was the largest employer. Women are thus increasingly dependent on the informal sector. In contrast, Morocco is far from achieving gender parity in school enrolments and is falling further behind. However, Morocco performs much better than the two others in terms of female participation in the labour market. Poverty is one factor propelling women into the labour market, as witnessed by high rates of rural–urban migration for women. Thus, although most women are economically active, they are clustered in low-paid, low-skilled jobs.

Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report Team.

The Maghreb region shows the difficulty of making assumptions about links between education and employment for women.



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Schoolgirls on their way home, Egypt.

Chapter 4

Lessons from good practice

Chapter 3 indicates the many challenges that remain in order to close gender gaps and promote equality in education. The parity goal for 2005 remains elusive for many countries, and requires urgent action through a range of interrelated interventions. Yet, even where parity has been achieved, educational equality is often far from being attained. This chapter synthesizes a wide range of international experiences, to identify lessons for 'what works'. It begins by drawing some general lessons from history to explain national moves towards gender parity and equality. Later sections focus on the policy changes that have been important in particular countries where rapid progress has been made.

Historical lessons

Education for women has always been highly political, given the gender discrimination that has marked most societies.

In most countries that have achieved parity, the rapid progress made in women's education was a feature of the second half of the twentieth century. In many countries of sub-Saharan Africa and Asia, formal education was initially available only for boys. The consistency of this historical feature cuts across different states and different colonial experiences.[1]

In Latin America, where the expansion of education systems started earlier, there had been practically no formal education for women during colonial times – although they often received instruction at home to enable them to perform domestic tasks and to help them bring up their children (Avalos, 2003).

In India, during the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, what was seen as women's 'backwardness' was central to the colonial 'civilizing mission', which emphasized the importance of the educated mother in reproducing future generations of citizen-subjects (Jeffery et al., 2003). More recently, middle class reform movements played an important role, seeking education for women to make them suitable companions for their educated husbands. This focus on educating women in, or for, their roles as wives and mothers is a historical hangover that continues today in many countries.

In the Indian state of Kerala, however, the impact of a matrilineal culture and the efforts of the early modernizing state complemented each other, resulting in unprecedented educational and social development during the early twentieth century (Box 4.1). By the 1980s, when state governments elsewhere in India were striving to increase schooling enrolments, Kerala governments were seeking to close schools because of the declining primary school-age population. These different contextual circumstances demonstrate the potential power of public policy to transform women's education – even where economic growth remains modest.

Political agendas and ideology can also play decisive roles. The provision of education for women has always been highly political, given the history of gender discrimination that has marked most societies. In many, the drive to educate women has had to be framed within wider ideological constructions of the appropriate role for women. A historical perspective, however, shows how such forces can change over time. The Islamic Republic of Iran provides an interesting example of the ways in which women's education has been defined at various stages in relation to the overall goals and visions

Box 4.1. The Kerala 'model'

A major lesson from the Kerala experience, notable in India for having closed the gender gap in primary education by 2001, is the important role played by the state, and by enlightened leadership. As early as 1881, the Maharaja of Travancore had declared: 'No civilized government can be oblivious to the great advantages of popular education, for a government which has to deal with an educated population is by far stronger than one which has to control ignorant and disorderly masses. Hence education is a twice blessed thing – it benefits those who give it and those who receive it.'

From an early stage the royal states of Travancore and Cochin – both part of modern-day Kerala – viewed education as an important factor in modernization and development. The spread of education and the egalitarian ethic were mutually supportive forces. The state, for its part, invested in village libraries and night schools in order to sustain literacy and learning. The role of Christian missionaries, who set up schools in which deprived groups were given educational opportunities, was also important.

The expansion of employment opportunities in the public sector, with no institutional or social barriers to female participation, meant that education provided women with an important means of participating in the public arena. In this traditionally matrilineal society, women in Kerala did not face the social barriers that typified many other Indian states. Although by the 1950s the matrilineal family system had disappeared in Kerala, women retained good access to public employment and political representation. Levels of female literacy remain high.

Sources: Menon (1998); Jefferey (1992).

1. See Bunwaree (1999) on Mauritius; Pong (1999) on Malaysia; and Colclough et al. (2003), on Guinea, the United Republic of Tanzania and Ethiopia.

Box 4.2. Stages of the revolution and women's status in the Islamic Republic of Iran

Iran has undergone three distinct stages since the 1979 revolution, each of which has had important implications for women. **The first stage**, over the years 1979–88, focuses on the consolidation of the Islamic Republic as the new form of state rule in Iran. This period was marked by domestic turmoil, political violence, war, economic austerity, international tension and political isolation. It was a time during which ideology was in command and strict Islamic measures were enforced. The exemplary citizen of this stage was a doctrinaire Muslim and committed revolutionary whose ideal was self-sacrifice and, ultimately, martyrdom for the cause of the revolution.

The primary goal of the religio-political leadership at this time was the Islamization and politicization of society. Islamic laws and regulations covered both the private and public domains and religion and politics were integrated in all spheres of life. 'Politicization' was the process by which Iranians were to be transformed into the 'soldiers of the revolution', dedicated to the cause of establishing an Islamic society, and loyal to the religio-political leadership. Nevertheless, during this period, the revolutionary government acted as an equalizer and aimed to provide opportunities for the marginalized sectors of the society known as the 'dispossessed'. Meanwhile, there was a conscious attempt to Islamize and politicize women, the most ideal of whom were, at the time, mothers who raised pious Muslims and revolutionary soldiers seeking martyrdom.

The second stage (1988–97) was known as the period of reconstruction, following the devastating eight-year war with Iraq. It was marked by liberalization, privatization, increased levels of political exchange and reduced isolation in the international arena. During this period women were encouraged to participate in all arenas of social, educational, political and economic life, and to contribute to post-war reconstruction.

The period since 1997 has been characterized by reform in both state and civil society: political development, religious democracy, citizenship rights and responsibilities, and meritocracy became key themes. While some continue to adhere to a strict version of Islamic and revolutionary ideology, others advocate a more 'gentle version', that seeks domestic and international dialogue based on mutual respect and understanding. The rights-based approach of this period no longer views women as instruments of the revolutionary ideology or economic growth. The following words by President Khatami point to the new approach to womanhood in post-1997 Iran:

'We are not the guardians of women to give them something by force or take it away from them. We are only preparing the ground for women to recognize their rights and capabilities, and acknowledge their own merits. Once they have done that, they will reach their rightful position in society. And the first prerequisite is to increase women's knowledge and education' (La'li, 1999, p. 239).

This approach looks at women as independent entities – not merely wives, mothers, or soldiers of the revolution – who are entitled to basic human rights, including the right to education, in order to improve their own lives.

Women from different strata of the society have used the terminology of the three stages to their own advantage in various fields, including education. Once educated, women have, in turn, contributed to the transformation of gender relations in society. In other words, the exigencies of the three stages have called for the creation of an ideal female citizen based on the priorities of that period. Furthermore, the leaders of each stage have called on the schools to educate the ideal woman of each period. Interestingly, women have benefited from the attempt to Islamize and politicize them during the first stage; provide education and employment for them during the second; or empower them for a society based on meritocracy in the third.

Source: Mehran (2003).

of the state. It also shows how quickly these can change from being dominated by narrow, instrumental purposes to a much broader vision of the importance of women's education (Box 4.2).

Access to education can, in many conservative societies, represent an opportunity for women to move out of the household compound, allowing interaction with others outside the family circle, which in turn broadens experience and provides access to new resources and skills (Shaheed, 1995, p. 88).

Women's movements take centre stage

Historical trends and events provide the context for progress with women's education. In recent years, the collapse of authoritarian regimes in Latin America and other parts of the world gave an impetus to issues of rights and democracy. The return to civilian rule in many countries allowed women to press for political and legal reform at the national level. International conferences during the 1990s provided civil society organizations with a public forum, and saw the unprecedented participation of women's movements and their representatives. States have responded in different ways, signing up to international conventions such as the Convention

Table 4.1. Trends in fertility and female labour force participation rates, selected East Asian countries (1950–2000)

	Total fertility rate		Female labour force participation rate, age 15–64 (%)
Indonesia			
1950	5.49	(1950–55)	30.6
1960	5.42	(1960–65)	32.0
1970	5.20	(1970–75)	37.1
1980	4.11	(1980–85)	45.6
1990	3.00	(1990–95)	52.0
1999	2.6	(1995–2000)	53.2
Japan			
1950	2.75	(1950–55)	52.2
1960	2.02	(1960–65)	54.0
1970	2.07	(1970–75)	54.3
1980	1.76	(1980–85)	52.1
1990	1.49	(1990–95)	56.2
2000	1.39	(1995–2000)	59.6
Singapore			
1950	6.40	(1950–55)	22.3
1960	4.93	(1960–65)	22.9
1970	2.62	(1970–75)	31.0
1980	1.69	(1980–85)	47.4
1990	1.76	(1990–95)	54.4
1998	1.57	(1995–2000)	56.3
Republic of Korea			
1950	5.40	(1950–55)	32.1
1960	5.63	(1960–65)	30.5
1970	4.28	(1970–75)	41.2
1980	2.23	(1980–85)	50.2
1990	1.70	(1990–95)	51.1
1999	1.51	(1995–2000)	50.7
Thailand			
1950	6.40	(1950–55)	84.2
1960	6.40	(1960–65)	82.7
1970	4.97	(1970–75)	81.1
1980	3.05	(1980–85)	79.7
1990	2.10	(1990–95)	78.5
1999	1.95	(1995–2000)	69.2

Sources: ILO (1996*a*); ILO (2002*b*); United Nations Population Division (2002).

on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), putting in place quota systems, and amending or removing discriminatory laws (Molyneux and Razavi, 2002, p. 2). NGOs have acted as a laboratory for social change, providing alternative resources to women in the form of micro-finance and training in non-traditional economic activities, notably in South Asia. Modern social movements, built around the right to development, including literacy, have also contributed to mobilizing demand for education.

Among the most fundamental sources of change for women, however, have been different forms of economic and demographic transition. The relationships between family, education and work are major influences on women's futures, and on the patterns of incentives and costs facing families in deciding to send girls to school.

These factors are briefly discussed before considering more individual aspects of policy.

Economic factors: women's work, structural adjustment and globalization

Women are working outside the home more than ever before. Between the 1950s and the end of the 1990s, the proportion of women aged 20–59 who were economically active increased from around one-third to one-half. Recent estimates of female participation rates by region range from 14% in North Africa to 76% in East and Central Europe. In many cases, women's participation has increased at the expense of that of men. In half of the developing countries for which data are available, over the period 1975–95 the female participation rate rose whereas the male rate fell. The global labour force has become more female – rising from 36% in 1960 to 40% by 1997 (ILO data, cited in Razavi, 2003).

To some extent the increase in women's labour force participation rates is a statistical artefact – it reflects better ways of recording seasonal, unpaid and casual wage labour, even though much of women's work still goes unrecorded (Charmes, 1998). But it also reflects a number of real changes. In many parts of the world, more women must now work to ensure family survival – in the face of declining real wages and the increased monetary cost of subsistence resulting from cutbacks in public services and subsidies. It is therefore unsurprising to find that women's participation rates were intensified in countries where structural adjustment programmes were introduced (Pearson, 1999; Cagatay and Ozler, 1995). A further cause of the increase in women's labour force participation is the greater demand for women workers in the export sectors of some countries that have experienced considerable growth. Much of this has been in low-skilled manufacturing – notably in garments, footwear and electronic products.

Table 4.1 illustrates the employment gains for women in selected East Asian countries since

1950, and compares them with trends in fertility. Increases in participation have been particularly significant in Indonesia and Singapore. Other data show that participation rates have also increased for women of reproductive age, and although participation still declines between the 20–24 and the 30–34 age groups, they seem to be moderating. Women's employment has, in turn, contributed much to GDP growth in East Asia (Kim and Lau, 1994), which has, in many ways, been as much female led as export led (Bauer, 2001). Positive trends in women's economic status are also reported in contexts outside East Asia (McNay, 2003).

However, the employment gains made by women are as yet vulnerable to change. An apparent 'defeminization' of employment in some subsectors of export-oriented manufacturing has been noted, as export production becomes more skill- and capital-intensive (UNDESA, 1999). Among East Asian adjusters, Thailand, too, has shown setbacks (Table 4.1). A similar trend has also been taking place in the countries of East and Central Europe, where women's formal employment has fallen since the onset of economic reforms. The female labour force participation rate was lower in 1997 than in 1985 in all transition countries, and the drop in female employment was as drastic as 40% in Hungary (UNIFEM, 2000) partly because of the increasing informalization of female labour (Razavi, 2003).

Moreover, where feminization of the labour force continues, labour market conditions in general – for men as well as women – have often deteriorated towards those typically associated with 'women's jobs' (Standing, 1989). There has often been a decline in security of employment and in the proportion of jobs carrying rights against unfair dismissal, pension rights, health insurance rights and maternity rights, whereas there has been rapid growth in informal employment which lacks social protection (Elson, 2002). In short, the increase in women's economic participation in the global economy has often coincided with a deregulation in the conditions of work and in work-related entitlements. Thus, increased participation in global markets does not necessarily imply that women's economic rights can be exercised nor that their entitlements can be accessed.

In adjusting and transition economies, the education sector has suffered in three ways: overall cuts in public expenditures often affected education disproportionately; household expenditures on the direct costs of schooling decreased as living standards fell; and the increased reliance on children's work in the home and outside led to more of them being withdrawn from school (Stromquist, 1999; Rose, 1995). The social costs of economic adjustment fell disproportionately on women, as the household became the principal site of production. Further pressures came from male migration and an increase in *de facto* women-headed households. These experiences show how the logic for economic reform can sometimes be blind to the nature of women's responsibilities, causing a negative impact on children's education, as well as on female well-being.

The demographic transition: liberating women from reproductive burdens?

Accompanying the changes in the global economy, and women's participation in economic activity, have been changes in family structure which have had important implications for women. The demographic transition has become a dramatic global phenomenon. It is characterized by a sustained decline in mortality and subsequently in fertility, such that high and approximately equal death and birth rates eventually give way to low and approximately

The demographic transition has become a dramatic global phenomenon.

Box 4.3. Fertility decline and the demographic transition

The largest mortality and fertility declines have occurred in Asia and Latin America where, between the early 1960s and the late 1990s, life expectancy increased by 36% and 22%, whereas total fertility declined by 52% and 54%, respectively. Sub-Saharan Africa lags noticeably behind. There, life expectancy is 47.1 and total fertility is 5.71, both having fallen by 16% since the early 1960s. Within regions, there are also marked differences between countries. For example, within Asia, there are contrasting fertility transitions in China, India and Pakistan. China's fertility is already below replacement level, whereas Pakistan's fertility transition has only recently got under way, with India being at an intermediate level of transition.

Source: McNay (2003).

Box 4.4. Education as contraception?

The effects of female schooling on fertility have been widely documented. More educated women have better job prospects and thus have a greater value outside the home. They marry later, have fewer children and are better able to influence family decisions. In Africa, Asia and Latin America, as the number of years of completed schooling for women increase, their total fertility rate and their desired family size each decline. Across countries the level of maternal schooling is the strongest predictor of fertility decline.

However, the policy implications of these correlations are not straightforward. There appear to be 'threshold effects' associated with the impact of schooling on fertility. In some patriarchal settings, the possession of primary schooling is insufficient to help postpone the age of marriage. Second, the relationship appears stronger in more developed and urban settings. Third, there are other community effects: for example the impact on individual behaviour in India appears to depend on how widely female education is spread within communities. Finally, where sexuality and the politics of reproduction are socially determined, the impact of schooling on fertility will be heavily influenced by this context. Thus the relationship between girls' education and subsequent fertility is not straightforward and is mediated by different variables.

Sources: Heward (1999); Jeffery and Jeffery (1998); Schultz (1995).

equal rates. Low birth and death rates have long been established in developed countries, where life expectancy over 1995–2000 was 74.8 and the total fertility rate was 1.58.[2] In the developing world, life expectancy increased from 47.7 to 62.5 between 1960/65 and 1995/2000. Total fertility fell from 6.03 to 3.11 during the same period. However, in the developing world, there are large interregional, inter-country, and even intra-country, variations in both the timing of the onset of the transition and in its pace of change (Box 4.3).

The education of women is widely believed to contribute to the demographic transition, by raising the opportunity costs to women of having children, and by changing their knowledge and aspirations. The relationships here, however, are not unambiguous (Box 4.4), and the causal process can also work from the opposite end. Thus, smaller families leave women freer to pursue other previously unattainable activities, such as education and employment. In South Asia, larger family size reduces the likelihood of school attendance for both boys and girls, but to a greater extent for the first-born and for girls: the oldest child is often required to supplement the family income or, particularly for girls, to look after younger siblings. Larger family size reduces educational attainment for girls (Bhat, 2002, cited in Kabeer, 2003*a*), and gender equity is stronger in societies with low fertility (Dyson, 2002).

In East Asia, by reducing the conflict between domestic responsibilities and work, later marriage and fewer children have facilitated women's entry into the labour market (Bauer, 2001). Having fewer children is also associated with women's greater continuity of employment, with positive implications for their earnings and occupational choice, and for employers' willingness to train them.[3] In addition, longer female life expectancy has increased women's incentive to work by extending the post-child-rearing phase of their lives. In India, women who reported contraceptive use also reported higher likelihood of school attendance by all their children. This may have reflected an attitudinal difference – women who use contraception are likely to be predisposed towards education – or it may indicate causal relationship, with control being exercised over reproduction in order to afford investment in education (Bhat, 2002, cited in Kabeer, 2003*a*).

This type of evidence on the positive consequences of fertility decline for women's non-domestic roles is summarized in Figure 4.1, which shows the relationship between the UNDP gender empowerment measure (GEM) and the total fertility rate for the most populous countries having data for both indicators. The GEM is designed to measure gender equity in economic and political activity. Overall, lower fertility is associated with increased women's empowerment in these areas. It is noticeable that the highest values of the GEM are clustered in countries with below-replacement levels of fertility.

Moreover, there is no direct relationship between declining fertility and the expansion of women's non-domestic roles. Many factors temper the relationship. For example, in Zimbabwe (one of sub-Saharan Africa's most demographically advanced countries), women's opportunities in the economic, social and political spheres remain extremely limited despite fertility decline and substantial improvements in female education. Deteriorating economic conditions in Zimbabwe have adversely affected both women and men, and an increase in demand for contraception may in fact be poverty-driven, as many families cannot support additional children.

2. The total fertility rate is the average number of children a hypothetical cohort of women would have at the end of their reproductive period if they were subject during their whole lives to the fertility rates of a given period. It is expressed as the number of children per woman. A total fertility rate of 2.1, known as the replacement level of fertility, is required for a population to replace itself. Life expectancy is the average years of life expected by a hypothetical cohort of individuals who would be subject all their lives to the mortality rates of a given period. It is expressed in years (United Nations Population Division, 2002).

3. Evidence for developed countries also shows that childbearing impacts on women's earnings and occupational choice. For example, women may opt for occupations in which there are low penalties associated with temporarily leaving the market to have a child. See O'Neill (1985).

In such circumstances, women may have less to gain from fertility decline.[4]

Other cautionary notes are important. First, in contexts where son-preference is evident, as Chapter 3 discusses, fertility decline may actually lead to an *increase* in female disadvantage. The increased availability and use of pre-natal sex-selection technologies, in countries where daughters are not as desirable as sons, suggest this. Second, even where family size is declining, the costs of education may still serve as a factor constraining educational investment. Third, the demographic transition is also resulting in the ageing of populations across the world, albeit to varying degrees. Caring for elderly relatives may add to women's care burdens, with knock-on effects for daughters within the home (McNay, 2003).

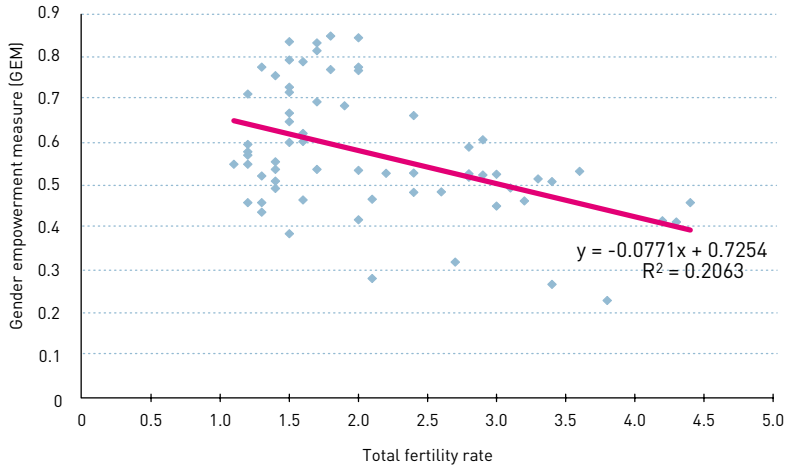
In South Africa and sub-Saharan Africa as a whole, the possibility that fertility decline may be associated with the HIV/AIDS epidemic is a further complicating factor. The impact of HIV/AIDS on fertility is not straightforward, but most demographers agree that the net effect is negative. HIV-positive women have lower fertility than HIV-negative women for both biological and behavioural reasons; they are more likely to be widowed or divorced, and less likely to remarry (Gregson et al., 2002). This manifestation of low fertility, therefore, is unlikely to have positive outcomes.

Decrypting social change

Thus, in many countries, processes of social change show that a range of factors can support gender equality. Increased female participation in the labour force can often be a trigger of change, gradually influencing social norms and perceptions of women's abilities and roles. Smaller families can make a big difference to women's time, either freeing them from housework to facilitate economic activity, or improving their child-free leisure. At the same time these social changes are sometimes a consequence of poverty, economic shock or crisis, rather than always reflecting women's greater autonomy or well-being.

Gender parity and equality in education therefore are best understood within this framework. Greater access to education can support and, in turn, be strengthened by these trends. There is no single 'magic bullet'.

Figure 4.1. Relationship between total fertility rate and gender empowerment measure in various countries (2000)



Note: Total fertility rate data are for 1995–2000, gender empowerment measure data are for 2000.
Source: UNDP (2002*a*).

Nevertheless, even a cursory understanding of history indicates the importance of purposeful actions, by the state and other agents, to weaken the forces leading to gender inequalities, and to address some of their root causes. Education can be an important lever of change in this respect.

History indicates the importance of purposeful action by the state.

Making public policy fit for girls

The state's role is important in at least three principal ways: *creating the enabling environment* for promoting female education through legislative and policy reform for gender equality; *investing in redistribution*, by allocating targeted resources for female education and special measures to reduce inequities; and *introducing educational reforms which respond to the particular circumstances of girls and women*. These will include measures to mitigate the burden of external shocks on women, such as the effects of conflict, economic crisis and HIV/AIDS, as well as more gender-focused educational reforms. In what follows, the focus is primarily on educational measures, though some of the broader measures that are important to support progress towards gender equality in education are indicated. Thus actions to promote gender parity and equality in education need to

4. See Mhloyi and Mapfumo (1998). For more evidence that fertility decline may sometimes be poverty-driven, or at least occur at low levels of socio-economic development, and therefore be less likely to bring advantages for women, see Sathar and Casterline (1998), for Pakistan, and Swartz (2002), for South Africa.

be nested within a wider set of measures aimed at promoting gender equality.

Creating an enabling environment

Legislative change and reform are critical for gender equality.

Legislative change and reform are critical for an enabling environment for gender equality. Legal measures to ensure that women enjoy rights to non-discrimination and the protection of fundamental freedoms are necessary bases for gender equality. Property rights, inheritance rights and establishment of gender equality in family law are all crucial cornerstones for securing economic and social justice for women. Many countries provide examples of the ways in which legislative change can underpin changes in the sphere of education. Costa Rica, for example, has legislated to eliminate sexist stereotypes and practices that legitimize gender inequalities in the education system. Its Act for Promoting the Social Equality of Women in 1990 made all educational institutions responsible for guaranteeing equal opportunities for men and women, which led to the creation of a Gender Equity Office in the Ministry of Public Education in 2000.

In Bangladesh, compulsory education and administrative and curriculum reform were introduced in the early 1990s. These actions together laid the foundation for a massive expansion in educational provision, which was particularly successful for girls.

In the United Kingdom, a number of legislative and policy developments led to the achievement of formal 'gender parity' in education. The earliest significant development was the Education Act of 1944, which established the principle of free secondary education for all. The raising of the school-leaving age to 16 in 1972 was important, although girls had in any case traditionally stayed on in school longer than boys. Increasingly, however, the contradiction between a 'domestic' education for girls and the new job opportunities for women focused attention on the problem of unequal treatment of women at work, in the family and in the school. The women's movement prioritized gender equality in education as one of its manifesto goals. Anti-discrimination legislation was important in highlighting discrimination against women teachers or managers, in preventing discriminatory access to education institutions and courses, and in encouraging the adoption of equality policies in schools and colleges, local government, examination boards and the inspectorate.[5]

Design of a well-articulated and mutually consistent policy framework is an important complement to legislation, if gender equality in education is to be achieved. Among many good examples is the case of Ethiopia. Consistent with current international targets, Ethiopia's Education and Training Strategy placed emphasis on achieving universal primary education by 2015 (Transitional Government of Ethiopia, 1994*a*). The country has been striving to achieve this goal, with considerable progress being made in recent years. It is also evident that gender issues have received high priority in Ethiopian education policy since its new government came to power in the early 1990s. A specific objective of the Education and Training Strategy was to use education to change attitudes towards the role of women in development. This included giving attention to gender issues in curriculum design, placing special emphasis on the recruitment, training and assignment of female teachers, and giving financial support to raising the participation of women in education. Furthermore, the National Policy for Ethiopian Women (Transitional Government of Ethiopia, 1994*b*) specified strategies to ensure that women received vocational guidance at all institutions of education, had access to the same curricula as men, and were free to choose their field of study.

Supportive strategies were also identified outside the remit of education. These included encouraging women to take up jobs in the civil service and to participate in decision-making at both community and national levels. Communities were informed of the harm done by some traditional practices, such as circumcision and marriage of girls before they reach puberty. In support of this, the government's Population and Social Policy aims to increase the minimum age at marriage for girls from the current age of 15 to 18 years (equal to that of boys). It also emphasizes the importance of giving special support to the education of women and of ensuring equal employment opportunities (Transitional Government of Ethiopia, 1994*c*). Taken together, and if implemented effectively, these measures should help to increase the demand for the schooling of girls (Rose 2003*a*).

5. More generally, several laws have been enacted which have provided direction for change. The Equal Payment Act 1970, Sex Discrimination Act 1975, Race Relations Act 1976, Protection from Harassment Act 1997, and the Human Rights Act 1988 have in various ways contributed to confirming the state's commitment to gender equality in a variety of spheres.

Mainstreaming gender into institutions

Since the United Nations Decade for Women (1976–85), the demand for governments to address women's needs in development has resulted in 'women's issues' being integrated into projects and policy-making institutions. The state has been a primary focus of women's advocacy, not least because historical lessons show the importance of public actions by the state in expanding opportunities for women.

Despite the vital role played by the state, actions have not been automatic. International solidarity forged through United Nations activities and conferences strengthened the hand of women's movements in making demands.

Several countries have created special mechanisms to address gender equality in education. In the Islamic Republic of Iran, the establishment of the Bureau of Women's Affairs (affiliated with the Office of the President) in the early 1990s, replaced by the Center for Women's Participation in 1997, resulted from an initiative to focus on the condition of women, to address their concerns and increase their participation in various arenas, including education. The Center set up special women's units in government ministries and organizations, among which was the Bureau of Women's Affairs at the Ministry of Education. The mandate of the latter is to 'campaign against undesirable gender attitudes' (PBO, 1999, p. 91). The Bureau organizes workshops and seminars at all levels of the Ministry of Education to raise awareness of the need for gender sensitivity in schools, among teachers and school administrators. It finances research on the impact of gender stereotyping in textbooks and gender discrimination in the curriculum.

National mechanisms however, have encountered a range of constraints, which have rendered them somewhat ineffective. The marginalization of many of these units within large departments resulted from under-resourcing of staff, skills and funding, 'and from being given responsibilities insufficient to securing gender-transformative policy change' (Goetz, 1998, p. 42). Without proper budgetary allocations, these units have often failed to make an impact on national development planning (Box 4.5).

Box 4.5. Mainstreaming gender: have adequate resources been allocated?

A report on follow-up actions to the United Nations Fourth World Conference on Women (Beijing, 1995), found that in twenty-seven countries (less than one-third of those reporting) the budget for women's programmes had grown since 1995. Increases ranged from 6% in India to 25% in New Zealand and 34% in Luxembourg. In an almost equal number (twenty-eight), the budget remained unchanged. In the remainder, budget cuts since 1995 ranged from an average of 20% (Germany) to a crippling 60% (Guatemala). In Canada, the national budget for women's programmes was cut from C$12 million before 1990 to C$8.1 million in 1998, or less than C$1 per woman and girl. For the most part, the budget for women's programmes represents a very small – and often insignificant – percentage of the national budget.

Some governments, including those of New Zealand, the United Kingdom and the United States, have pointed to the difficulties of assessing the budget for women's programmes because of the lack of gender-disaggregated data or of 'mainstreaming' policies that call for gender-responsive expenditures by all ministries and departments.

On the other hand, a sectoral analysis of government spending can be revealing. In South Africa, budgetary cuts had a negative impact on land reform, affecting women most. The agriculture budget continues to support commercial farmers at the expense of micro-farmers, who are mainly women. Over half of the energy budget went to the Atomic Energy Corporation rather than to the electrification of communities.

In other cases, such as Mexico, the women's department is reported to be part of a larger social development structure and unable to command a proportionate share of the budget for women's programmes.

Source: WEDO (1998).

Political backing is crucial for the introduction of policy reforms affecting gender equality. But effective implementation needs more than this. As indicated above, in Ethiopia, gender issues were championed by the long-serving Minister of Education, who was committed to incorporating gender into education policy. This meant that processes were established to ensure that gender issues were addressed at all levels of the system, with women's affairs officers appointed to both the central and regional (and sometimes also district) education offices. However, implementation has been patchy. This is partly due to insufficient clarity about responsibilities for monitoring gender and education strategies and to a lack of budgetary allocations. Consequently, gender strategies have not been mainstreamed into the planning and implementation process (Rose, 2003*a*).

Political backing is crucial for the introduction of policy reforms affecting gender equality.

The scarcity of women in senior positions puts them under pressure to conform.

Hostility to women's interests is often manifest within organizations, even including those with a mandate for implementing gender equality policies. Such policies are seen as being imposed by an external authority, such as a funding agency. The lack of ownership may become a further reason for opposing such initiatives (Swainson et al., 1998). Aid agencies have nevertheless been instrumental in putting gender equality onto the agenda of governments, even if their own practice is inadequately gender-aware.

In Rajasthan, India, the Shikshakarmi (Education Workers) Project, which has a strong focus on gender inequalities in education, established a Women's Task Force to provide regular support to the women working within these programmes. It was recognized that women's authority was often overridden by men, who did not take them seriously. Members of the Task Force were to provide a link between field- and state-level workers aimed at creating an environment for heightened gender awareness. However, discussion with the Task Force members revealed that many officials at field level were not gender sensitive and did not 'value' their ideas and opinions. Some women felt that even state-level officers of the Shikshakarmi Project were marginalized in the Regional Review Meetings (Jain, 2003).

Gender sensitivity training is essential, but may not command support. The Punjab Middle Schools Project – run by the Government of Pakistan, the World Bank and the UK Department for International Development – aims at higher participation rates, particularly of females, in Grades VI to VIII in rural areas and in urban slum schools. The problem of lack of reference to gender in the project documentation was exacerbated by early attempts to introduce gender activities in the project. These early activities included workshops for senior Education Sector officers, to sensitize them in gender issues in middle schools, and to help develop project approaches. In the event, senior figures were made to feel inadequate in their understanding of gender issues. This resulted in their alienation and in no forward movement towards mainstreaming gender activities in the project (Sibbons, 1999).

Too few women within the government exacerbates the difficulties of putting forward women's perspectives. In any case, bureaucratic organizations are often hostile to agendas that challenge accustomed patterns of working. While it cannot be assumed that all women share the same interests, or are necessarily champions of gender equality, the scarcity of women in senior positions puts them under pressure to conform, rather than to bargain for change.

Investing in redistribution

Reducing the costs of girls' education

The direct and indirect costs of schooling to households impede access to education for the most disadvantaged groups. Abolishing primary-school fees can have a major impact on boosting the enrolment of both girls and boys, as the experience of Malawi, Mauritius and many other countries can testify (Riddell, 2003; Bunwaree, 1999; see also Chapter 5). However, eliminating the fee aspects of direct costs is only one, albeit important, part of the challenge of achieving gender parity and equality in education. As demonstrated in Chapter 3, the opportunity costs of schooling are high – and often greater for girls than for boys, just as its perceived benefits are often less. Thus targeted interventions in favour of girls are required in order to equalize the chances of girls and boys attending school.

Measures to reduce child labour

The need for children to work – the source of the opportunity costs of school attendance – has been shown to be one of the most important causes of under-enrolment in school. Accordingly, measures to reduce or remove the need for child labour represent a potentially important means of increasing school enrolments among both girls and boys.

However, one weakness of most discussions of such policy interventions is that they fail to recognize the predominance of household employment among child workers. This reflects the strong media coverage given to children employed in export sectors such as the carpet, garment and sports-equipment industries. This emphasis typically leads to proposals for trade sanctions, for adherence to international labour standards and for minimum wages (Basu, 1999, 2000). Yet to the extent that the parents of child labourers are self-employed, an adult minimum wage will have, at best, indirect effects on child labour. Trade sanctions that involve banning the import of products made with child labour will have no direct effects on children who work on

subsistence farms. Legislation that bans child labour is especially difficult to monitor when children are employed in household-run or home-based activities. This is not to say that these kinds of legislative intervention are undesirable. Rather, it emphasizes that additional measures will be needed to reduce child labour substantially for most of the children involved, and particularly girls. The design of policy to address child labour depends on recognizing that most children work with or for their parents in economies where markets are underdeveloped and where the legal and political infrastructure is thin.

It is important, for the purposes of policy design, to distinguish between long-running policies and those which focus on more short-term objectives. The former address the big goals of poverty reduction, economic growth and reduced inequality. The latter target the poorest sections of society, being designed to help them to break out of poverty traps or to avoid falling into them.

To the extent that the main underlying cause of child labour is poverty, long-term strategies of poverty alleviation and elements of pro-poor growth policy are relevant to addressing child labour. Among these are measures that raise the productivity and hence the wages of adult labour.[6] In addition, any measures that reduce discrimination in employment or wages against women will discourage child labour among girls, both directly (by reducing household poverty) and indirectly (by raising the returns to girls' education).

An emphasis on poverty leads, at least implicitly, to advocacy of policies that offer credit to poor households (e.g. Ranjan, 1999; Jafarey and Lahiri, 2002; Dehejia and Gatti, 2002), not least because they are seen as offering a way of 'enabling' rather than subsidizing the poor. But assessment of micro-credit schemes across the developing world suggests that they do help the poor but not the most poor. While they retain their relevance to one section of the poor, the very poorest will be helped more by large-scale public investments supporting both the supply of, and the demand for, education. This is not only 'enabling' by virtue of raising the productivity of the next generation, but it also generates a substantial social payoff.

Where the trade-off between the returns to work and the returns to schooling is the main influence on the volume of child labour, investments in the quality and availability of schooling will pay off. Further, for girls to reap the (pecuniary) benefits of their education over the long term, measures need to be taken to reduce labour-market discrimination against girls. As indicated in Chapter 3, studies from many developing countries show labour market segmentation with males and females typically doing different types of work. Where they are engaged in comparable work, girls and women appear to be paid lower wages than boys and men. Regulatory measures to stop such practices are difficult to enforce in rural economies. Thus social mobilization, education and the organization of women – combined, possibly, with monetary incentives to employers – are more likely to bring about an equalization of these differences than legislation per se. Declining fertility and rising living standards will undoubtedly assist the process of bringing women into the labour market. In view of widespread evidence that working women have a greater say in household decision-making and appear to spend more resources on children than do men, this may be expected further to encourage the education of the next generation of children. The new role models implied by these changes would be likely to lead to the impact on girls being larger than on boys.

Policies can be designed specifically to provide parents with incentives to send their children to school. Financial incentives, such as cash transfers to cover the foregone 'wage' of the child, may be relevant even where household poverty is not compelling. In such cases, it seems sensible to make these transfers conditional on school attendance. Incentives are particularly relevant if parents appear not to be considering the best interests of children, or if social norms prevent these from being acted upon. In such situations, incentives are likely to be required to persuade parents to make better choices regarding the use of their children's time.

Although it may not be intuitively obvious, offering pensions to the elderly can help to reduce child labour. It is not uncommon in developing countries for elderly parents to live with their children and grandchildren. In the absence of pensions, the younger adults make (implicit or explicit) income transfers to dependent elderly

Policies can be designed to give parents incentives to send their children to school.

6. Although the adult wage is often judged to be a key variable, too much emphasis can be placed on 'labour market reform': in most developing countries less than half of the able adult male population earn a regular wage. Most are self-employed. It is therefore more appropriate to think in terms of measures that raise labour productivity – these will range from provision of irrigation to offering support prices for agricultural products. In the longer term, education and training programmes will raise the skill level of the adult population, making children a poorer substitute for adult labour and, thereby, lowering the demand for child labour.

parents which, on average, will reduce the resources available for children. Indeed, analysis of the operation of the old Poor Law in England suggests that the availability of old-age pensions had beneficial effects on children (see Smith, 1996). There is also contemporary evidence that the introduction of a state pension in Brazil was associated with a reduction in child labour (Carvalho, 2000), with the largest impact being on girls living in households where the grandmother received a pension.

A stronger response to parental choices that are undesirable for the child is legislative intervention. Caution is needed, however. For example, introducing a ban on child labour may well leave families (and children) worse off, if children's income was necessary for survival. Moreover, introducing a ban raises serious implementation issues in a society with limited legal and political infrastructure. The design of such a ban needs to take account of possible unintended consequences. For example, a law passed in India in 1986 that threatened to fine employers of child labourers in fact resulted in lower wages for children (Bhalotra, 2003). Furthermore, a partial ban may result in child workers moving from the protected to the unprotected sector, where conditions are typically worse (see Bachmann, 1998). On balance, total bans are likely to be more effective than partial bans, and they are particularly required for the worst forms of child labour (defined by the ILO to include hazardous work, prostitution, soldiering and other forms of extreme exploitation).

The vast majority of domestic child workers are girls.

One major problem in assessing the degree to which policy change is required is that the extent of domestic child labour is largely unknown. Those involved in domestic work for households other than their own are variously estimated at 10% to 20% of all girl child labourers (ILO, 1996*b*, 1998, 2002*a*). However, a much larger number of girls are engaged in domestic work for their own households, very many of whom are having their rights – including their rights to education – infringed by these responsibilities. In Bangladesh and Nepal a recent study found that by the age of 10 it is not uncommon for girls to be working an average of ten hours per day. In Egypt it has been estimated that girls are responsible for 85% of all household chores. Other case studies exist (Global Campaign for Education, 2003*a*). Nevertheless, because much of this work remains hidden, a priority is to increase the availability of data and knowledge about its extent and characteristics. International organizations have given some profile to the issue of child domestic labour through publications, lobbying and assisting the development of networks. Organizations such as the Visayan Forum in the Philippines work with employers and with child domestic workers themselves, to publicize their rights (Visayan Forum, 1997). However, this aspect of child labour is in need of more urgent attention than others, as the nature and extent of exploitation involved is more difficult to assess and combat. The vast majority of the children affected by it are girls.

Clearly, the range of measures available to reduce the incidence of child labour is large. Many of the available policies can increase the likelihood of both girls and boys being sent to school. Some, however, also allow the possibility of targeting in order to change the balance of incentives that lead to girls, in particular, being excluded from schools. Lessons from the use of three types of these targeting measures are briefly drawn below: scholarships, income-support schemes and school-feeding programmes.

Scholarships for girls

The Female Secondary School Stipend Programme in Bangladesh is one such initiative – focusing on secondary, rather than primary, schooling. Described as 'the world's vanguard programme of this type', there are lessons to be learned from its experience.

The objectives of the programme and the ways in which it operates are described in Box 4.6. Its impact is difficult to establish. Only one assessment is available, for the NORAD pilot project covering 780 girls who received stipends from 1986 to 1992. Other studies are planned. Isolating the effect of the stipend programme is difficult because of its interaction with other school improvement projects, such as teacher training and improved school management.

However, project completion reports strongly suggest that the effect on girls' enrolment has been substantial. In some project areas, the number of awardees has increased fivefold. In others there have been sharp increases, with girls overtaking boys. In 2002 the repetition rate in Grades 6–9 was under 4% for all students and

Box 4.6. Functioning of the Female Secondary School Stipend Programme, Bangladesh

The specific objectives of the Female Secondary School Stipend Programme are to increase girls' enrolment and retention in secondary schooling; to assist them in passing the Senior School Certificate (SSC) examination; to enhance their employment opportunities as primary-school teachers, extension workers, health and family planning workers and NGO workers; and to delay girls' marriage.

The programme was initiated in1982 by a local NGO with USAID financial assistance, under the supervision of the Asia Foundation. The number of stipends awarded far exceeded the projected number at the time of its inception, and the number of schools involved increased by 12% within four years of project life. Largely on the basis of the above 'success', in January 1994 the Bangladesh Government launched a nationwide stipend programme for girls in secondary school (Grades 6–10) in all 460 *upazilas* (sub-districts), including all *madrasas* (religious schools) of the country. Support was provided by the World Bank, the Asian Development Bank and the Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation. Subsequently stipends were also provided to girls in higher secondary Grades 11–12. After the initial emphasis on closing the gender gap in access to secondary education, which constituted the first overriding aim of the programme, the project started a second phase that emphasized improving the quality of secondary education and securing its financial sustainability.

Under the programme, free tuition and stipends are awarded to all eligible female secondary-school students enrolled in recognized institutions outside the metropolitan areas. To be eligible for a stipend a girl must attend school for at least 75% of the days of the school year, she must achieve at least 45% marks on her evaluations and examinations and she must remain unmarried. These requirements reinforce the strategic goals of increasing access by paying part of the cost to parents and part to schools; of improving quality by increasing pressure for good performance; and of delaying girls' marriage to achieve social and demographic goals. Stipend amounts are the same for all girls, but vary by grade.

Stipends are awarded in two instalments per year directly to the girls through their accounts in *upazila* branches of a nationalized bank. If bank branches are more than 5 km from the school, bank officers open temporary booths at the school premises to allow girls to withdraw the stipend money. Girls open accounts, receive passbooks and cheque books and learn how to operate an account. Participating institutions receive tuition fees in two semi-annual instalments against each stipend awardee, together with three months' tuition for all recipients in Grade 10, to compensate for the period before the SSC examination.

Source: Mahmud (2003).

only 3% for girls. This exceeded the performance target of lowering the repetition rate to less than 5%. Attendance rates in Grades 6–10 reached 65% for both boys and girls.

Other positive impacts on girls are reported. The payment directly through girls' own bank accounts is an empowering experience. Girls recognize a new ability to break female stereotypes and gain access to employment. Quotations from case studies show girls from poor rural backgrounds have been able to gain jobs in business, to delay marriage in order to work and, for some women who had themselves been denied opportunities to study, get a chance to educate their daughters. These women variously refer to these opportunities as being both useful and symbolically important as recognition of women's rights to be educated (Pathmark Associates, 2001).

The advantages of the programme are manifold. As there is no selection of stipend awardees, the intervention is simple to implement. The system minimizes leakages and has few hidden costs as school authorities are not directly involved, except for certifying compliance with stipend eligibility and performance criteria.

One weakness of the programme is an unintended exclusion of the poorest girls because the stipend is too low to cover all the costs of sending a girl to school. It has also failed to reach girls in underserved areas. Further, securing access of girls to secondary school will have limited meaning in the absence of improvements to the quality of schooling. A disturbing trend has been the declining performance in examinations. The Senior School Certificate (SSC) pass rate for girls dropped from 52% in 1998 to 45% in 2002, whereas the High School Certificate (HSC) pass rate fell from 37% to 27%. In both examinations the performance of girls is poorer than that of boys. Moreover, the drop-out rate for girls in Grades 6–10 remains very high (46%) compared with that of boys (39%).

Scholarships can have a substantial effect on girls' enrolment.

The future of the programme is in question. Raising the stipend amount to mitigate some of the exclusionary effects cited above would

escalate costs. There are also information gaps, which make assessment of the impact of targeting difficult. While donors support the replacement of the universal stipends for girls with further targeting by socio-economic need, the Government of Bangladesh is reluctant to target more sharply. This is partly because of the political difficulty of reducing the coverage of a universal programme, and partly in anticipation of the management costs and potential for corruption that may arise. In fact, the government is actually considering extending the scheme to poor boys, based on pressure from local communities. Thus, tensions between expanding coverage and achieving more effective targeting arise, which may have a negative impact on the future of the programme.

Cambodia has a national programme of scholarships for girls and ethnic minorities for Grade 6–7 transition.

Other models also exist. In Cambodia, a national programme of scholarships has been developed for girls and ethnic minorities for Grade 6–7 transition. The programme strategy has been evaluated in co-operation with two local NGOs, and will be implemented through provincial and district education offices. It specifically aims to improve equity and gender parity by ensuring the transition of girls and ethnic minorities from poor rural and remote provinces of the country through secondary education and subsequently to post-secondary education. The scholarship will not only cover newly enrolled girls, but will also give assistance to poor girls who are already enrolled in lower-secondary school but who are at risk of dropping out due to high costs. The scholarships for ethnic minority children will also support extra costs for board and lodging, where appropriate. The programme will target 15,000 beneficiaries, of whom 95% will be girls (Velasco, 2003).

This affirmative action programme has a gender-strategic objective of creating many role models from disadvantaged and vulnerable groups, who may effectively alter the gender and cultural biases that exclude them from equal access to education and from other development opportunities.

In 2000, Kampuchean Action for Primary Education (KAPE) (Bredenburg et al., 2003) piloted a girls' scholarship programme at lower-secondary level in Cambodia. The programme, funded by USAID through the Asia Foundation, provided multiple support packages for poor girls in Grade 6 and allowed them to continue their studies until the end of the lower-secondary school cycle (Grade 9). The project was piloted in four districts of Kompong Cham province. One of the support packages provides assistance for room and board for those girls who live more than 15 km from a secondary school. An important characteristic is that it does not rely on the provision of costly dormitories, but rather on placing girls with foster families in which the mother is the teacher. Not only are these arrangements more conducive to health and social development, but they also provide a positive female role model for girls. In keeping with government policy to promote pro-poor interventions that increase educational access, programme beneficiaries are selected primarily on the basis of need.

An important assumption tested by this pilot programme was whether subsidies for direct educational costs would be enough to address both the critical needs for girls to enrol in lower-secondary school and for them to remain there. With success rates at between 90% and 95%, this initially seems to have been the case at the pilot stage.

Income support schemes

Income transfer programmes in Brazil that provide cash to poor families whose children (between ages 7 and 14) attend school have been fairly successful. Child labour in Brazil is estimated to occupy 9% of the school-age group. However its incidence is four times greater among the poorest 20% of the population than among the richest quintile (World Bank, 2001).

Since 1995, the Brazilian Government has initiated several progressive education reforms (Box 4.7) in an attempt to improve elementary public education. The largest of these is Bolsa-Escola, a national programme that attempts to address high drop-out rates by providing income subsidies to families with school-age children on condition that each child attends school at least 90% of the time. This is potentially significant in that while enrolment rates are high, 63% of children drop out before finishing primary school (Denes, 2003). The cash transfers for each child are paid directly to their mothers, in recognition that they tend to spend more of their available income on the family than do men. Since 1995, when the first programmes were implemented in Campinas and Brasilia, the programme has expanded to include around fifty-eight

Box 4.7. Getting children out of work and into school in Brazil

The Child Labor Eradication (PETI) Programme, initiated in 1996 in rural areas of Brazil, aims to increase educational attainment, reduce poverty and eradicate the 'worst forms' of child labour. It provides stipends of approximately R$25 per month to poor families who have working children aged 7–14; resources are given to the mothers of the beneficiaries. In order to be eligible, all school-age children in the family must attend school, participate in after-school activities, and agree not to work. After-school activities are a way of ensuring that children do not mix school and work. This targeted programme is supported by rural worker unions, which assist in the selection of children and in monitoring its impact. By 1999 the programme had reached 166 municipalities in eight states, covering an estimated 131,000 children.

A similar scheme, the Minimum Income Assurance Programme (Funda Garantia de Renda Minima – FGRM), was established by the Ministry of Education to provide financial aid and technical support to municipalities having per capita income and tax revenues less than the state average. Again, all beneficiaries – who were selected from among the poorest families – were required to demonstrate the school attendance of all their children between the ages of 6 and 15. The programme was financed in part from federal funds and in part from municipalities' tax revenues. By the turn of the century, the Ministry of Education estimated that the FGRM had benefited 1 million children in more than 500,000 families. The funding for the FGRM was significantly increased to US$850 million for 2001, aiming to reach almost 11 million children.

Scaling up the child labour initiatives

In September 2000 the government merged the above two programmes with the Bolsa-Escola programme (see text), which had 2 million beneficiaries in 2000 under an umbrella 'Alvorada Programme'.

Additionally, a new programme, Sentinela, was established under Alvorada to reduce child prostitution. This programme targets at-risk children aged 7–14 from families with income of less than half the minimum wage. By providing US$20 to each child and a further US$12 per child per month for attending after-school activities, the government aimed to reach 8,500 children working in the sex industry. The preventive measures included a national campaign to raise awareness, annual state-level seminars, and workshops for programme co-ordinators regarding the gravity of the problem of prostitution. The combative measures included co-ordinating plans with councils, facilitating access to social services, and guaranteeing interaction between families, schools and the community. An evaluation system is in place to measure the efficiency and effectiveness of the programme.

Source: Gustafsson-Wright and Pyne (2002).

municipalities and four states with an estimated 2 million beneficiaries (Denes, 2003; Caccio-Bava, n.d.).

The Bolsa-Escola programme was established nationally in 2000. Studies conducted during its expansion phase, between 1995 and 1999, show sharp reductions in school drop-out rates and increased enrolments in post-primary education. Further, the involvement of children aged 10–14 in child labour has decreased by 36% in Brasilia. Positive impacts on poverty and income have been recorded, and qualitative interviews with parents indicate that household expenditure on welfare goods has also increased. Another positive effect of Bolsa-Escola stems from the dependability of the monthly income subsidy, which contrasts with the uncertain receipts from informal sector work. The consistent supplement gives families access to previously unattainable sources of credit and is reported to have stimulated financial planning. Although the amount of the subsidy is less than the expected income from child labour, its dependability, together with the reduction in violence and health problems associated with work in the informal sector, outweighs the loss of income for most families (Gustaffson-Wright and Pyne, 2002).

School feeding programmes

Food incentives, provided as meals or snacks at school or dry food rations to take home, can also make a significant contribution to increasing the enrolment and retention of girls in school. Food acts as an incentive by providing a real income transfer to families of students: when children receive a meal at school, their families need to feed them less at home. Similarly, when food rations are distributed directly to families in exchange for the schooling of their daughters, they need to purchase less food (or they can sell the food for cash).

What is the evidence of the impact of school feeding programmes on gender inequality? According to a study of the national Food for Education (FFE) programme in Bangladesh, enrolment in FFE government schools increased

Food incentives can make a significant contribution to increasing the enrolment and retention of girls in school.

Box 4.8. The Food For Education (FFE) programme in Bangladesh

Food for Education (FFE) is an 'in-kind' stipend programme begun in 1993, linking monthly food transfers for poor households to the enrolment of their children in order to achieve four key objectives: increased school enrolment, better school attendance, lower drop-out rates and higher quality of primary education (World Bank, 2002*d*). By 2000, the FFE pilot programme distributed 15 kg of wheat or 12 kg of rice per month to more than 2 million students in 17,811 public and private primary schools, accounting for about 27% of all primary schools in Bangladesh (IFPRI, 2001; USAID, 2002).

To qualify for the FFE programme, households must own less than half an acre of land, or have a household head who is disabled, a day labourer, or female. Any wage earners in the household must be in low-income jobs (IFPRI, 2001).

These targeting criteria mean a person from the lowest income quintile is about 2.5 times as likely to be selected for the programme as an individual from the richest quintile (World Bank, 2002*d*). This, however, implies that substantial errors of targeting are involved.

The rate of attendance reportedly increased sharply from 1993 to 1998 owing to the FFE programme (USAID, 2002; Ravallion and Wodon, 1998). World Bank estimates suggest that the programme increased the probability of going to school by a little over 20% for both boys and girls. A preliminary investigation of the 2000 Household Income and Expenditure Survey (HIES) shows that these gains have been sustained. More recent studies (IFPRI, 2001) showed that student enrolments in FFE schools increased by 35% during the first year of the programme with those of girls increasing by 44%, in comparison with 28% for boys. By contrast, enrolment in non-FFE schools increased by about 7% during the period. Moreover, only 6% of the FFE beneficiary students dropped out between 1999 and 2000, compared with 15% of the children who did not receive benefits.

While no data are available to link the FFE initiatives to a reduction in poverty, the evidence does show that between 1992 and 1995 the FFE programmes decreased marriage rates for adolescent girls from 36% to 32%, as a consequence of a requirement that beneficiary parents sign a bond promising that their daughters will not marry before the age of 18.

Source: Fransman et al. (2003).

by 41% for girls, compared with 27% for boys between the inception of the programme and the end of its first year. In contrast, the enrolment increase at non-FFE government schools during the same period was 5.4% for girls and 0.1% for boys (see Box 4.8) (Ahmed and del Ninno, 2002). An evaluation of a school feeding programme in India carried out in the early 1980s found that enrolment rates in programme districts had increased by 10.4% for girls and 6.4% for all students over a five-year period, whereas in non-programme districts the increase was 7.9% for girls and 9.7% for all students.[7] In another study from India, female school participation was found to be about 15 percentage points higher when the local school provided a midday meal than when it did not. Enrolment of boys was much less responsive to this facility. The availability of midday meals also had a major positive effect on girls' grade attainment. The chances of completing primary education were found to be 30 percentage points higher for girls living in villages with a midday meal scheme than for other girls (Drèze and Kingdon, 1999).

Another study from India again observed that, in areas with school feeding, retention rates between Grades 1 and 5 were higher for girls than for boys, whereas the reverse was true in areas without school feeding (Laxmaiah et al., 1999). In the Dominican Republic, the withdrawal of a school-feeding programme was found to affect girls relatively more than boys. In a cohort of rural first-graders, enrolment dropped by 43% for girls and 19% for boys. The negative effects on girls were most significant in the lower four grades and in rural areas (Gall et al., 1986, cited in Levinger, 1986).

In spite of these promising results, several important issues emerge in relation to food-based support/incentive programmes. The co-ordination and management required is demanding. Communities need to be alert to whether they are receiving their entitlements. It is necessary to ensure that resources meant for distribution to the poorest are not captured by other groups, and that the quality of the grains offered is not compromised. Equally, the potential trade-off between resources spent on the programme and resources that could be spent on improving the quality of education needs to be assessed.

7. Gupta and Kom Hom (1984); note that the figures reflect cumulative effects of school feeding, which started in the 1960s.

For food-incentive programmes to be effective, some conditions must be met. First, if food is offered as an incentive, it will be most effective among the poor, who typically allocate 65% to 70% of their income to food (World Bank, 1992, cited in World Food Programme, 1999). Proper targeting is therefore the key (Levinger, 1986) but is not always easy to achieve. In the case of Bangladesh, a substantial part of the FFE programme allocation was not received by its intended beneficiaries (USAID, 2002). Girls were reported not to receive equal rations to boys, and many families received less food from the FFE programme than they were entitled to. In addition, below-age children were sometimes registered and some parents enrolled children in two or three neighbouring schools, causing double counting and distortion of enrolment figures. As a result of these difficulties, the Government of Bangladesh decided to drop the food ration programme in favour of monetary stipends.

Second, local communities and parents need to be responsible for the management of food incentive programmes. In Bangladesh, the responsibility for food distribution under the FFE programme was shifted from School Management Committees to private dealers, in order to free teachers' time for teaching. However, this was one of the main causes of malpractice and food losses (Ahmed and del Ninno, 2002). Insufficient community involvement and knowledge about the programme was identified as one of the key reasons for the erratic implementation and limited results of the national midday meal scheme in India (Meir, 2001). Community involvement in the management of food incentive programmes not only improves their functioning, but it can also serve as an opportunity to strengthen community/school relations in general (Levinger, 1986) and for communities to take more responsibility for girls' education (World Food Programme, 2000). The participation of women is particularly important in this context.

Third, where the need for child labour and availability of employment opportunities for children coexist, school feeding programmes are likely to act as incentives for school attendance only when the ration size is large enough to be viewed by parents as constituting a significant income-transfer. In such circumstances, it might even be desirable for children to take part of the ration home (Levinger, 1986).

Fourth, food incentives to support enrolments need to be part of more comprehensive packages of interventions for girls' education (school construction, improvements in school infrastructure, female teacher training, elimination of gender stereotypes in curricula and teaching materials, etc.). Where incentives and cost subsidy programmes have their intended effect of improving demand and enabling access, the quality of schooling is likely to be affected. In the case of the FFE programmes, for example, school quality actually decreased largely because of increased enrolment and class attendance rates, which led to the overcrowding of FFE school classrooms compared with others. While there are sixty-two students per teacher in non-FFE schools, on average, FFE schools had seventy-six students per teacher. Deteriorating levels of quality also had an adverse effect on levels of achievement (IFPRI, 2001).

We can conclude that school feeding programmes can provide useful incentives to enrol in and attend school, which seem to promote greater gender parity. On the other hand, experience shows the danger of these measures being mistargeted. Moreover, their cost-effectiveness has not yet been fully demonstrated in comparison with other incentive-based approaches.

Local communities and parents should be in charge of food incentive programmes.

Gender perspectives in educational reform

Schools are places where young people grow up, learn about the world and the society in which they live, form identities and imagine their futures. Measures to improve the experience of schooling for both girls and boys require a gender perspective in the design of schooling interventions. This includes relatively mundane issues – such as the fact that the process of getting to school may itself be a challenge, given concerns for safety and security, where schools are located at some distance from home. More fundamentally, the quality of the schooling experience for many children is often replete with threats – or may simply not be interesting enough to hold the attention of the child. Often children re-entering school do so under stigmatized or exceptional circumstances – as in the cases of child soldiers, disabled children, pregnant girls or young mothers, or those from families disrupted by HIV/AIDS. The quality of

teaching may be poor, and the curriculum full of messages that reinforce gender difference and suppress the aspirations of young people. Ensuring that education does not fail children requires paying attention to the 'softwares' of change, the mechanisms whereby schooling becomes an enjoyable and equitable experience.

Change does not require only the investment of resources to develop infrastructure, it also needs investment in consultation, community participation and the creative development of solutions. Good examples of this come from Rajasthan in India, where community initiatives have enabled girls who would otherwise miss out on school to attend. In the Shikshakarmi Project, a *mahila sahyogi* (woman helper/escort) is appointed to enable young girls to attend school. The *mahila sahyogi* is a local woman who collects these children from their homes, escorting them to the school and back. She also provides childcare during school hours. With this additional support, girls' attendance at schools receives a boost (Jain, 2003).

In many countries pregnant girls face expulsion from formal education.

These and other simple measures can contribute to change, and point to directions for the design of gender-aware interventions, adapted to local needs and requirements.

Addressing the needs of pregnant girls

In many countries pregnant girls face expulsion from formal education. At times this also affects the rights of teachers, who may face suspension or dismissal if they become pregnant, especially when they are unmarried (CEDAW, 1996, paras. 113–16). There is, nevertheless, increasing debate as to why pregnant girls should be discriminated against in this way. An example comes from Colombia. The Constitutional Court in Bogotá stated of the placement of a pregnant girl in less intensive tutorials (against her will), 'surely, the stigmatization and discrimination implied in the suspension from school attendance have converted this method of instruction [limited tutorials] into a disproportionate burden which the pupil has to bear solely because she is pregnant, which, in the opinion of the court, amounts to punishment. The transformation of pregnancy – through school regulations – into grounds for punishment violates fundamental rights to equality, privacy, free development of personality, and to education'.[8]

Elsewhere, non-governmental organizations, such as the Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE), have exposed the discriminatory treatment of pregnant girls in a range of countries. The African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child explicitly recognizes the right of the pregnant girl to an education.[9] In response, some countries, including Botswana, Guinea, Kenya, Malawi and Zambia now permit the re-entry of girls into formal education after pregnancy. Nevertheless, this sometimes only holds for the twelve months immediately following the birth, and may be subject to other limitations, notably that the girl may not re-enter the same school (CEDAW, 2000, p. 13). In such circumstances it may still be questioned as to whether pregnancy is, in fact, being treated as a disciplinary offence.

National reports to the United Nations committees responsible for monitoring the realization of human rights are instructive. While one country has admitted to having 'no educational policy in this area', it admits that 'young [girls] may be expelled because of pregnancy, or be denied the opportunity to resume their education following childbirth' and the 'the main impetus for expelling pregnant students is pressure from the parents of other students' (CEDAW, 2000, p. 48). This indicates a clash between private discrimination and the public responsibility for the realization of the right to education of all, which lies with the state. In some countries having an apparently firm policy prohibiting the expulsion of pregnant girls, this may not extend to private schools. Yet others report 'great success' in enforcing wide-ranging legislation prohibiting the expulsion of pregnant girls (CEDAW, 1999). On the other hand, even where the legislation is in place, special efforts aimed at the girls themselves are often necessary, in order to encourage them to continue their education after pregnancy (Box 4.9).

Sexuality and reproductive health information for adolescents

The rights of pregnant girls do not just start with pregnancy. Much attention needs to be paid to issues of sexuality and to the processes associated with adolescence and young adulthood. In many countries, sex education is critically important to enable healthy relationships based on mutual respect and, particularly in contexts of HIV/AIDS, to promote

8. *Cristano Arcangel Martinez y Maria Suarez Robayo* vs. *Colegio Ciudad de Cali*, Case No. T-177814, 11 November 1998. Cited in Tomasevski (2001, p. 42).

9. The Charter has been in force since 29 November 1999. Article 11 (6) states: 'States Parties to the present Charter shall have all appropriate measures to ensure that children who become pregnant before completing their education shall have an opportunity to continue with their education on the basis of their individual ability', Organization of African Unity (1990).

Box 4.9. Costa Rica: Building Opportunities for young mothers

The 'Building Opportunities' programme aims to provide personal and social training to pregnant girls and to poor teenage mothers, with the aim of reintegrating this group and preventing them from dropping out of the formal education system. In its three years of operation, the programme has trained around 10,000 girls. Topics covered have included women's human rights, organization and leadership, gender-based violence, health-care issues and other rights-based topics.

Impact assessments indicate that the programme has succeeded in boosting the girls' self-images and abilities to make themselves heard and respected. They are reported to feel more at ease with themselves and have managed to set themselves long-term goals. Approximately 60% have returned to, or remained in, the education system. The involvement of civil society organizations in the programme as facilitators has enhanced the work methodology and provided follow-up of the girls after their training.

Source: Guzman and Letendre (2003).

relevant and useful information to young people about reproductive health. For women in particular, the knowledge and skills required to manage their sexual lives are vital.

Sex education, however, remains a taboo subject in the majority of countries. Efforts to introduce sex education in secondary schools have often been hindered by resistance from teachers and parents and by inadequate teacher training. As noted earlier, religious leaders often support parents in preventing contraception and sexuality from being addressed in schools, as examples from Poland (Magno et al., 2002), Chile (Avalos, 2003) and other countries in Latin America illustrate.

Despite such resistance, however, innovative programmes have been established, albeit sometimes modified to accommodate those who oppose these programmes. In Chile, the Ministry of Education and Women's National Service (SERNAM) established in 1996 a programme known as JOCAS, which was addressed to the secondary-school communities (teachers, parents and young students) and focused on conversations about sexuality and related issues. From 1991, schools were not allowed to expel pregnant girls and were obliged to continue to enrol them after they had become mothers. A few schools established nursery schools for girls to leave their babies (Avalos, 2003).

In Costa Rica, the 'Young Love' Programme was developed in 1999 to comply with the commitments of the Beijing Platform for Action, the Convention on the Rights of the Child and the ICPD Programme of Action, all of which require states to address sexual and reproductive health issues through education (as Chapter 1 shows). The programme provided boys and girls with sex education, and recognized that teenagers have the same fundamental rights as other age groups while requiring specific social policies and programmes to support them.

Its implementation, however, met with resistance and controversy, as a result of which emphasis is now given to providing information on sexual and reproductive health rather than to the discussion of broader ideas about the responsible exercise of sexuality (Guzman and Letendre, 2003).

Sex education remains a taboo in most countries.

In many other societies in South Asia, the Middle East and North Africa, there is comparative silence on issues of sexuality and reproductive health, particularly during schooling. Female sexuality also remains a taboo subject, off the educational agenda. As Table 4.2 shows, however, some African countries have taken up the challenge of addressing these issues, perhaps as a palpable response to the HIV/AIDS crisis.

Preventing HIV/AIDS

In sub-Saharan Africa, almost 60% of those living with HIV/AIDS are girls and women. The WHO *World Report on Violence and Health* (2002) referring to studies in parts of Indonesia, Mexico, Nicaragua, Peru, South Africa, the United Kingdom, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zimbabwe, suggests that 'up to one-third of adolescent girls report forced sexual initiation' (Leach, 2003). Adolescent sexual violence in schools is demonstrated by numerous other studies on HIV/AIDS in sub-Saharan Africa. There

Table 4.2. Girl-centred education/policy projects

Title	Country	Organization	Goals/Activities	Target groups
Reducing Reproductive Health Barriers to Primary School Completion among Kenyan Girls	Kenya	Maendeleo Ya Wanawake Organization (MYWO), Academy for Educational Development (AED), Johns Hopkins University Center for Communication Programmes (JHU/CCP)	The main goal of the project is to reduce the reproductive health barriers to primary school completion among girls. The project currently operates in a total of thirty-one communities in the districts of Bungoma, Kilifi, Koibatek and Kuria, and in the Nairobi slums. In May 1998, AED trained MYWO field workers and their supervisors from the five focus districts in Participatory Learning and Action (PLA) techniques.	Young girls
Girls' Power Initiative (GPI)	Nigeria	Gender Development Institute	To equip girls with human rights, reproductive health/rights information, leadership, economic and other life skills to cope with growing up, thus laying the basis for ensuring the enjoyment of healthy sexuality, womanhood and social justice for future generations of Nigerian women.	10–18-year-old girls
Nigerian Girls into Sciences (NGIS)	Nigeria	Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE)	An action-oriented performance enhancement programme for girls at junior secondary level in Nigeria. The primary goal is to expand interest and improve performance in science among Nigerian girls, based on hands on, activity-based learning.	Girls at junior secondary level
Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania (COBET)	U.R. Tanzania	School Mapping Initiative, Ministry of Education and Culture of the United Republic of Tanzania, UNICEF	To give a second chance to those who could not continue with formal education. The COBET philosophy is no fees, no uniforms and no caning. The children decide when to start studying and when to end. Discipline is enforced through peer education, exposure to life skills knowledge and civics.	Orphans and children of single parents, especially girls
Centres of Excellence (FAWE)	Kenya, Rwanda, Senegal, U.R. Tanzania	Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE)	To demonstrate how accumulated information, knowledge and experience can be used to formulate, implement and monitor policies and practices that promote girls' education. The Centres of Excellence take an integrated approach to problem-solving by providing quality education for girls. Significant components of the Centres of Excellence programmes are: providing adequate physical facilities; providing adequate learning materials; awarding bursaries; relevant curriculum; skilled teachers; community sensitization; empowerment of girls; guidance and counselling.	Girls, parents, teachers, school administrators, communities, Ministry of Education, religious groups, donors, media, education providers, boys
African Girls' Education Movement (GEM)	Member states of the Organization of African Unity (OAU)	Global Children's Movement, UN Girls' Education Initiative, African Girls' Education Initiative (AGEI), Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE)	To create spaces for African girls to realize and concretize their right to participate in identifying problems, proposing solutions, determining what works and prioritizing issues that affect their education and consequently their life chances; provide opportunities for them to develop and exercise their leadership and technical skills; tap the potential of boys to work in partnership with girls to promote girls' education in Africa, and through education, create more equitable and just African societies.	Girls

Source: Mitchell (2003).

is clearly an important contradiction between the school as a location for high-risk sexual practice and the school as an effective forum for teaching about and encouraging safe sex. Teachers need to be properly trained, as HIV/AIDS becomes a compulsory part of the school curriculum (Box 4.10). Programmes in Botswana, Mozambique, Nigeria, South Africa, Uganda and elsewhere have been established to empower girls and women and to sensitize men to the importance of respect, human rights and citizenship. In Nigeria, the Girls' Power Initiative, reaching 1,500 girls in twenty-eight schools, teaches strategies for girls to resist unwanted sex and to reach their full potential. Another programme, Conscientizing Male Adolescents, is sensitizing Nigerian youth about the needs and rights of girls and women. These initiatives, focusing on youth awareness about reproductive health, link closely with initiatives to foster healthy self-images for young people, in an attempt also to tackle the roots of sexual violence.

Youth-centred projects to combat gender-based violence

The theme of gender-based violence cuts across many issues: poverty and transactional sex, lack of voice and fear of rape, human rights, heightened vulnerability to HIV/AIDS and others. Many programmes focusing on this theme have been pioneered in South Africa where the high

Box 4.10. South Africa: teachers' unions focus on HIV/AIDS

An important type of targeted approach is undertaken by teachers' unions and associations themselves. The South African Democratic Teachers' Union (SADTU) for example, has for a number of years had a gender officer and gender committee, which has helped to raise awareness about specific gender issues. The focus of SADTU in the 1990s was to help to create equal conditions of employment for female and male teachers (e.g. in relation to salaries and pensions) to rectify the lack of female teachers in leadership and management positions. The officers and committees reported a great deal of government resistance to dealing with gender issues.

More recently, the focus shifted to the impact of HIV/AIDS on teachers. Initiatives include:

- leading the Education International and World Health Organization collaborative HIV/AIDS project, together with the Ministries of Health and Education;
- a survey of the prevalence rates and impact of HIV/AIDS on teachers (with other research partners);
- life history research on teachers living with HIV/AIDS;
- negotiations with the Ministry of Education to ensure that HIV/AIDS becomes a compulsory part of the core curriculum for teachers undergoing pre-service training;
- campaigning for more attention to life skills teaching in the curriculum.

Source: Chisholm and McKinney (2003).

incidence of gender-based violence and of HIV/AIDS among young women between the ages of 15 and 24 suggests such a need. A Campaign on Eradicating Gender Violence in Schools, established in 2002, works with student bodies, which, in turn, develop activities at the level of individual schools. The Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (CSVR) in Johannesburg runs the Safe Schools programme, which focuses on building resilience among young people by exposing them to alternatives to violence and other negative behaviour. A further pilot project on Sexual Violence Education is designed to build awareness of the issue of gender-based violence.

Beyond the sphere of government, *Soul City*, a television drama series established by a national NGO with a focus on health (in particular HIV/AIDS) and other development issues, has been running for over ten years. Some of the *Soul City* materials are now used in other African countries and in parts of Asia and Latin America. Save the Children and UNICEF have used film to help boys in South Asia to question their views of gender and masculinity in order to develop more positive attitudes towards women and girls (Poudyal, 2000).

A common framework to tackle gender violence has also been produced by the Commonwealth Secretariat as part of a series of gender mainstreaming manuals. Action Aid's Stepping Stones is a widely used HIV/AIDS prevention programme. Originally designed for use with illiterate rural communities in Africa using participatory methods, it has now been adapted and used in over a hundred countries in Asia, North and Latin America and Europe and has been promoted for use in schools. In Latin America, Save the Children has been working with health ministries in Brazil, Colombia and Peru, training young people as peer counsellors to work within schools on sexual and reproductive health issues from the gender perspective. In Nicaragua, the CANTERA organization runs workshops for men to explore their masculinity and develop skills in gender awareness. The Men Against Violence Group that flourished in Nicaragua has now spread to Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala and Honduras.

The Men Against Violence Group that flourished in Nicaragua has now spread to Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala and Honduras.

Much of the most innovative work in countering school violence has been initiated by NGOs, often in connection with HIV/AIDS education. Most such initiatives, however, are small-scale and expensive, and have been developed outside the formal school setting – in part because ministries of education have been reluctant to address the issue of gender violence themselves.

Gender-based violence in schools exists in all parts of the world. Where school authorities have failed to acknowledge its existence it has often flourished and become institutionalized. In order to protect girl pupils from harassment, sexual assault and rape, vigorous action is needed, through broadly based action plans in co-operation with students, parents, teachers and school administrators.

Box 4.11. Training teachers against violence in South Africa

The School of Public Health at the University of the Western Cape in South Africa has developed a model to incorporate the issue of gender-based violence into the primary school curriculum, piloting two training models – the 'whole school' approach and 'train the trainer' in six primary schools in Cape Town. The purpose of the training was to challenge the teachers' own knowledge and attitudes towards gender-based violence and to identify strategies to address the problem.

Both models led to significant changes in the way teachers understood gender-based violence and in the role of schools to address the problem.

- Before the training 30% of teachers felt that schools could play a meaningful role in addressing gender-based violence, and after the training 70% of teachers felt that to be so.
- 85% of teachers felt that gender-based violence was a significant problem in their own schools, and all of them believed that the school curriculum should include content on gender-based violence starting at Grade 5 (age 9–10).

Source: ID21 website.

Teachers are key actors for change. They are role models for schoolchildren. However, for them to address gender-based violence in schools many teachers need to understand and confront their own experiences. The role of teachers as perpetrators of abuse is highlighted in the most recent Human Rights Watch report on sexual violence in South African schools (Human Rights Watch, 2001*a*). Counter strategies clearly also need to address the attitudes of the teachers themselves (Box 4.11).

Working with teachers

Reforms to help teachers become agents of gender equality have varied according to time and context but appear to be related to the presence or absence of broader feminist and women's movements.

The presence of strong feminist movements during the 1970s and 1980s in the United Kingdom, Australia and other industrialized countries helped to focus initiatives on girls' participation in mathematics, science and technology, and on the creation of 'girl-friendly' environments in schools (Box 4.12). These have possibly led to a 'narrowing of the gender gap' (Arnot et al., 1999), although some commentators have emphasized the emotional complexity of gender reform in schools (Kenway et al., 1998). In Africa, the Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE) has facilitated initiatives aimed at enhancing girls' access to and participation in schools.

Box 4.12. Educational feminism in the United Kingdom

In the United Kingdom, 'educational feminism' was central to the post-war era of social democracy. The 1980s was a 'pivotal decade' for feminist projects in education in which gender-aware, often highly politicized, teachers became pioneers of anti-sexist and 'girl-friendly' education.

At its strongest, the motto of 'equality of opportunity for all' called for equality of outcome and gender equality in society. At its weakest, it encouraged the removal of obstacles, barriers and restrictions on girls' choices. These political platforms were hotly debated in public through the school system and in the media. For girls, in particular, it led to questioning the nature of conventional femininity within the 'safe haven' of the school and broadening their horizons. Research suggests that it encouraged girls to adopt a more individualized but also a more positive and independent approach to their schooling and future lives.

Girl-friendly schooling practices were encouraged by feminist initiatives particularly but not solely in the inner cities, in which municipal socialism supported gender equality.

Teachers promoted strong curriculum and school subject networks, they engaged in institutional research projects with the help and collaboration of higher-education academics, and they activated gender equality policies in teachers' unions, local education authorities and schools. The initial priority was to raise gender awareness through the use of legislation, in-service courses for teachers, managers and policy-makers, the collection of relevant evidence, and the provision of guidance materials. New careers in equal opportunities were established through gender equality responsibility posts in schools, local authorities and education agencies. Schools set up working parties and by the l980s were able to support specific gender initiatives through vocational training budgets. Gender monitoring of patterns of performance and school cultures became common elements in school development plans and school inspection regimes and, to a limited extent, initial teacher education courses have taken gender into account.

Source: Arnot and Phipps (2003).

Initiatives taken to make teachers agents of change for gender equality need to be seen in context. Gender issues in schools are generally deeply embedded in social norms. Changing unequal access to schools, participation and performance while in them, and finally outcomes, requires not only that in-school issues and participants are addressed, but also that non-school issues are focused on. As a result, teachers have mainly been targeted alongside other groups, rather than simply on their own. This is especially the case in developing countries, where gender and education programmes tend not to focus exclusively on teachers but on schooling more generally, addressing a broader range of participants including ministries, school managers, parents and the community. Whatever approach is used, results have generally been mixed, sometimes leading to change and sometimes to resistance. The strengths and limitations of different approaches are context-dependent and can be examined most clearly in relation to examples of particular efforts and reforms.

Approaches to gender equality in the classroom focus on relationships between boys and girls and on the relationship between learners and teachers. They address:

- gender stereotypes, i.e. challenging stereotypical views such as girls being unable to benefit from secondary education or less able to succeed in mathematics and science;
- sexual violence, abuse and harassment – raising awareness of these issues and using teachers to raise awareness of learners';
- differential enrolment of boys and girls in school;
- ideologies underlying the curriculum;
- curriculum choices – e.g. encouraging girls to take mathematics, science and technology subjects;
- teaching styles, including differential attention paid to boys and girls;
- school organization and discipline – making schools more girl-friendly;
- extramural activities – providing sporting opportunities for girls as well as boys.

Teachers are critical to all these areas. They can provide role models and a sense of direction and encouragement to boys and girls, or they can denigrate and marginalize them and so perpetuate stereotypes.

Teachers cannot be expected to separate themselves easily from the powerful cultural and social norms of their society. In strongly patriarchal environments, it is not easy to involve teachers in gender equity programmes. Moreover, when they do become committed, they face powerful obstacles linked to the power of patriarchal values in determining their own lives, careers and activities (Mahlase, 1997). This problem is exacerbated by the neglect of gender in teacher training in many developing countries. In an attempt to address this problem, FAWE has set up Centres of Excellence in different sub-Saharan African countries to build the capacity of teachers (see Table 4.2), including courses on gender sensitization and awareness, training in gender-responsive methodologies and courses in the teaching of science, mathematics and technology (FAWE, 2003).

Teachers are critical to gender equality in the classroom.

Box 4.13. Change from Within: a Jamaican initiative

An initiative has been taken as part of the University of the West Indies' Change from Within programme, aimed at promoting boys' achievement in Jamaican schools. In a unique experiment, a group of primary- and secondary-school principals were encouraged to work together to improve their school environments. They faced a set of common problems all underpinned by the failure of Jamaican boys to succeed in education. Some of these challenges were boys' lack of self-esteem, a growing problem of violence and indiscipline in schools, a problem of masculine identities moving boys away from valuing academic performance towards other compensatory and negative types of behaviour, and the reduction in job opportunities after students graduate.

Different schools responded in different ways, but some of the key strategies included:

- building on existing strengths: one primary school used its land to encourage boys to plant crops and improve their literacy through environmental learning;
- enlisting parental support for school activities by meeting some of their needs: one school, for example, was able to offer parents some employment;
- engaging with the community: schools drew on local talents, inviting storytellers and dancers into the school;
- using the arts as a means of building confidence, school pride, communication and motivation;
- running school guidance programmes to identify and solve personal problems.

Source: Sewell et al. (2003).

Discriminatory attitudes are not removed through a new curriculum.

More recently, second-generation feminists have focused on boys and masculinities on the basis that unless boys change, relationships between boys and girls and between men and women will not change. The expectation that girls alone should change does not address the problematic masculinities that give rise to violent, aggressive and generally derogatory behaviours towards girls. Gender-relevant strategies for work with boys include pursuing knowledge, improving relationships and applying justice (Connell, 1996). The success of such initiatives is as yet largely undocumented. Box 4.13 documents one initiative under way in Jamaican schools aimed at addressing the climate of low male achievement. The Change from Within programme in Jamaica demonstrates the importance of allowing schools to identify strategies relevant to their community of learners, and of giving teachers the opportunity to devise their own strategies.

Curriculum reform

It is a widely shared objective of education policy that boys and girls should be given equal opportunities for success and advancement while at school. The role of the curriculum in this process is crucial, in that it is a key source of pupils' knowledge about, and orientation within, the social world. This is widely acknowledged, and many countries have initiated reforms both to reduce biases in subject choices confronting girls and boys, and to remove any implications of gender stereotyping from textbooks and other teaching materials. These have often been successful. A recent assessment of twenty standard textbooks used in Ugandan primary schools for the teaching of English, mathematics, social studies and science concludes that the content of the books and their illustrations were, for each subject, neutral in their representation of gender (Muhwezi, 2003). A rather different approach was taken in Cambodia, where a reformed curriculum for primary and secondary levels was introduced in 1996 with new textbooks and teacher manuals. It stated that efforts were made to promote concepts of gender fairness and social inclusion in these materials. Nevertheless, the Ministry of Education's Pedagogical Research Department took the view that gender fairness would be expressed mainly in an evenly balanced number of male and female illustrations or examples, rather than in a way that would explicitly challenge cultural norms and traditions. Thus, women are shown as weavers, girls as helping with housework; men as managers and boys helping on the family farm. In this case, then, the objective of achieving 'gender fairness and neutrality' is held within the existing context of beliefs, customs and attitudes, rather than as a means of challenging them (Velasco, 2003).

Irrespective of the formal curriculum, the ways in which it is interpreted by teachers remains an overwhelming influence. In Uganda, a majority of the primary teachers are male, and sexist attitudes are by no means absent from their ranks. Discriminatory attitudes are not removed by virtue of a new curriculum, where they are embedded in the patriarchal nature of the wider society. Teachers reflect these attitudes as much as any other citizens (Muhwezi, 2003). Thus, reform – however successful in a formal sense – needs to be underpinned by complementary actions in a range of different policy arenas if it is to achieve its aims. Malawi provides an example of thoroughgoing approach to reform where text-writers, administrators, managers and teachers are all trained in gender awareness in the context of managing the new curriculum. Even there, challenges are to be faced if the intentions of the reforms are to be achieved (Box 4.14).

Empowering women teachers

A critical challenge is that of recruiting female teachers – particularly for rural or isolated schools. In Bangladesh, despite the formulation of a government policy to reserve 60% of primary school teachers' posts for women,[10] implementation has not been successful. During the 1990s over 30,000 female teachers were recruited, but in order to achieve gender parity in government primary schools, 60,000 more females were needed (USAID, 2002). The failure to fulfil a sufficient female quota appears to be largely regional and principally limited to formal, government schools and *madrasas*.[11] This is due to the existence of a range of barriers to recruitment and deployment, including restrictions against women travelling or living away from the family home, accommodation problems in distant locations, physical security, and women's family responsibilities.

In many countries, women teachers require support and encouragement, as they often work in difficult social environments. In Rajasthan, India, the Shikshakarmi Project recognized that to encourage enrolment of girls and to develop awareness among women, Shikshakarmis were

10. In 1991 the government revised the required qualifications to attract more female teachers to the profession. A male candidate must have a High School Certificate (HSC), which is obtained by successfully passing the HSC public examination at the end of twelve years of schooling. But a female candidate with a Senior School Certificate (SSC) can apply at the end of ten years of schooling. To meet the quota, those female candidates who pass the test, even with lower scores, are able to become primary-school teachers (see USAID, 2002).

11. Studies have shown that over 40% of primary-school teachers were female; this proportion was much higher in urban schools (71%) than rural schools (29%). Information received from government sources suggests that about 31% of the teachers in government schools were female. Nearly 90% of NGO non-formal school teachers were female but the share of female teachers in *madrasas* was extremely low at only 5% (Chowdhury et al., 1999).

Box 4.14. Curriculum reform in Malawi

The Government of Malawi, through the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MoEST) established the Gender Appropriate Curriculum (GAC) unit at the Malawi Institute of Education (MIE) in 1992. The unit was charged with the responsibility of incorporating gender sensitivity into the primary curriculum, primary teacher-training curricula (both residential and in-service). The unit ensures that the content in instructional materials has words, statements, examples and illustrations that are neutral as regards female and male images. It also ensures that teacher-training programmes are designed to eliminate gender bias in the classroom, that all primary teacher in-service training is gender appropriate and that senior Ministry of Education officials are aware of gender issues in their policies and practices (MIE, 1996).

Primary and secondary textbooks have been revised to make them gender sensitive and to portray girls and women in more positive roles. Training has been provided for school textbook writers, editors and some teachers to make their work gender sensitive. As of 1999, training of key professionals on gender issues had been conducted with 240 primary education advisors; 9 district education managers (out of 24); 125 teacher-training college tutors; 10,000 serving teachers; and 10 community development assistant trainers (Kadyoma et al., 1999).

Major attempts have been made at primary level to have more illustrations of women and girls in the revised textbooks. For example, in the Standard 3 English *Pupils' Book*, 52% of the illustrations depict female characters, whereas the earlier school textbooks were predominantly illustrated with male characters.It can be observed from the sample secondary textbooks that social studies and home economics have almost half of their illustrations depicting both male and female characters. On the other hand, in science and technology, most of the illustrations are predominantly male. Gender balance remains a challenge for the education sector at secondary-school level. Furthermore, gender stereotyping can be traced in some of the illustrations in some of the textbooks. For example, men are depicted as university graduates, police officers, radio announcers, journalists and doctors, whereas women are portrayed as nurses. However, overall, illustrations portray men and women in more positive roles. For example, there are illustrations of female engineers, female judges and female students doing experiments in a science class. There are many illustrations where men and women are doing things together.

In 1993, MoEST removed subject restrictions that barred girls from sciences at the primary and secondary levels. All subjects, including sciences, are open to all students. For example, boys can opt for subjects such as home economics and girls can opt for wood and metal work.

The Malawi primary curriculum is currently being reviewed through participatory approaches sensitive to gender. According to the *Primary Curriculum and Assessment Review (PCAR) Report* (Malawi, 2002), it is intended that boys' and girls' interests, values and needs will be reflected in the new curriculum. In the recommendations, there is a clear mention of the need to emphasize the development of literacy and numeracy skills, and other emerging issues such as gender equality and HIV/AIDS.

Source: Maluwa-Banda (2003).

needed in large numbers to make up for the shortfall of literate women in most rural areas, particularly in remote and difficult places. The low literacy rate and the indifference towards girls' education was deemed so great that urgent remedial action was necessary to hasten the progress of girls' schooling (Jain, 2003). Preparing *mahila* (female) Shikshakarmis therefore became a priority (Box 4.15).

Education systems remain overwhelmingly male at the top levels, with few women in positions of authority. In Bolivia only 16% of all head-teacher posts are held by women, and there are marked urban–rural differentials. Some of the problems cited by those women who are head teachers include the rejection of female authority, particularly in traditional communities, difficulties of travel to remote communities, low bargaining power with local authorities relative to their male counterparts, and occasionally abuse, particularly after alcohol consumption, by members of local communities. While things are gradually changing for the better in terms of the numbers of women, these working conditions serve both as a major disincentive, and barrier, to women's effective participation in decision-making in higher levels of the education system (Pareja Lara, 2003).

In India, the Lok Jumbish programme in Rajasthan has created a Women Teachers' Forum (Adhyapika Manch). Its activities were initiated in 1994 on an experimental basis, with the purpose of enhancing women teachers' participation in residential teacher-training camps and to encourage them to develop themselves as trainers. Over the years, these forums have become an important activity to break isolation and assert women teachers' identities. They have also become rallying points for women teachers to develop as creative and articulate professionals.

Education systems remain overwhelmingly male at the top, with few women in positions of authority.

Box 4.15. Creating an informal cadre of women teachers in Rajasthan

The appointment of women teachers has been an important part of the educational discourse in India, and in Rajasthan in particular. In a state where segregation of men and women is strictly practised and purdah (the system of screening women from men and strangers by means of a veil or curtain) enforced, one of the major constraints to the enrolment of girls has been the absence of women teachers in schools located in remote areas.

There were no women teachers identified in the Shikshakarmi Pilot Project implemented in l984. The initial document clearly stated the principle of two Shikshakarmis, one man and one woman in each village. It was felt that the presence of women Shikshakarmis in the village could help to create an environment that would be more conducive to encouraging girls to enrol in the schools. However, identifying and retaining women teachers continues to be challenging, requiring sensitive handling. A series of problems are faced by women Shikshakarmis, some of which are of a serious nature.

Teaching is a not a traditional occupation for women in rural Rajasthan, unlike in the urban areas. The Mahila Shikshakarmis have had to struggle to establish themselves as teachers, while simultaneously attaining approval from the family and village elders for this role. The fact that women teachers are required to travel outside their villages for training/workshop meetings and to interact with males and children from different castes has necessitated a change in the rules and norms governing households, the community and to some extent, the school environment. In general, where a woman is expected to cover her face and observe purdah in the presence of 'elders' and community men, the woman Shikshakarmi's role represents a step towards equality. It is also evident that the new role has enhanced her personal status and given her a sense of freedom.

The Mahila Prasikshan Kendras (training centres for women) were intended to increase the number of women teachers and thus the enrolment of girls in the project schools. They have shown that, given a supportive environment, women can be motivated to become learners. The first internal evaluation carried out by the Shikshakarmi Board in 1992 indicated that most women joined the centres as an opportunity to study and become self-reliant.

Source: Jain (2003).

Many girls get a late start in education and need help to catch up.

Innovative measures for out-of-school girls

Many girls get a late start in education and need help to catch up with their schooling, being too old to join the early grades of the primary-school system. Various non-formal initiatives exist to help them 'bridge' their schooling gap. These initiatives are crucial, as they respond in flexible ways to the requirements of young girls. Such initiatives can also be important for girls returning from participation in armed conflict, or who are displaced as refugees (Box 4.16).

Bridge courses are used by many NGOs to target out-of-school children and bring them into the mainstream. The MV Foundation, an NGO in Andhra Pradesh, India, began working with child workers and bonded children in 1991, to try to get them back into school. Given their early work experiences, the NGO found that both their educational and counselling needs could not be met by the formal school system. As a result, camps were organized in which the children were helped to catch up with their peers in formal schools. These camps were used to help the children make the transition from work to schooling and to encourage their parents to acknowledge the educational rights of their children.

The transition from work to school starts in the villages. The Foundation runs small 'motivation centres' where child workers and other out-of-school children are invited to spend a few hours. The role of a 'motivator-teacher' is to interact with the families and to talk with them about their aspirations. Within a few weeks, children are usually ready to go to the camp, although it is reported to take a little longer to motivate the families of girls. Once there, within six to eighteen months, children achieve competency equivalent to Grade VII pupils. Children are grouped according to their pace of learning. Teachers trained by the Foundation live with the children and interact with them for much of the time. While the timing for classroom work is strictly observed, teaching and learning is a round-the-clock activity. As and when the children achieve Grade VII competency they are encouraged to take entrance tests for residential schools or are enrolled in the middle school near their village. A large number of children from the camps have successfully passed the public entrance examinations for enrolment in residential schools. Over the years since 1991 this programme has gained tremendous community support. Local communities offer

Box 4.16. Education for adolescent girls in armed conflict

There are estimated to be over 1.5 million refugees of secondary-school age, of whom about 97% are not in school (UNHCR, 2002). A majority of these young people are girls. In most post-emergency situations, resources are focused on primary education because it is easier to organize classes for younger children than for older youth (Sinclair, 2001). It is hard for any child that has dropped out of school to pick up their studies again, but for adolescent girls and young women it can be particularly so. They may not attend schools in refugee camps because of lack of sanitary provision. They may have had little schooling in the first place and, scarred by war experience, may find it difficult to restart with children embarrassingly smaller and younger than themselves. They may be ostracized if they had babies as a result of rape during war. In some refugee camps pregnancy rates of 50% of all teenage girls are reported (UNHCR, 2002; Save the Children UK, 2002), and these young women may be especially isolated, shunned by both younger girls and older women – 'too old for toys, but too young for motherhood' (UNICEF, 1994).

Very little is known about the long-term effects of girls' participation in conflict (McKay and Mazurana, 2000). In the armed forces, they may have had emotional attachments, status and power (McConnan and Uppard, 2001). The return to civilian life can represent a step backwards, and it can be difficult to adapt to a traditional, authoritarian school system with little opportunity for individual agency.

Although there are few formal evaluations of best practice, educational provision should:

- acknowledge different roles and responsibilities taken on during conflict and the shifts in gender identities implied;
- validate positive skills, and the sense of power and agency of military life;
- address the potential loss of freedom felt by those returning to traditional communities and to school;
- be accessible and welcoming to pregnant girls and girl mothers;
- help girls to generate income, teaching a range of relevant skills and not only typically female activities;
- help them to reintegrate into families and communities (including working with communities, schools and teachers to change attitudes about the stigma attached to returning girls);
- provide access to information and care for reproductive health, and HIV/AIDS.

both resources and space to enable the bridge courses to run.

Bridge schools, organized either as residential camps or education centres within communities, appear to be a replicable, cost-effective mechanism for progress towards UPE. The benefits extend beyond the individual child to the community as a whole, because of the latter's involvement and ownership of the process of getting out-of-school children into schools. On the other hand, a partnership between NGOs and the government is needed to ensure that there are sufficient formal schools to meet the educational needs of the children who are integrated via the bridge programmes.

The MV Foundation also runs an education centre for girls and women in difficult circumstances. Those who have been battered, abused or have been through a difficult life are made welcome. The Government of Andhra Pradesh sends women from all parts of the state to the centre. Here the objective is not only to get them into formal schools, because many of the older women do not opt for formal schooling. The objective is to help them to overcome their personal problems and prepare themselves for a productive life. Building the self-esteem and self-confidence of such women is given priority (Ramachandran, 2003).

In Bangladesh, the government has taken an active role in establishing 'satellite' schools, which help disadvantaged children, especially girls, to enter schools. Initially 200 satellite schools were established, which grew to about 2,000 by 2002. They were managed by women teachers, paid by the government but selected by local management committees. Satellite schools began as a UNICEF-supported attempt to 'bring the school to the girl child'. The schools reach Grades 2 or 3, when pupils switch to regular schools. Attendance is high, and the government plans to establish 20,000 such satellite schools within a few years (CAMPE/Education Watch, 1999).

Bridge schools are a replicable cost-effective mechanism for progress towards UPE.

Expanding ECCE to enhance parity in primary education

As Chapter 2 indicates, many countries are close to achieving gender parity in ECCE. Pupils tend to be either from the richer groups in society where parents can afford to send both female and male children to private centres, or the poorer groups for whom some targeted programmes are available and where gender parity is a deliberate objective.

Box 4.17. Impact of ECCE on primary gender ratios in Nepal

A recent study in Nepal's Siraha District demonstrates the impact of ECCE on primary enrolment and retention. In this part of Nepal, 'discrimination against girls and women ... still affects almost every area of their lives (and) ten girls die for every seven boys'. At national level, only 12.7% of Nepalese children of the relevant age group attend ECCE, and GPI in ECCE is exceptionally low at 0.79 (Annex, Table 3).

About 75% of children in the Siraha District start primary school. However, among those who have first attended ECCE centres, the intake rate stands at 95%. This impact of ECCE on primary enrolment is particularly strong for girls, as Table 4.3 shows.

Table 4.3. Boy/girl ratios in Grades 1 and 2 in schools in Sihara, Nepal (2000)

	ECCE group	Non-ECCE group
Boy/girl ratio Grade 1	50/50	61/39
Boy/girl ratio Grade 2	54/46	66/34

It can be seen that among the children going to school after ECCE, there is full parity in Grade 1, compared with more than three boys for every two girls in the control group. The boy/girl ratio in the ECCE group has increased by Grade 2, but not as much as in the control group.

Pass rates from Grades 1 and 2 are better for the children with ECCE experience than for those without, as Table 4.4 shows. Of the children who attended ECCE, 11% were so well prepared that they skipped Grade 1 altogether.

Table 4.4. Pass rates in Grades 1 and 2 in schools in Sihara, Nepal (2000)

	ECCE group	Non-ECCE group
Pass rate Grade 1	81	61
Pass rate Grade 2	94	68

A comparison between the ECCE group in Sihara and national figures reveals marked differences in terms of promotion, repetition and drop-out, as Table 4.5 shows.

Table 4.5. Promotion, repetition and drop-out rates in Nepal, compared with ECCE groups in Sihara District (1998–2000)

		Promotion (%)	Repetition (%)	Drop-out (%)
Grade 1	National	41.7	36.7	21.6
	ECCE group	83.5	5.5	11
Grade 2	National	73.9	17.6	8.5
	ECCE group	95.1	2.2	2.7

In 2003, 14% of the children enrolled in Grade 1 in Nepal had attended ECCE. The Department of Education intends to increase this figure to 51% by 2009.

Source: Save the Children (2003).

Expanding ECCE would be beneficial to the gender balance in primary school.

Sharp expansion of ECCE may affect this gender balance: parents who are neither wealthy nor targeted may face financial constraints causing them to enrol their children selectively. However, if ECCE were to be expanded by increasing the number and scale of targeted programmes, gender parity might be sustained. In fact, there are strong indications that this would also be beneficial to the subsequent gender balance in primary school. This is well illustrated by the case of Nepal (Box 4.17).

The beneficial impact of ECCE on further learning has been demonstrated for a large number of programmes in many countries (Myers, 1995; Barnett, 1996; Deutsch, 1998; Duncan et al., 1998; Van der Gaag and Tan, 1998; Heckman, 1999; Ramey et al., 2000; Masse and Barnett, 2002). The gender-specific impact on school retention, in particular, has been examined in a large and longitudinal study in eight Indian states (National Council of Educational Research and Training, 1993). Retention among the ECCE group was found to be between 10 and 20 percentage points higher than in the control group. Among the latter, drop-out rates by Grade 4 stood at 48.2% against 31.8% in the ECCE group. Girls benefited most from having attended ECCE, and this difference was found to be larger in higher grades.

Some typical differences between ECCE and primary school may explain why the former helps children, especially girls, to better prepare themselves for school. ECCE tends to be informal, flexible and learner-centred, and learning in ECCE tends to be playful, contextualized and activity-based. Usually the first language is spoken. Teaching and learning in primary education, by contrast, are more formal, rigid, teacher-centred, subject-based,

decontextualized and passive. The national language is usually the instruction language. Furthermore, ECCE can be a safer environment, especially if it is provided in the home or in small centres close to the home. Primary school can be more distant and the risk of in-school violence is larger; corporal punishment is more current in primary education than in ECCE. Finally, ECCE teaching staff tend to provide positive role models, especially for girls (Evans, 1997; Myers, 1997; Bernard van Leer Foundation, 2002).

Indeed, the Nepalese Impact Study (Box 4.17) reports that children with ECCE experience are more self-assured, capable and motivated. They are avid learners; they are quick to pick up new skills and information; and they have more social skills. It also points to the importance of parental involvement for a good transition to primary school. The parents of the ECCE children are more supportive towards their children, but also more assertive towards the teachers of the primary school. Other sources underline how institutional links between ECCE, primary school and parents prove critically important (Bernard van Leer Foundation, 2000; Korintus and Arato, 2003).

Synergies between early education and women's empowerment

Some ECCE programmes go further, to cater for the needs of the mothers, and in some cases the elder sisters, of children in ECCE. These mother–child programmes generate benefits – often at very low cost – that go far beyond those for the child. These include allowing the mother to do productive work; freeing the elder sister to attend school; in some cases, helping the professional development of the mother as an ECCE assistant or teacher; and, more generally, the empowerment of the mother bringing benefits also to the local community. Some examples of these kinds of initiatives follow.

The Entry Point programme in Nepal initially provided credit to small groups of five or six rural women, with a view to improving conditions in the local community. As women became economically active, the need for childcare became urgent. A solution was found by having each mother care for the children of the whole group one day per week, on a rotating basis. To improve the pedagogical quality of this informal and home-based form of day-care, an intensive four-day training was delivered by an NGO, as well as a basic kit of materials. All this was done in such a way that even illiterate women could 'deliver' the curriculum (Myers, 1993). The synergies are obvious: self-generated ECCE capacity; a good-quality input at low cost; personal benefits with implications for the wider community. A comparable programme is run by the Self-Employed Women's Association (SEWA) in India (www.gdrc.org/icm/sewa.html).

In Jamaica, the Teenage Mothers Project aims at combating the high incidence of repeated pregnancy. Both the young mothers and their children are engaged in learning activities, on the grounds that educating the mother not only helps to prevent repeated pregnancy but also raises the mother's awareness of the importance of learning, and hence her support for the education of her child. The learning achievement of these children was significantly better than that of children in a control group – an advantage that was sustained throughout schooling (Degazon-Johnson, 2002).

Empowerment of the mother brings benefits to the local community.

The Bodh school project in the slums of Jaipur, India, recognizes that education has an important function in social change, and that parental involvement is crucial. Local women's groups formed the link between school and neighbourhood. Girls attending the primary school brought along their younger siblings they had to look after. Accordingly it was decided to add a pre-school to the project to provide quality care for the younger children and to release the elder sisters from this task. Teachers were recruited from existing women's groups and given training. Some adolescent girls became assistants to the mother teachers. Obviously, such strong links between ECCE and primary school contribute to a good transition between the two. Again, there are self-generated capacities, low costs, and multiple benefits (Kullar and Menon, 1997). Elsewhere, many other ECCE centres, such as those in China, have been created with a view to setting elder sisters free from the task of caring (Herz et al., 1991).

The Irish 'Community Mothers' are trained and supported by family development nurses to pay home visits to young mothers in disadvantaged neighbourhoods, during the first two years of the life of the child. Apart from the positive impact on mother and child, important benefits are reported for the Community Mothers themselves: enhanced self-esteem, more confidence, a larger

social network, and better relations with husband and own children (Molloy, 2002). Similar effects – notably a better power balance within the family – occurred in the Mother-Child Education Programme in Turkey (Kagitcibasi et al., 1995).

NGOs and education provision

What works in learning programmes for young and adult women?

The education level of mothers is strongly associated with the chances of their daughters being enrolled in school.

As shown above, the education level of mothers is strongly associated with the chances of their daughters being enrolled in school. Chapter 2 indicates that this effect also occurs when mothers become educated at a later age (Lauglo, 2001). This points to the importance of learning opportunities for young and adult women, not only as a right and a goal in itself, but also in enhancing enrolment and gender parity in education (Torres, 2003).

Earlier programmes for women tended to focus on literacy acquisition, largely in isolation from any applied context. Barriers existed that were similar to those that kept most of these same women out of school when young: the opportunity costs of not being available for household or other work; the distance to the class; a learning environment dominated by male teachers. Opposition by the husband – failing to see the benefits from their wives becoming literate or even feeling threatened by it – further hindered enrolment and completion (Robinson-Pant, 2003, p. 4).

But literacy training today is increasingly combined with the acquisition of other skills relevant to the learner, and this has been especially beneficial to women. It has been recognized more widely that women will only enrol in programmes, complete them and retain their literacy skills, if such programmes meet specific learning needs, such as in the areas of family planning, saving and credit, maternity and health. One recent study found attendance rates of 80% in programmes with an income-generating component, compared with 20% without it (Oxenham et al., 2002).

Careful sensitivity to local circumstance and preparatory research into the ways in which local women use literacy and other skills have proved critical to success (Box 4.18). Preferably, programmes are developed in dialogue with the learner, and in some cases even learner-generated materials and/or indigenous knowledge are applied (Hanemann, 2003; Rogers et al., 1999).

Without such sensitivity, there is a risk of counterproductive effects. Dighe (1995) found, for example, that some textbooks bore the suggestion that women are unable to adopt hygienic practices in their homes unless they became literate. Such tacit assumptions – that illiteracy equals ignorance – can demotivate women.

Provision modes, too, must adapt to the daily life of women. This can imply the creation of opportunities for women to learn and build networks at the same time, as in the MOVA programme in Brazil (Stromquist, 1997), but it can also result in more individualized teaching and self-learning, as developed by the United Mission to Nepal (Robinson-Pant, 2003). When successful, these initiatives can be important vehicles for political participation by women who become newly empowered (Box 4.19).

Box 4.18. Legal literacy in India

Believing that literacy alone is not sufficient to empower women, MARG (Multiple Action Research Group) started a project to educate women about their legal rights. The Delhi-based NGO developed a series of manuals on twenty-three laws which affected women's lives, using colour-coded covers to identify the subject matter: for example, red indicated marriage laws, blue signified citizens' rights versus the police. MARG ran three-day legal literacy workshops, acting as a resource to other community organizations (some of which were implementing non-formal education programmes). Both literate and non-literate women attended these workshops and through role-play, video and 'reading' the simple, clearly illustrated manuals, began to gain more awareness of their rights. For some older women, the experience of using the manuals as tools in the workshop inspired them to begin to attend literacy classes to learn to read more. The manuals provided support in the long term for women to take legal and social action: women labourers in Bihar learned about the Equal Remuneration Act, subsequently refusing to work in the fields until they were paid equal wages, while showing their employers the relevant sections in their manual as evidence. In another case, community members prevented a 14-year-old girl from being forcibly married after learning about the Child Marriage Restraint Act.

Source: Monga (2000).

Box 4.19. Popular education and women's political participation

Although cross-national multivariate analysis hints at a connection between higher education and women's representation in formal politics, qualitative evidence from developing countries shows that one factor supporting adult women's informal political engagement is popular education. Usually embarked upon for political reasons, by political parties interested in creating or strengthening a support base in politically inactive communities, adult literacy drives and popular civic education have in some instances resulted in a marked shift in the level of women's activity in civil and political society. Cases in point include the Bolivarian discussion circles in urban low-income communities created by Hugo Chávez's party prior to his election as Venezuelan President in 1999, the adult education drives across Nicaragua pursued by the Sandinista party once it won power in 1979, and Uganda's 'chakka-muchakka' political awareness and self-defence training in the second half of the 1980s. Each of these resulted in a marked increase in the number of women participating in local and national elections, but also engaging in protests and seeking to advance their interests through associational activities in civil society.

One of the most celebrated examples of adult education providing a catalyst for political engagement, however, was the role of the Indian Total Literacy Campaign in mobilizing women in Andhra Pradesh in the early 1990s to fight for prohibition. The anti-arrack (country liquor) campaign developed out of group discussions held by women participants in a Freire-style literacy programme, which had incorporated into its post-literacy primers critical stories about men's alcohol abuse, to reflect rural women's intense concerns about this subject. The agitation began in Nellore District of Andhra Pradesh in January 1991 with boycotts of liquor shops and efforts to control men's drinking. Over time, connections between the granting of liquor sales licences and networks through which the ruling party raised illicit campaign finances were revealed, and opposition parties, particularly the Telugu Desam Party (TDP), quickly saw that electoral profit was to be made from supporting the women's campaign and exposing the corruption of the incumbent party (Congress). By 1994 the TDP won the state elections, partly on a promise of prohibition.

Although a powerful example of the potential role of literacy groups for adult women in galvanizing political action (Dighe, 1995), this case does not really explain whether it was literacy per se or the opportunity to reflect collectively, using an organizational structure provided through the Total Literacy Campaign, that produced political action. In addition, the rapid claw-back of the gains women had made once the TDP was in power raises concerns about the sustainability of women's political engagement. By the time the TDP won a second term in office in the late 1990s it was able to retract its promise of prohibition, no longer able to afford to eschew the illicit earnings to be gleaned from the auction of liquor licenses (Bhatkal, 1997). Although the TDP had set up committees for monitoring the prohibition policy, women's representation on these committees was weak and unsustained. Some women from the anti-arrack movement were unable to participate effectively in decision-making in the bureaucratic arena – perhaps because of a lack of education and training in the style and practices of bureaucracies.

Source: Goetz (2003).

Literacy programmes targeted at men are scarce. An example is the Mexican Education and Paternity programme, which addresses paternal behaviour and tries to break the circle of passing on gender stereotypes from generation to generation (Hanemann, 2003).

The reality is sometimes less than ideal. Often, adult learning programmes have lower priority than schooling, also in terms of budget allocation. Teachers are poorly paid and volunteers are insufficiently prepared, especially when – with the best of intentions – attempts are made to increase the proportion of female teachers. Because fewer women than men are literate, good female teachers are harder to find. In some cases, young schoolgirls may be recruited but these bring insufficient life experience to the classroom, which is problematic in programmes combining literacy training with other learning objectives. Nevertheless many positive experiences do exist. The Unisa network for Adult Basic Education and Training in South Africa recruited and thoroughly trained over 3,000 educators, many of whom were unemployed women (McKay, 2003).

NGOs and education provision: new models

NGOs have been key instruments, in many countries, for boosting state efforts to achieve UPE and gender parity goals. South Asia in particular has a long history of indigenous NGOs that have worked on social mobilization and development, although the role of NGOs and their relationship to the state varies among the different countries. Bangladesh, for example, has several large NGOs, most notably the Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee

NGOs have been key instruments in many countries for boosting state efforts to achieve UPE and gender parity goals.

NGOs serve as laboratories of innovative experimentation.

(BRAC) which is an active and direct provider of education. In India, NGOs serve more as laboratories of innovative experimentation, which allows them to try out different models with local communities, to find the best solutions for addressing both short-term constraints and longer-term issues of inequality.

In Bangladesh, the recent increase in total primary enrolments and the 'reversal' of the gender gap has had much to do with the expansion in NGO-managed schools. According to one study, in the absence of such schools the gross rate would have been 98 for girls and 97 for boys (instead of 109 and 104 respectively) (Chowdhury et al., 2002, p. 200). Hence there seems to be much positive gain arising from the activity of NGOs. Furthermore, improvements in the gender gap seem to be traced to 'positive discriminatory' actions both by the state and by NGOs. A key example is provided by BRAC's Non-Formal Primary Education (NFPE) programme, which ensures that 70% of its students are both girls and from poorer families (Box 4.20). Other NGOs have also adopted this strategy but do not share BRAC's large coverage.[12]

Box 4.20. Gender-aware education provision: the BRAC NFPE model

BRAC schools provide non-formal primary education mainly in rural areas, for the poorest children (aged 8–10), who have never been enrolled or who have dropped out of the formal schools. BRAC employs a 'positive discriminatory' strategy, whereby 70% of school enrolments are girls and roughly 96% of teachers are female. Originally started as a three-year programme, it has been expanded to a four-year cycle, covering the whole primary curriculum (Grades 1–5).

The BRAC model is distinct in four of its aspects relevant to girls' education: the school facilities; the teachers and their training; the curriculum; and the level of community participation in the schools.

School facilities: Schools comprise thirty to thirty-three students and their small size encourages student participation and interaction. In addition, the relationship between teacher and student is enhanced. The schools require a minimum of 240 square feet of space, rented at minimal cost from a community member. The single-classroom structures are frequently bamboo or mud-walled and equipped with a blackboard and charts. All the materials (pencils, notebooks, textbooks) are provided by BRAC and the children contribute a sum of Tk5 a month. The proximity of schools to the homes of the target group is deliberate, in view of its importance for school enrolment and retention, particularly for girls. The school schedule is set in meetings with the parents. On average, classes meet six days a week for two and a half hours each day for the first and second grades and three hours for the others.

Teachers and teacher training: BRAC teachers are mainly women and have to be residents of the local village. Teachers are chosen from among the most educated in the village. The teacher undergoes an initial intensive training for twelve days, whereby the basic concepts of learning theory are introduced and practical teaching exercises are undertaken. This is followed by annual refresher training of six days duration in preparation for each academic year. Additionally, teachers are required to attend a monthly one-day training session to discuss problems and to focus on experiences in the classroom. Teachers are paid roughly Tk500 a month (US$9), which is much lower than salaries at formal schools. Nevertheless, there is very little absenteeism among teachers and wastage is less than 2% annually.

Curriculum: The BRAC curriculum is especially tailored to address the needs of rural and urban children. It is based on information about the learners, their families, their economic conditions, levels of cognitive development and psychological and physiological growth. The curriculum incorporates the competencies set by the government for formal primary school but is based on a participatory approach to learning. Emphasis is placed on active-learning methodologies that facilitate discussion of topics, rather than mere memorization. Only a small amount of homework is assigned.

Community participation: The participation of the parents and the community at large plays a critical role within the schools and is one of the most important factors in their success. Community members and parents participate in various ways in the school management committee (composed of three parents, a community leader and a teacher), in parents' meetings, in the establishment of the schools, and in setting the school schedules.

Sources: BRAC (2002); Lovell and Fatema (1989); Fransman et al. (2003).

12. Of a sample of 2,151 children enrolled in non-formal schools surveyed, 76% were studying in BRAC schools (CAMPE/Education Watch, 1999).

The number of NGOs in Bangladesh has increased dramatically over the last twenty years (USAID, 2002, p. 27) to some four hundred working in the education sector alone. Some future caution may be required as regards the range of NGO approaches and their quality of provision – easy availability of funding may create an artificial increase in numbers of NGOs, not all of whom may share the same levels of commitment or ability to create as positive outcomes as those generated by BRAC and other large NGOs, such as Proshika, in Bangladesh.

The positive impacts of NGO involvement in education provision for girls – where the strategies are girl-focused – have also been demonstrated elsewhere. Programmes supported by NGOs in Ethiopia, Ghana, Guinea, Mali, southern Sudan and Uganda are all reported to have had some success in this respect (Miller-Grandvaux and Yoder, 2002). In Ethiopia, for example, total enrolment increased by 8.9% in the region where World Learning operates a community school programme, and girls' enrolment has increased by 13.8%. In these schools, girls' attendance also improved (with 36% of girls in class, compared with 28% in government schools). The gross enrolment rate for girls in one district in Guinea where Save the Children is working increased from 31% to 37%. In southern Sudan, CARE's work in sensitizing communities about the importance of sending children, in particular girls, to school is reported to have increased girls' enrolment by 96%. Girls comprise 47% of enrolment in Action Aid's community schools in Uganda, and almost half of those transferring to government schools are girls (Miller-Grandvaux and Yoder, 2002). In addition, schools supported by Save the Children US in Uganda are reported to have benefited girls' access to education in particular (Rose, 2003*b*).

Other interventions by NGOs may also yield positive benefits for girls' education. The micro-finance revolution in many parts of the world is a subject of contention as regards its effectiveness in reaching the poorest, and in empowering women, but positive benefits for households' abilities to save money and invest in children's education have been noted. In South Asia, evidence suggests that the provision of loans to women has a stronger effect in promoting children's education, particularly girls' education, and in reducing child labour than loans to men. This may well reflect increased bargaining power among women, and that women generally gain access to micro-credit in both Bangladesh and India as members of 'groups' formed specifically for this purpose (Drèze and Kingdon, 2001; Kabeer, 2003*a*).

Empowering women, building new communities

What does 'empowering women' mean?

When women are able to take control of their lives, they hold the key to change in many areas of human activity. Linkages between human rights and women's empowerment are crucial. Rights for women will have limited meaning if they do not feel able to come forward to claim their rights. Formal knowledge and literacy skills are one aspect of this process. However the trade-offs between claiming rights and disrupting familial relations that operate on the basis of the prevailing gender order are fraught with tension. Providing women with support in this process is important for agencies that seek to 'empower'

When women are able to take control of their lives, they hold the key to change in many areas of human activity.

Table 4.6. Summary of human rights education poster campaign (Bangladesh)

Title	Description	Statement
Contribution to development	Shows both men and women together participating in development work, i.e. cutting earth to build a road.	We have built this world and this civilization; men and women contributed equally to it
Child marriage	Points out a series of undesirable consequences of child marriage – childbirth at an early age leading to ill-health because of which wife fails to carry out family responsibilities; this failure leads to bad relations between her and other members of the family which eventually can result in divorce.	Many brides are crying because of child marriage; nobody pays attention to the flood of their tears
Violation of multiple marriage policy	Indicates that it is essential for a husband to have the approval of his existing wife before remarrying. Without this, he may have to face jail and/or pay a fine.	Facing jail and a fine for remarrying without the consent of present wife or for ignoring her disapproval for such marriage.
Abuse of women	Indicates that abuse of women is a criminal offence; one can be sent to the lock-up.	Those who torture women, send them to the lock-up.
Registration of marriage	Indicates that it is important to register marriage, as women are often helpless after divorce.	Husband divorced, what am I to do? Married by reciting Kalema but without registration.
Bride money	Indicates that in case of divorce, the husband must refund the bride money in all circumstances.	Have to pay the bride money whether dead or alive.
Verbal divorce	Indicates that a marriage cannot be cancelled by verbally pronouncing divorce three times.	Divorce is not legal if given verbally.

Source: Rafi and Chowdhury (2000).

Education can help women question rather than accept.

women. Without support structures in place, the risks may be too great for women who are then exposed to the brunt of potential backlashes.

An interesting approach was adopted by BRAC in Bangladesh to try to link the societal constraints on women's equality to the educational horizons open to them in a country-wide poster campaign. They distributed 700,000 posters throughout Bangladesh as part of a human rights education campaign. The subject of the posters (Table 4.6) was based on interpretations of the Koran and Islamic practices but met with strong opposition from religious organizations, who perceived the campaign an intrusion into their professional territory and, moreover, an attempt to affect their socio-economic interests. After meeting with such resistance, BRAC concluded that 'development organizations should pre-empt such opposition by spelling out their objectives to potential critics, and formulating programmes that do not provide scope for opponents to undermine their development activities' (Rafi and Chowdhury, 2000, p. 19).

The Mahila Samakhya experience

While the education of women and girls has been central to national discourse in India for over a century, complex and deep-rooted barriers to women's access to education remain. It has been argued that it is only when women's agency is developed to address these barriers themselves and when they are empowered, that the ground would be set for their participation in the education process. The Mahila Samakhya programme, working in several Indian districts, set out to do this, using innovative approaches. It saw the role of education as helping women to question rather than accept, in order to take control of their own lives; it also aimed to build conscious and independent collectives of women (*sanghas*) which are to initiate and sustain processes of social change (Jandhyala, 2003).

The programme design consciously moved away from conventional development approaches: no targets were set, and no services were to be delivered. Instead, the focus was to be on enabling women to identify their own learning priorities. Its principal strategy is to organize women into *sanghas*, which become the forums for reflection and mutual solidarity, and a means for women to articulate their needs in a range of interconnected ways.

The focus on collectives was itself a conscious decision and a departure from the usual emphasis on individual beneficiaries. Collective power helps women to overcome disadvantages that extend beyond material things to perceptions of their own abilities and capabilities. The lessons from the women's movement here, in highlighting the need for group solidarity, were strong. Today, of course, the significance of groups and collectives has been recognized as an effective strategy for reaching varied social and community groups and hence forms the basis of most development initiatives.

As the programme does not specify any one agenda, its personnel are continually challenged to translate objectives into workable strategies. This requires responding flexibly and sensitively to the needs and demands of the *sanghas*. A major task has been to remain focused on the continuing learning process. Furthermore, as empowerment is not something to be given out, but to be experienced personally before it can be facilitated in others, the programme provides opportunities for individual decision-making, innovation and creativity.

Conclusions

This chapter indicates the ways in which education systems, policies and programmes must respond flexibly and sensitively to gender issues. Gender inequalities are prevalent everywhere, but take different forms as contexts and prospects change. Accordingly, national priorities will differ, as will the perspectives and contexts from which ideas for change emerge.

Four major points emerge from this assessment of the initiatives most likely to promote gender parity and equality in education.

First, the state must play the leading role in promoting equal Education for All. This has been the case in most of the countries in which considerable progress has been seen. Legislative changes promoting gender equality are important for creating an enabling environment for girls' education. The planning and management of educational infrastructure and supplies, managing incentives schemes, regulating the actions of teachers and reforming curricula, are all activities requiring government initiative, albeit with the support of other non-state actors. Strong public commitment is indispensable, because civil society inputs cannot be guaranteed: changes in the social and financial environment may mean that NGOs, faith-based or private providers, may not always play a consistent role. However, it is also clear that states are sometimes not in the best position to deliver education, particularly in conflict situations or where public structures are very weak.

Second, measures to redistribute resources within education, and more broadly in other sectors, in order to meet girls' specific educational needs, are a major priority. Much can be done to reduce the direct and indirect costs of educating girls that families have to face. Targeted education-contingent subsidies have an important place in such a strategy. However there is a range of wider economic and social policies to remove discrimination in pay and at work, to change the social norms underlying discriminatory practice, and to remove the pernicious influence of child labour, which many governments – and non-state bodies – need to pursue.

Third, multi-sectoral partnerships are essential for achieving Education for All. The roles of NGOs, religious organizations, state and social movements are all important. Chapter 1 shows that most countries have committed themselves to achieving non-discrimination in education, across several international instruments and conference pledges. To realize these, there must be a greater effort to hold diverse partners accountable for their actions and their impact on gender equality.

Finally, this chapter shows that social change may be slow, but it cannot be achieved without directly engaging women and young girls in its process. This chapter focuses on women as active agents for securing transformation. Education is an important instrument to support that process. Building and liberating women's critical capacities is important if they are to be partners in change as well as major beneficiaries of it.

Social change cannot be achieved without directly involving women and young girls in its process.



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A crowded class in Cambodia's Samlot district, where landmines remain a threat.

Chapter 5

From targets to reform: national strategies in action

Achieving greater gender equality within and through education will not happen easily. But it is clear that progress is possible and that the benefits will be far-reaching. These are major messages of this year's report. It is also clear that national policies and reforms designed to achieve all the EFA goals will fail in the absence of strategies to address gender-related inequalities of access, participation and learning and recognition of the gender-differentiated social and economic outcomes in society as a whole. This is just as true for industrialized and transition countries as for South Asia, the Arab States and sub-Saharan Africa, where the challenge of achieving gender equality appears most daunting.

The next two chapters recall some of these issues and revisit the gender dimensions of EFA. However, their main purpose is to offer an analysis of the national policies and reforms that can make a substantial contribution to achieving EFA (Chapter 5) and to assess the extent that international co-operation in education is making a difference (Chapter 6).

Analysis of the policies required to achieve gender equality makes clear that while major changes can be made within education systems, many fundamental changes lie outside the mandate and competence of education ministries and institutions. Broader political and social measures have to be taken if the promise of better social services is to be realized.

Without attention to good governance, education-specific policy levers are likely to fall well short of their goals.

While governments are responsible for enabling their citizens to benefit from the right to a good education, these functions extend well beyond specific, technical educational responses, important as these are. Ensuring the equitable allocation of resources to education, strengthening public service institutions and engaging in dialogue with civil society are characteristics of broad-based government reform and not of sector strategies alone. Without attention to this broader environment of good governance, education-specific policy levers are likely to fall well short of their intended outcomes. At the same time, good education is itself a powerful force for bringing about the wider social and economic changes on which its own development depends.

It is clear too that the complementarities of basic social services should be exploited more effectively (UNDP, 2003*b*). This is not a new message, but the nexus of health, education, water and sanitation does need to be seen in a more unified way. A cross-sectoral approach is required if the many positive relationships between basic education, better health and nutrition, safe water and good sanitation are to reap their substantive human benefits. In addition, for many countries, any assessment of policy and its impact on better education that fails to take account of HIV/AIDS and of the effects of conflict on the lives of millions of people, will be seriously limited in its analysis and application (UNESCO, 2002*a*).

With this as background, seven main areas of analysis follow:

- Patterns of performance – what drives progress?
- Importance of context
- Commitments and time-bound targets
- Evidence of national reform
- Participation – is civil society involved?
- Decentralization – is it making a difference?
- Making primary education affordable.

The chapter concludes with a brief examination of EFA and its policy implications in transition and industrialized countries.

Patterns of performance – what drives progress?

A central question for this and future issues of the *EFA Report* concerns the identification of key factors determining rates of progress towards EFA. Policy analysis is hampered by a lack of good international data to facilitate cross-country comparisons.[1] However, case-study material and policy analyses of a qualitative kind are important means of identifying best practice and suggesting priorities for policy reform. The second part of this chapter draws on this type of material. In addition, there are more quantitative approaches that can be used to suggest policy insights.

As indicated in Chapter 2, the Education for All Development Index (EDI) offers one way of obtaining a quantitative summary of progress towards EFA.[2] It also provides an opportunity to investigate the extent to which progress towards EFA is associated with factors that may be a function of policy choice. For example, to what extent is EDI associated with public spending on education, income levels, aid flows, national debt, and good governance?

Statistical analyses, using data for the ninety-four countries for which EDI has been calculated for the year 2000, show evidence of some significant relationships between these variables (Box 5.1). The following generalizations are suggested by the results.

The impact of economic growth. By itself, the correlation between growth and EDI is not strong, rather it is mediated by other factors. Economic growth appears to have a positive impact on EDI only if the institutions of the country function well, which suggests that growth has to be well managed in support of education. Furthermore, although the potential benefits to EDI from economic growth are present for all developing countries, they appear to be particularly marked for those at higher income levels.

Moderate levels of national indebtedness are associated with higher levels of EDI, but only

1. This is not to deny the growing literature on educational reform. The Human Development Network of the World Bank is an expanding resource, decentralization has a vast literature, regional policy studies exist (e.g. Adams, 2002; Moulton et al., 2001) and aid agencies are reviewing their contribution to educational reform (e.g. AUCC, forthcoming).

2. Some potential uses of this index – and its limitations – are indicated in Chapter 2, and are more comprehensively discussed in Appendix 2.

for the more democratic regimes. Moreover, for high levels of debt the analysis suggests that the value of an extra dollar borrowed will be negative for EDI.

The per capita value of total aid flows has a positive impact on EDI where there is an effective institutional structure, and where the environment is democratic. Thus, aid will be helpful for EFA where recipient conditions allow the resources to be well used.

Higher levels of domestic educational expenditure improve EDI but the strength of the relationship is clearly mediated by the income level of the country. In the poorest democratic countries, where both access and quality are low, extra investment appears to have greater impact on EDI than similar increments in richer countries.

The legal guarantee of free education in poorer countries is not associated with higher levels of EDI, even in democracies. However, there is a significant and positive correlation between legal guarantees and EDI where living standards are high. Thus, legislation is beneficial only to the extent that provision of education can be ensured, and where people are in a position to benefit from such learning opportunities. If there are strong constraints on resources from both the supply and demand sides, legal guarantees have a limited meaning.

School fees: The actual incidence of school fees has a negative impact on EDI, as expected. The effects appear to be significantly greater in authoritarian states. This may suggest that democratic governments find ways to moderate the negative impact of fees, for example by providing targeted subsidies to households on the basis of need.

The crucial role played by good governance is a common feature of these results. By 'good governance' we mean, on the one hand, the effectiveness of the legal-institutional framework of the country and, on the other, the democratic accountability of the state. The two are, of course related, and while in some cases (as with the impact of economic growth) the effectiveness of the state apparatus seems to be a sufficient guarantee to ensure that the fruits of a successful macroeconomic policy are translated into educational gains, this is not always so. In

Box 5.1. Some determinants of the Education for All Development Index

Empirical analysis has been conducted which examines the extent to which variations in EDI are associated with other variables. The data set used for the ninety-four EDI countries includes twenty other variables of interest. Simple correlations indicate that higher levels of EDI are significantly associated with higher per capita incomes, economic growth rates, life expectancy, the incidence of democracy and of better governance, and negatively with rates of population growth, the incidence of school fees and the frequency of war.

Many of these independent variables are correlated with each other. Factor analysis has been used to design composite variables, in order to avoid multicolinearity. Three composites are used: the first is a background variable that includes population growth, life expectancy, infant mortality and per capita income; the second is a group of governance indicators including the rule of law, and the efficiency of state institutions; the third group comprises proxies for the extent to which the state is undemocratic. A time dimension is added by using data for the years 1990 and 2000 wherever possible, so as to increase the depth of the results.

These variables are used in the following statistical model, using a standard ordinary least squares estimating procedure:
$EDI_{t,n} = \alpha_n + \beta_1 I_{t,n} + \beta_2 U_{t,n} + \beta_3 B_{t,n} + \beta_4 I_{t,n} \times U_{t,n} + \beta_5 I_{t,n} \times B_{t,n} + \beta_6 B_{t,n} \times U_{t,n}$
where I stands for institutions, U for undemocratic (the higher the value of the variable the less democratic the country), and B for background information. The first interactive term, I*U, measures whether institutional development will matter differently in democratic and non-democratic countries. The second interactive term, I*B, is there to see whether institutions have a different impact on EDI, depending on whether the initial living standards are high or low. The final interactive term, B*U, looks at whether living standards matter differently in democratic and non-democratic countries.

The results show that (other things being equal) EDI is increased with better institutional development, greater democracy and higher living standards (i.e. β_1 and β_3 are positive whereas β_2 is negative). All three coefficients are highly significant. Overall, the model suggests that institutional development matters most for poor countries (β_5 is negative and significant), the more so in countries which are more democratic (β_4 is negative and significant), while living standards are important regardless of other circumstances ($\beta_6 \approx 0$).

The introduction of other variables into this basic model suggests that educational aid has an impact on EDI only where there is a transparent democratic system and a good institutional framework; that educational expenditures (as a proportion of GNP) increase EDI, but again particularly so where democracy and institutional development are well established; that moderate levels of debt can have a positive impact on EDI whereas high levels have a strongly negative impact; that legal guarantees of free education only affect EDI in higher-income states; that fees have a strongly negative impact on EFA, particularly where levels of democracy are low; and, finally, that economic growth only has a significant impact on EDI where levels of institutional development are relatively well developed.

Source: Silva (2003).

A successful educational policy needs a careful combination of targeting and realism.

other cases, (as with debt management) it appears to be crucial that the state is accountable to the electorate, in order to ensure that its policies actually benefit the public. Finally, these findings suggest that a successful educational policy necessitates a careful combination of targeting and realism: while educational expenditures will have the most significant impact in poorer countries, legal guarantees of free education are unlikely to help unless the country is able to ensure that the facilities are available, and has a population that is willing and able to use them. At present these results are suggestive, and the approach merits further attention and development.

Importance of context

The broad relationships set out above are important. But they are limited in their value as predictors of progress unless they are mediated through the particular circumstances of individual countries. For some, the sheer numerical scale of the educational challenge is the defining factor, for others responding to the diversity of their societies is key. Being a small nation-state may limit options, while levels and patterns of poverty circumscribe action in the poorest countries. For an increasing number of states the prevalence of HIV/AIDS and the incidence of conflict will dictate both the policies that are needed and the reforms that are possible.

3. Each year the UNDP *Human Development Report* explores major issues of global concern, addressing changes in per capita income, human resource development, and basic needs as a measure of human progress, while assessing the role of people in development. UNDP has established three composite indexes: the Human Development Index (HDI), the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) and the Human Poverty Index (HPI). The latter ranks countries according to their national levels of poverty, illiteracy, unemployment and life expectancy (UNDP, 2003*b*).

Table 5.1. The scale of the challenge (2000)

Country	Primary-school-age children out of school (thousands)	Adult illiterates (15+) (thousands)	Out of school and illiterates (% of total population)
China	8 054	141 903	11.8
Pakistan	7 785	46 702	38.6
Ethiopia	5 499	21 005	42.1
United Rep. of Tanzania	3 618	4 827	24.0
Islamic Rep. of Iran	2 436	10 552	18.5
Sudan	2 405	7 881	33.0
Indonesia	2 046	19 377	10.1
Bangladesh	1 957	50 558	38.2
Kenya	1 909	3 049	16.2
Saudi Arabia	1 438	2 760	20.6
Ghana	1 290	3 239	23.5
Niger	1 287	4 564	54.0
Mozambique	1 153	5 741	37.7
Yemen	1 098	4 914	32.8
Angola	1 010	n.a.	n.a.

Source: Statistical annex, Tables 2 and 5.

The challenge of numbers

For some countries, the sheer scale of the challenge, in terms of the numbers of people whose educational rights and opportunities are being denied, requires a policy response that is systemic and nationwide. Table 5.1 identifies fifteen countries where more than 1 million children were out of school in 2000. These countries account for about 40% of the global population of out-of-school children and about the same share of the world's adult illiterates. And this list excludes a number of very large countries for which no data are recorded for 2000, including the Democratic Republic of the Congo, India and Nigeria.

Elsewhere, the absolute numbers may not be large by international standards, but those without learning opportunities comprise a very high proportion of the school-age population. Table 5.2 shows seventeen countries (all from the Arab States and sub-Saharan Africa) with a primary-school net enrolment ratio (NER) in 2000 of below 60 (again limited by the fact that NER is unavailable for fifty-two countries worldwide). This table overlaps with Table 5.1 in the case of seven countries: Angola, Ethiopia, Ghana, the Niger, Saudi Arabia, the Sudan and the United Republic of Tanzania.

For all these countries and more, piecemeal reform and individual projects will not make the difference. They require a massive expansion of basic education linked to difficult decisions about investment in adult literacy in systems where resources are severely constrained.

The burden of poverty

The incidence of absolute poverty relegates education as a personal and family priority, let alone allowing governments to fulfil their educational responsibilities. In Francophone West Africa, poverty is a defining characteristic of life. Benin, Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, Guinea, Mali, Mauritania, the Niger, Senegal and Togo are all classified as least developed countries. The Human Poverty Index[3] (UNDP, 2003*b*) ranges from 38.5 for Togo to 61.8 for the Niger and, despite improved economic growth in the 1990s, the gap is widening between those who constitute the 20% poorest and the 20% richest. Climatic instability, a fragile natural resource base, dependence on a small number of exports,

Table 5.2. Net enrolment and adult illiteracy (2000)

Country	Primary NER	Adult illiterates (15+) (thousands)
Niger	30.4	4.564
Djibouti	32.6	0.127
Burkina Faso	35.5	4.504
Angola	36.9	n.a.
Eritrea	41.0	0.908
Ethiopia	46.7	21.005
United Rep. of Tanzania	46.7	4.827
Guinea	47.0	n.a.
Sudan	49.5	7.881
Burundi	53.7	1.734
Guinea-Bissau	53.5	0.417
Central African Rep.	54.7	1.129
Mozambique	54.4	5.741
Comoros	56.2	0.177
Saudi Arabia	57.9	2.760
Chad	58.2	2.423
Ghana	58.2	3.239

Source: Statistical annex, Tables 2 and 5.

the incidence of conflict and the spread of HIV/AIDS is a formidable environment in which to define education policy and make progress towards EFA, although as Table 5.3 shows it was possible during the 1990s to increase the proportion of national expenditure on education in the majority of these countries. Aid dependence is high compared with the average level for the Africa region as a whole, although its per capita level fell in all nine countries during the 1990s. In these circumstances, it is not surprising that the educational indicators of these countries are some of the poorest in the world, as Chapter 2 and the annexes to this report demonstrate.

Inclusion: tailoring policies

In most of the countries cited above, but also in states with much higher levels of primary-school enrolment and literacy, policies are needed to provide all children with the opportunity to learn. Even in countries where NERs are relatively high (85 and over), context specific solutions are required to meet the needs of those who are difficult to reach by virtue of gender, geography, language, ethnicity, orphanhood, and rural and urban poverty. The incidence of conflict heightens the complexity of the policy response required.

The rights of ethnic minorities provide one example. China is confronted with the needs of the least-developed parts of the country, primarily remote rural areas and regions in the west, as well as large migrant communities that have moved into China's cities (Maher and Ling, 2003). In Viet Nam, in 1998, 82% of ethnic minority children were enrolled in primary school (Viet Nam Poverty Task Force, 2002) compared with 93% for the Kinh majority. In the Lao People's Democratic Republic, which has 47 officially recognized ethnic groups with 149 sub-groups, a much higher percentage of ethnic minority children have never enrolled in,

Table 5.3. Francophone West Africa

	Public expenditure on education as % of GDP[1]		ODA US$ per capita (in constant 2000 US$)[2]		ODA as % of GNI[2]		Debt service as % of GDP[1]	
	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000
Benin	3.2	3.8	56	38	15.3	11.1	2.1	3.5
Burkina Faso	2.3	3.5	35	30	13.6	15.5	1.2	2.5
Côte d'Ivoire	4.8	4.4	54	22	7.4	3.6	11.7	10.9
Guinea	1.8	1.9	51	21	11.6	5.2	6.0	4.4
Mali	2.1	2.6	56	33	20.3	15.6	2.8	4.2
Mauritania	2.1	2.4[a]	121	80	24.1	22.0	14.3	10.7
Niger	3.1[b]	2.3[c]	53	19	16.7	11.7	4.0	1.6
Senegal	3.3	3.9	112	44	15.3	9.9	5.7	5.2
Togo	4.5	4.3	70	15	17.4	5.9	5.3	2.4
Total Africa – north of Sahara			69	16	5.7	1.1		
Total Africa – south of Sahara			34	19	7.3	4.2		
Total Africa			41	20	6.9	3.1		
Total LDCs			35	19	18.2	8.3		
Total developing countries			15	10	1.7	1.0		

Sources: 1. UNDP (2002, 2003)
2. DAC on-line database (OECD-DAC, 2003, Table 2a and Reference Section)
a: Data for 2001; b: Data for 1989; c: Data for 1999.

or attended school, than children who have Lao as their first language (Seel, 2003).

The social and economic implications of exclusion also give rise to significant political and educational policy issues in the industrialized world, even when the numbers of people involved are small by world standards. This is an issue which is revisited in the last section of this chapter.

Small states

Of the 203 states listed in the annexes to this report, 58 have a population of less than 1.5 million (28.6% of the total); 43 have a population of under 500,000. For many of these countries, primarily in the Caribbean and the South Pacific, EFA policies are constrained by size of population, limiting the ability of governments to offer a complete range of educational opportunities. The implications of out-migration and the intensification of globalization set additional educational challenges for very small societies. Kiribati, (population 83,000) in the South Pacific, has to meet the needs of communities inhabiting islands spread across over 3,500 m^2 of ocean (Mackenzie, 2003).

Commitments and time-bound targets

Powerful global symbols

If the obligations and promises of governments over the last fifty years had been fulfilled, the dialogue at the World Education Forum would have been very different.

Different contexts will require policies tailored to national circumstances but virtually all states have made formal international commitments to Education for All. Indeed, if the obligations and intentions agreed by governments over the last fifty years had been met, the dialogue at the World Education Forum would have been very different.

Treaty obligations

As indicated in Chapter 1, international commitments are of two types: treaty obligations and political commitments. As regards the former, formal obligations require states to observe and report on their performance under the five major human rights treaties, all of which affirm the right to education. By ratifying these treaties, states create legal obligations towards their own citizens as well as to other governments. At its best, the reporting requirement assists states to improve their performance under each treaty, while indirectly strengthening international understanding and co-operation in support of better education.

The reporting record of countries varies, and more than one third of ratifying states have reports overdue. Nevertheless, by far the majority of the world's states have given full or partial guarantees of the right to education, which represent legal obligations. Box 1.1 in Chapter 1 summarizes these guarantees and Appendix 1 provides a fuller account.

Political commitments

Governments also agree to international frameworks for action. The United Nations Millennium Development Goals (United Nations, 2000) and, more specifically for education, the *World Declaration on Education for All* and the *Framework for Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs* (WCEFA, 1990) and the *Dakar Framework for Action* (UNESCO, 2000*f*) are clear cases in point. These commitments are not binding on individual states but they are influential and are increasingly subject to both international and national monitoring processes. The *EFA Report* is an example of the former, while national reports charting progress towards the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) provide an example of the latter.[4]

Regional commitments may also be significant. In the 1960s, a series of regional plans, goals and targets were agreed in Africa, Latin America, and Asia and the Far East (Table 5.4). It is sometimes forgotten that ambitious targets were set for the achievement of universal primary education and other levels of education well before the World Conference on Education for All in Jomtien (Thailand) in 1990.

National commitment is essential

International commitments are important but it is at the national level that a public, political and professional coalition around EFA is essential. Constitutional and legislative provision is a backbone for policy and reform. A good number of states enshrine the right to education in their constitutions – 83 out of 131 countries based on one survey of treaty reports, excluding OECD countries (Tomasevski, 2003). For example, under the Constitution of South Africa, the Bill of Rights (South Africa, 1996), guarantees

4. As of August 2003, there are twenty-seven Country Reports on Millennium Development Goals prepared nationally in association with UNDP, 2003*a* (www.undp.org/mdg/countryreports.html).

Table 5.4. Setting targets for formal education in the 1960s

Regions	Goals and targets	Target dates	Situation in 2000
Africa 1961	Increasing primary-school enrolment for the continent as a whole from 40% to 51% and secondary enrolment from 3% to 9%. Universal compulsory and free primary-school enrolment, 23% secondary-school attendance and 2% attendance at higher education institutions.	1966 1980	Less than six out of ten primary-school-age children were enrolled in 2000. In countries for which there are data, GER in secondary and higher education is 27% and 2.5% respectively.
Latin America 1962	Completion of six years of primary education by all children in both rural and urban areas.	1970	Latin America and the Caribbean have a regional average of 97% primary NER in 2000. Yet, in half of the countries, only 87% of the children who have access to school reach the 5th grade.
Asia and the Far East 1960	Universal, free and compulsory primary education of at least seven years' duration for all children in Asia.	1980	In East Asia and the Pacific sub-region, the average NER was 93%. In South and West Asia only 81% of primary-school-age children were enrolled. But this is an eight-point increase on 1990.

Sources: UNESCO (1960); UNESCO (1961); UNESCO (1962); Statistical annex, Tables 5 and 6.

every citizen the right to a basic education including adult basic education and to further education *which the state, through reasonable measures, must make progressively available and accessible*. The recent amendment to the Indian Constitution strengthens that country's commitment to education by requiring that the state shall provide free and compulsory education to all children aged 6 to 14 years in such a manner as the state may, by law, determine (India, 2002). The Constitution of Brazil has ten detailed articles on education, covering the principles on which education should be provided, the duties of the state and its constituent federal parts, and stipulates minimum levels of financial provision (Brazil, 1998).

Of course, it is the extent to which these rights and obligations translate into enforceable legislation and well-conceived policies, plans and programmes that is the key issue. Constitutional guarantees in themselves do not make the difference. As one commentator (Juneja, 2003) has observed, the legislation that gives effect to the new constitutional clause on free and compulsory education will play a determining role in the future of Indian education. He concludes that what is needed is not legislation in the 'old compulsory mode' but legislation that will enforce the rights of every child to good quality education.

Setting national targets

Increasingly, governments are setting very specific, time-bound national education goals and targets within their plans and programmes. In part, this reflects their international commitments, including those made in Dakar. In countries where external aid is significant, the modalities of sector-wide approaches, Poverty Reduction Strategies and budget support require the setting of clear and realizable targets. But, more generally, this culture is pervading public service provision, partly in response to rising expectations of what public education systems should be expected to provide.

The eighteen countries in Table 5.5 provide a sample of states that have embraced target-setting in a significant way. Thus, they have recommitted themselves to achieving UPE in terms of enrolment and participation within the Dakar and MDG timeframes, interpreting their own national needs and goals within the 2015 objectives.

These countries are not only setting UPE targets in terms of net and gross enrolment but are also including measures of participation, survival, graduation and completion. In some cases, intermediate benchmarks are being set, notably in the countries with the lowest NERs, such as Chad, Mozambique and Pakistan. Table 5.5 also includes countries with relatively high NERs, such as Brazil, China and the Philippines. As noted earlier, these heavily populated countries

Ambitious targets were set for achievement of universal primary education and for other levels of education well before the World Conference on Education for All in Jomtien.

Table 5.5. Setting UPE goals and targets

Countries	UPE enrolment targets	Primary NER (2000)[a]
Bangladesh[1]	Eight years of primary education compulsory and universal by 2010.	88.9 (6–10 age group)
Bhutan[2]	Increase the enrolment of children aged between 6 and 12 in primary schools to 90%–95% by 2007.	n.a.
Brazil[3]	Achieve universal access to primary and lower secondary education for all children within five years (2001–06) ensuring access and conditions of permanence in school to all children.	96.7 (7–10)
Chad[4]	Raise the admission rate to the first grade of primary school from 82% in 2000 to 90% in 2005/2006. 100% GER by 2015.	58.2 (6–11)
China[5]	By 2015, nine-year compulsory schooling should be universal in the whole country. NER approaching 100% by 2005.	92.7 (7–11)
Egypt[6]	Full absorption of the 6–15 age group in schooling by 2005.	99.6 (6–10)
Ethiopia[7]	UPE by 2015. GER of 65% (Levels 1–8) by the end of 2004/05.	46.7 (7–12)
Haiti[8]	NER for 6–11-year-olds of 100% between 2010 and 2015.	n.a.
Honduras[9]	Universal graduation from the 6th grade for all 12-year-olds by 2015.	87.6 (7–12)
India[10]	Enrolment of all children in schools or other alternatives by 2003. All children complete five years of schooling by 2007 and all children aged 6 to 14 complete eight years of schooling by 2010.	85.7 (6–10)
Lao PDR[11]	NER to 95% by 2015 and 98% by 2020.	81.4 (6–10)
Mauritania[12]	Primary NER 100% by 2008. Rate of access to first grade 100% by 2005.	64.0 (6–11)
Mozambique[13]	Every child aged 6 to enter primary education (EP1). Survival rate of 95% by 2013. EP1 completion rates 80% by 2008. Expanded access to EP2. 95% survival rate by 2015.	54.4 (6–10)
Niger[14]	Primary GER 70% by 2012; 84% by 2015.	30.4 (7–12)
Pakistan[15]	Universal participation of all 6-year-old children in UPE by 2015. Participation rates of 79% by 2005; 93% by 2010 and 100% by 2015.	60.1 (5–9)
Philippines[16]	Universal participation of all 6-year-old children at Grade 1 by 2006. Universal access to elementary education by 2015.	92.9 (6–11)
United Rep. of Tanzania[17]	Primary NER of 90% by 2005.	46.7 (7–13)
Viet Nam[18]	95% of children complete primary education before age 12 by 2010.	95.4 (6–10)

Sources:
1. Bangladesh National Commission for UNESCO (2002).
2. Bhutan (2002).
3. Guimaraes de Castro (2002*b*).
4. Chad (2002).
5. Maher and Ling (2003).
6. Egypt (2003).
7. Ethiopia (2002).
8. Haiti (1997).
9. Honduras (2002).
10. India (2003*a*).
11. Seel (2003).
12. Mauritania (2002).
13. Mozambique (2003).
14. Niger (2002*b*).
15. Pakistan (2002).
16. Philippines (2003).
17. United Republic of Tanzania (2003).
18. Viet Nam (2003).
a. Statistical annex, Table 5.

continue to have significant numbers of children out of school.

In China, although the exact numbers are not known, one recent study suggests that among urban migrant populations alone, an estimated 1.8 million children, aged between 6 and 14 are not receiving an education (Human Rights in China, 2002).[5] In Brazil, the percentage of children out of school has fallen considerably[6] but the absolute number remains significant in a country where 45 million people out of 175 million live in poverty.

Some countries are setting **gender-related targets**. Bangladesh, which has made dramatic progress in enabling girls to benefit from schooling, has intermediate and 2015 targets for gender-disaggregated primary-school gross and net enrolments. Chad plans to have parity of enrolments by 2015. The Niger aims to have 42% of all school-age girls in school by 2005, 68% by 2012 and 84% by 2015, while the United Republic of Tanzania is maintaining its commitment to the MDG and EFA goals of gender parity in school enrolments by 2005.

5. Human Rights in China states that its estimates are based on incomplete data and that the figure could be higher than 1.8 million, given that China's migrant population is estimated at between 100 million and 150 million.

6. The World Bank (2002*c*) reports that, based on Brazil's 2000 Census data, the percentage of children aged between 7 and 14 who are out of school dropped from 18.2% in 1992 to 5.1% in 2000.

Quality-related, time-bound objectives are less apparent and are almost entirely associated with primary education. In all cases proxy indicators are set, as Table 5.6 demonstrates.

Jordan has set itself a very precise set of quality-related input targets, as Box 5.2 shows. This represents detailed planning with well-defined markers and indicators for the period up to 2008, under the programme entitled Education Reform for the Knowledge Economy supported by the World Bank.

Literacy goals feature as part of education plans in some countries. For example, the Brazilian government has stated boldly that illiteracy will be eradicated by 2010. Bhutan has set 2012 for full adult literacy. China plans to eradicate illiteracy among 15–24-year-olds (an MDG indicator) by 2010. By 2020, it is proposed that illiteracy among the 15–50 age group will be less than 1%. Egypt has endorsed the EFA literacy goal and intends to reduce illiteracy to less than 15% among 15-year-olds and over. India has set a *sustainable threshold* of 75% literacy for both men and women by 2005. The Lao People's Democratic Republic is operating in a longer timeframe, planning to increase levels of literacy to 90% for those over 15 by 2020. Pakistan intends to achieve the Dakar literacy goal by 2015. In all these cases, the attainment of these targets will require strengthening of data and data systems on literacy.

Table 5.6. Setting quality-related school-level benchmarks and indicators

Indicators	Countries	Targets
Drop out	Bangladesh	Reduced progressively to 15% by 2015
Repetition	Niger	5% by 2012
Retention and completion	Mauritania	84% by 2010 and 100% by 2015
Primary-secondary transition	Chad	60% by 2015 from 47% in 1999/2000
Pupil/teacher ratios	Ethiopia	45:1 by 2015
Textbook/student ratios	Chad	3:1 in mathematics, science and French
Pass rates	United Rep. of Tanzania	50% pass rate in Standard 7 by 2005
School improvements	Guyana	All schools up to basic standard by 2010
New curricula	Mozambique	New primary curriculum operational by 2006

Source: See Table 5.5.

These are all demanding targets. Their achievement depends in large part on universal primary education of good quality, but all will require attention to educational opportunities outside of the formal system. Some countries give importance to early childhood care and education (ECCE). By 2010, in China, it is planned that the participation rates of children in pre-school institutions should be 80% and 90% by 2020. Egypt has a number of major goals in this area and by 2020 it intends that pre-school provision should be part of free and compulsory

Box 5.2. Goals and targets: education reform for the knowledge economy in Jordan

1. New curriculum framework emphasizing basic skills, core competencies and essential learning for a knowledge economy developed and in place, for 50% of subjects by 2006, 100% of subjects by 2008.

2. Examination database with 50% of core competencies completed by 2006, and 80% by 2008.

3. Percentage of teachers utilizing e-learning enhanced curriculum increased from 10% to 50% by 2006, and 100% by 2008.

4. Teachers trained with basic ICT skills increased from 5,000 to 30,000 by 2006, and 50,000 by 2008.

5. Percentage of trained teachers utilizing new methodology increased to 40% by 2006, and 80% by 2008.

6. Number of schools with access to computers increased from 2,100 to 2,700 by 2006, and 3,000 by 2008.

7. Percentage of students using an on-line learning portal increased to 30% by 2006, and 70% by 2008.

8. Rehabilitated schools provide safe access to 244,800 students by 2006.

9. Computer classrooms extended to provide access to 270,000 students by 2006, and 468,800 students by 2008.

10. Science laboratories extended to provide access to 126,000 students by 2006, and 252,000 students by 2008.

Source: World Bank (2003*a*).

basic education, with 75% of the 4–6 age group absorbed by 2015. Pakistan has drafted a three-phase, benchmarked set of proposals to reach 50% participation rates by 2015.

Adult learning receives less attention. Brazil is committed to ensuring that by 2006, the first four grades of primary education will be made available to 50% of the age group of 15 and above who have not completed the first level of schooling. The Lao People's Democratic Republic plans that 50% of the newly literate should continue complementary education to acquire basic educational and vocational skills.

Industrialized countries

The practice of setting education performance-related targets is a common phenomenon in industrialized countries. But here the focus is a little different. Where full primary enrolment and gender parity have been attained, the challenge is to offer education of good quality for all, for life in knowledge-based economies. Problems of social cohesion, poverty in the midst of affluence and changing patterns of gender relationships all affect the definition and role of education in predominantly urban societies.

7. This system can be viewed on http://nclb.ecs.org/nclb/-national grid.

Box 5.3. United States – tackling inequalities

In the United States, education is high on the political agenda. In 2002, the federal government launched a twelve-year plan entitled *No Child Left Behind*. By the school year 2013–14, 'all students [will be] proficient in reading/language arts, math and science'. This requires that low achievement, especially among low-income, minority and disabled children, should be eliminated by 2014 when every child must be proficient in the three core subjects. To measure this, Academic Achievement Standards have to be adopted by every state by 2006.

For the years 2002–08, the Act contains a detailed timeline consisting of thirty-four stipulations. These concern the development and implementation of tests and standards; the qualifications and training of teachers; the accountability of states and schools (e.g. by means of state/school report cards); the planning process at state level; and financial aspects. Additional funds are available to schools with a high proportion of poor students, and states are obliged to use part of their federal funds for school improvement. They risk losing federal money if they do not comply. A web-based monitoring system indicates which states are on- or off-track, to allow states to learn from one another.[7]

Source: U.S. Department of Education (2002*a* and 2002*b*).

Reforms focused on reducing inequality of learning outcomes in the United States are indicated in Box 5.3. European reforms were debated at the Lisbon Summit of the European Union in March 2000, where it was agreed to make continuous efforts to turn Europe into the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world by 2010. Recognizing that human resources are crucial in realizing this ambition, a benchmarking process is being developed that challenges member states to aim for higher performance levels in education and training. In particular, a list of six *Indicators and Reference Levels of European Average Performance in Education and Training* has been established for 2010 (European Council, 2003). Together, these targets address four of the Dakar goals (Box 5.4).

Both of these examples reflect recognition of the importance of education for social cohesion and economic competitiveness. They also show that governments are less shy than hitherto in applying business techniques, such as benchmarking, to education and training.

The international dimension also seems to be important. The regular publication of comparable education statistics of industrialized countries such as *Education at a Glance* by the OECD and international student achievement surveys such as the Third International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) and the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) have created more transparency regarding the educational performance of participating countries. This has helped to create an increasing sense of educational competitiveness.

Is target-setting productive?

Targets and indicators should not be confused with wider educational goals and objectives. They are not ends in themselves. At best their use helps to improve performance and enhance accountability (White, 2002). Planning the ways in which targets will be reached should contribute to identifying better resource allocations and working practices. Greater accountability is a positive check on politicians, managers and educators. However, there are dangers that people working within education systems may be driven by the need to reach overly narrow targets that fail to capture the complex notion of quality.

Box 5.4. European Union – benchmarks for higher performance

- Reduce the number of early school leavers to 10% or less by 2010. Early school leavers are defined as those aged 18–24 with lower secondary education or less.
- Increase the number of graduates in mathematics, science and technology by at least 15% between 2000 and 2010, while reducing the gender imbalance. These subject areas are considered crucial for economic growth and innovation, and girls especially represent a large unused human potential.
- Increase the number of those having completed upper secondary education at age 22 to at least 85% by 2010.
- Decrease the percentage of low-achieving 15-year-olds in reading literacy – as measured by PISA – by 20% between 2000 and 2010.
- Increase the average number of workers aged 25–64 partaking in lifelong learning (in the last four weeks prior to measurement) to 12.5%.
- A substantial annual increase in the per capita investment in human resources.

Source: European Council (2003).

At the beginning of the twenty-first century, there is a stronger coalition around global goals and targets than ever before. This includes education. But many educators are not entirely enthusiastic about this trend. As one commentator has noted (Chabbott, 2003), attempts to introduce global targets into the discourse in Jomtien, especially by UNICEF, were not well received. The 1990 Declaration contains no target commitments, rather it states that 'Countries may wish to set their own targets for the 1990s in terms of the following dimensions' (i.e. UPE by 2000, reducing adult illiteracy by half). Dakar is more aggressive in this regard. There is a global commitment to achieve the EFA goals, while accepting the need for national interpretation. Chabbott suggests that some educators find targets anathema, believing that education cannot be reduced to the sort of targets that characterize child survival and immunization campaigns. Governments are nevertheless increasingly setting targets for the complex process of education, accepting, as did Dakar, that this is a tool for injecting both urgency and focus.

However, in embracing targets for education, it has to be acknowledged that the international record has not been good compared with achievements in other sectors, notably health. In part this can be explained by governments setting targets within their own political cycles, while improvements in education take time. One commentator on the United Nations goals argues for:

- framing and measuring goals in ways that contribute to real and desired objectives;
- defining different degrees and dimensions of achievement;
- recognizing achievements in individual countries and the proportion of people benefiting;
- assessing the extent of the advance towards each goal;
- measuring advancement against starting points and comparing like with like;
- analysing causes for success within this multidimensional analysis.

These ideas are put forward in the context of international goals (Jolly, 2002) but they also have relevance to the process of setting and using goals and targets in individual countries. Interpreting the Dakar EFA goals nationally deserves a similar approach.

At the beginning of the twenty-first century, there is a stronger coalition around global goals and targets than ever before.

Evidence of national reform

Education systems are highly complex and have to be planned. Yet a constant process of policy review and reform in the education sector is also a fact of life. Rarely do education systems have the chance to stabilize. This long-term activity is subject to the short-term imperatives of political cycles, which complicates the search to understand what really makes a difference (Martinic, 2003; Corrales, 1999). Here a largely descriptive approach is adopted, providing instances of reform at work in eight countries prior to a more detailed examination of three specific strategies: participation, decentralization and making primary education affordable to households.

The brief country profiles that follow exemplify a set of generally accepted tenets about the prerequisites for improving education. As noted elsewhere in this report, a strong legislative base is necessary even if this does not in itself guarantee change. Leadership at the highest level makes a difference if the legal guarantees are to be met and, in the constant battle to secure resources for education, those which are available must be used efficiently and managed well, centrally and locally. The underpinning requirement is education grounded in professional competence and sound pedagogy.

Leadership at the highest level makes a difference if the legal guarantees are to be backed up.

Many countries still benefit from the very strong impetus given to education in the immediate post-independence period. Algeria demonstrated this commitment between 1966 and 1977 by making major investments in education (Kateb, 2003). Its National Commission for Education Reform in 1970 stressed the democratization of education, leading to an expansion of primary-school enrolments from 47.2 NER in 1966 to 83.0 NER in 1998. But for Algeria – and many other countries – consolidating these early gains has proved problematic.

Bangladesh has experienced a regular flow of policies and reforms for well over a decade. The enactment of the Compulsory Primary Education Act in 1991 and the introduction of a competency-based curriculum framework in 1994 laid the foundations for a major expansion in education provision that then faced the triple challenge of quantitative expansion, qualitative improvement and better management. In recent years the National Education Policy (2000), the Primary Education Development Programme and the National Plan of Action for Children (1997–2002) have all been constructed to address these challenges (Bangladesh National Commission for UNESCO, 2002). The education of girls has been made a priority and there has been innovation through greater dialogue with communities, through UNICEF's Intensive District Approach to Education for All and as part of the Effective Schools Through Enhanced Management (ESTEEM) programme supported by the UK Department for International Development (DFID). In this progression of policy debate and development, education has remained a politically contentious issue, in a country with a strong and vocal non-government education sector. Some commentators argue that education needs to be depoliticized – however unlikely this is – if lasting achievements are to be sustained (Fransman et al., 2003).

Successive Chilean governments have pursued education sector reform. A major efficiency-oriented reform, initiated in 1981 under an authoritarian regime, was for the most part preserved by a centre-left coalition government after the transition to democracy in 1990 and complemented with significant quality-oriented reforms and targeted support for schools in low-income and rural areas (Corrales, 1999). A specific concern has been to address the pedagogical issues acknowledged as contributing to discrimination against women (Avalos, 2003). These include the curriculum and textbooks, teacher-education programmes, school-based sex education and scholarship programmes for students attending the 'poorest' schools.

Developing education in Mauritania starts from a low and difficult base. A process of government decentralization was initiated in 1986, a pluralist democracy was established in 1991 and an economic reform programme commenced in 1992. In education, the focus has been on expanding access to schooling and major gains have been made: primary gross enrolment for girls has risen from 47.2% in 1991 to 84% in 2001/02. In 1999 a sector reform was introduced to place education 'at the heart of development' and was soon followed by the National Development Programme for the Education Sector (NDPES – 2001–2010), developed through a year-long process of consultation. Improving access, improving quality, and the education of girls are its three pillars. In assessing the chances for success one writer has identified the steady application of political will, active participation across society, close attention to the monitoring of progress, and sustained support from the international community (Kamil Hamoud Abdel Wedoud, 2003).

In Kiribati, strong and sustained political leadership led to the establishment of a junior secondary school on each of the twenty inhabited islands of the country, thereby giving all children the opportunity of a nine-year cycle of basic education. This was costly: the recurrent budget increased by US$2 million in 1998. Education's share of the budget increased from 19% to 23% in one year. Even so the costs of financing the programme have almost certainly been underestimated. The focus now, as in so many

countries, is on quality and on the investment needed to secure this (Mackenzie, 2003).

At the other end of the population scale, China's underlying prescription for education is *Essential Quality Oriented Education (EQO)* which places nine years of universal, compulsory education and the eradication of illiteracy among young people as important priorities. Increasing attention is now being given to assisting the country's most disadvantaged groups. There are plans to increase the level of transfer payments to the western and ethnic-minority areas, as low local investments in education represent the key constraint to better education for ethnic-minority groups. In addition, the use of local languages, the recruitment of local teachers and better parents' education programmes will become accepted strategies. Multiple channels of educational opportunity are proposed for the disabled, especially in disadvantaged areas, and a target has been set of 95% primary-school enrolment for the children of rural-urban migrants by 2005. School-based programmes are planned to help address the spread of HIV/AIDS. Given the very strong growth of the Chinese economy in recent years, notably on its eastern seaboard, these objectives should not be out of reach (Maher and Ling, 2003).

Cambodia is committed to universal access to, and completion of, primary and lower secondary education by 2010. It has instituted a rolling five-year *Education Sector Support Programme (ESSP) 2001–2005*, within which there are twelve *Priority Action Programmes (PAPs)* designed to promote equity, quality and efficiency of education governance and financing. These programmes include attention to in-school and out-of-school HIV/AIDS awareness, and scholarships and incentives for equitable access and efficiency at all levels of the system. While there have been considerable improvements in gender parity, efforts to improve the quality of teaching and learning through the pursuit of gender equality goals has some way to go (Velasco, 2003).

Ecuador went through a three-phase process of experimentation, assessment and diagnosis, and broad-based consultation and reform between 1991 and 1997. A pilot programme designed to increase school enrolment and community participation in rural schools was followed by a major baseline assessment of education policy involving a wide range of stakeholders, leading to the ten-year (1995–2005) *Education Reform Plan (Plan Decenal de Reforma Educativa en Marcha)* (World Bank, 2000). Decentralization has been one defining characteristic of the whole reform process.

While these brief sketches have their limitations, they tend to confirm that reform in education is invariably part of wider reforms designed to promote poverty reduction, better governance and economic growth. Few, if any, of the reforms address the totality of EFA, and in many instances attention to access is followed by a concern for quality rather than both occurring in tandem.

Participation – is civil society involved?

Reform in education is part of wider reform to promote poverty reduction, better governance and economic growth.

The next three sections take a closer look at three strategies and reforms that lie at the heart of many government policies: the engagement and participation of civil society, better management of education through decentralization, and the reduction of private costs, especially for primary education.

One of the major strategies agreed at the World Education Forum in 2000 was to 'ensure the engagement and participation of civil society in the formulation, implementation and monitoring of strategies for educational development' (UNESCO, 2000*f*). It echoes the statement made ten years earlier at the World Conference on Education for All at Jomtien, on the importance of partnerships between government organizations, the private sector, local communities, religious bodies and family groups. These commitments are similar in intent to many international statements on governance 'with' as opposed to 'of' the people. The United Nations Millennium Declaration states that 'we [national governments] resolve to... *work collectively for more inclusive political processes, allowing genuine participation by all citizens in all our countries*' (United Nations, 2000).

Translating these international commitments into national and local policy processes requires action well beyond the province of those working in the education sector. As noted in the next section of this chapter, government reforms in

Partnerships are not possible unless governments provide the space and opportunity for dialogue to take place.

support of decentralization may be one way of enabling the stronger engagement and participation of civil society in education. Greater autonomy in the management of schools and local institutions can provide opportunities for citizens to be heard through the development of school plans, the management of budgets, and the recruitment of personnel. However, at the national level, dialogue between the representatives of civil society and central government on education-sector policy and strategies appears to be much more limited and difficult to manage. Why is this so?

In part, it is a function of the heterogeneity of civil society. In Brazil, there are over a quarter of a million organizations in the so-called 'third sector', employing more people than the government. The range of interests represented by these bodies is a great strength in responding to a diversity of needs, but it also presents a considerable challenge to the development of common positions and a collective voice around specific education policies. Pressure groups, urban movements, religious associations, national and international NGOs, have their own stance and priorities with many organizations playing more than one role.

In addition, most education NGOs are active as service providers,[8] without the resources to participate in time-consuming policy-related dialogue. Even where there is a clear wish and capacity to be engaged in policy, partnerships are not possible unless governments provide the space and opportunity for dialogue to take place (Schattan et al., 2002). This section examines the extent to which these spaces are being created and used against the background of the Dakar commitments.

National EFA forums: gauging their impact

The World Education Forum proposed the strengthening or the creation of national EFA forums, as one approach to allow civil society to be part of mainstream EFA policy-related processes. To assist this initiative, UNESCO (2001) issued detailed guidelines on how to develop a national consultative and co-ordination body that would bring together a broad range of representatives with a vital stake in basic education. The Forum was conceived both as a vehicle for dialogue and for the co-ordination of planning and monitoring progress towards national EFA goals.

It is difficult to gauge the extent to which national EFA forums are operational as there is no international database available. The Collective Consultation of NGOs Forum in Porto Alegre (Brazil) in 2003 concluded that national EFA forums and consultations were not well established (CCNGO, 2003). Some recent small-scale regional studies offer some insights into particular national processes. A survey by the Asian South Pacific Bureau of Adult Education (Razon, 2003) looks at Bangladesh, Fiji, Nepal and Samoa and suggests that EFA forums serve primarily as a means of sharing information. It is in separate technical committees where civil society organizations (CSOs) can have some influence. This appears to have been true in Bangladesh, through the work of the Campaign for Popular Education (CAMPE), and on the issue of 'second chance' education in Samoa, through the Education Advocacy Alliance – a small coalition of NGOs. Conclusions on the limitations of current practice are given in Box 5.5, which also highlights a problem for governments – the extent to which they are knowledgeable about who within civil society is active and experienced in the field of education and able to bring something to the policy table. A judgement cannot yet be made as to whether EFA forums will be an influential force, and evaluative work on this matter is strongly needed.

Civil society at work

Despite the many constraints that limit purposeful dialogue across and between government, civil society and individual citizens, there is a growing body of knowledge suggesting that partnerships for EFA can work. This proposition is explored below through a small set of examples.

Dialogue and consultation

In Guatemala, the peace treaty signed in December 1995 brought to an end thirty-six years of bitter conflict. The Peace Accords generated a widespread desire for a more inclusive society that would involve civil society in policy-making (Pérez Obregón, 2003). Working in the context of the Accord on the Identity and Rights of Indigenous Peoples, which was designed to promote a multicultural, multilingual and multi-ethnic nation, a three-year process of dialogue

8. In India, 63% of education sector organizations see themselves as assisting government, a similar percentage make direct education interventions, over half describe their work as innovatory and 50% as working in geographical areas neglected by government (Nawani, 2002).

Box 5.5. CSOs – finding a place at the table

Spaces for participation and of citizen involvement in national EFA processes are shaped, to a large extent, by the political context in which citizens are invited to participate in the making of policy. National policy frameworks frequently view CSOs as either state appendages for more efficient delivery of social services or as sources of innovative approaches and ideas, but seldom as partners in policy.

Some CSOs were able to gain representation in EFA forums but many were not able to do so because they were not invited, lacked the information and knowledge about EFA and its processes, or did not have enough resources to participate. This was especially true of those outside the capital and those which are not members of, or have no access to, CSO advocacy networks. Governments' lack of knowledge of EFA stakeholders and the absence of clear criteria on how to enlist the latter's participation excluded many citizen organizations from EFA planning and limited the possibilities for broadening the base of support for EFA.

Source: Razon (2003).

resulted in the establishment of a consultative group on education in 1998. After further talks, two committees were created, one governmental, the other primarily representing indigenous peoples. Bipartite committees held discussions with municipal, departmental and national organizations on a wide range of proposals that contributed to the creation of a Joint Committee on Education Reform with a broad and diverse membership. This in turn led to a consensus on a set of proposals enshrined in the National Education Reform. One positive expression of this process is The National Languages Act (2003), a recent commitment to protect the right of indigenous peoples to speak one or more of twenty-one Mayan languages. However, the implementation of the reform programme more generally is proving problematic and there is a sense of disappointment at the difficulty of translating the Peace Accords into legislation and action. The Committee for Peasant Unity (CUC) protested recently at the failure of government to sustain a participatory process for an education and rural development policy based on the Peace Accords and the National Education Reform. Nevertheless, the process in Guatemala does point to a willingness to find space for dialogue and a consultative process to define reform (Pérez Obregón, 2003).

In Viet Nam, the development of the National Education for All Action Plan 2003–2015 (Viet Nam, 2003) involved a process of workshops, fact-finding, research and analysis in all the country's sixty-one provinces. The aim was to reach consensus on education targets and objectives, and identify action programmes. The Action Plan will be implemented through provincial plans that will involve People's Committees, the provincial departments of education and the provincial departments of finance.

This process drew on a strong tradition of national and central planning, involving mass organizations for women, youth and farmers which are the major social institutions in the country. In contrast, national NGOs (not linked to government) are a new phenomenon. However, over time these organizations are likely to grow in importance as the Vietnamese Government plans to promote the greater participation of citizens in policy matters.

Beyond consultation

In different ways, both Guatemala and Viet Nam demonstrate an initial step by governments to enable people to be aware of their rights, create discussion forums and propagate an interest in education. However, to move beyond this initial 'success' to a more sustained process of co-operation is more difficult. Already, there is a measure of disillusionment in Guatemala at the lack of funding to implement reforms agreed as a result of the consultative process (Pérez Obregón, 2003).

A more extended engagement that goes beyond dialogue is found in Brazil (Schattan et al., 2002). Set up during the 1990s, Management Councils that operate from local to federal level have an equal number of representatives of civil society, service providers and the government. The councils take responsibility for policy in health, education, social assistance and provision for

children and adolescents. They oversee management of public resources (federal, state and municipal) and of the infrastructure of schools, community and health centres.

Created in 1995, Comunidade Solidária is one such management council which develops proposals with a focus on education and training. It has invested in the design of innovative programmes in the areas of literacy education and professional development; involving a range of public and private partners that provide technical capacity and resources. Methods, costs and results are monitored to offer reliable guidelines for programme replication (Cardoso, 2001).

Additionally, popular social movements have been successful in working jointly with government. This is explained in Box 5.6, where MOVA-SP has not only worked with government to tackle illiteracy, but also with a literacy programme developed by Comunidade Solidária. Both MOVA-SP and Comunidade Solidária demonstrate a process of advocacy and social movement leading to mutually agreeable partnerships between CSOs and government.

Schattan et al. (2002) point out that the institutionalization of participation through these Brazilian councils has been considered in recent literature as a useful mechanism of *deliberative democracy* (Bohman and Rehg, 1997; Cohen, 1997; Habermans, 1997; Avritzer, 2000) or *associative democracy* (Cohen and Rogers, 1995; Hirst, 1994). It provides opportunities for purposeful discussion on public policies, leading to the democratization of the decision-making process and the possibility of increased accountability to citizens (Schattan et al., 2002). On the other hand, critics argue that the state may evade responsibilities by transferring some of the tasks to civil society. NGOs are especially vulnerable to this, entering into partnerships focused on rendering services, in which they have little influence over decisions previously taken by the state (Teixeira et al., 2002).

These examples point to the potential benefits of developing education policy in a more open and democratic way, involving a range of agencies and partners, encouraging greater levels of commitment among those involved.

Learning by doing

As noted above, a particular issue for the numerous NGOs involved in education is how to translate a broad variety of individual objectives into a joint position with well-defined policy proposals. This does not require total agreement among all the groups participating in education reform processes. In fact, a level of compromise is often needed in order to achieve changes.

Box 5.6. Brazilian partnerships against illiteracy

The Young People and Adults' Literacy Movement of the City of São Paulo (Movimento de Alfabetização de Jovens e Adultos da Cidade de São Paulo, MOVA-SP) is a partnership of the São Paulo municipal government (led by the Workers Party) and several popular movements and social organizations interested in stamping out illiteracy. This partnership involves the sharing of power between the state and social groups. In order to achieve this, a reform agenda – the result of a joint collaboration between City Hall and the popular movements – made changes in the structure and organization of classrooms and classes. Additionally, it led to the allocation of additional funds to support the programme. Currently, other Brazilian cities such as Santo André, Ribeirão Pires and Mauá in the State of São Paulo, Angra dos Reis in the State of Rio de Janeiro, and Porto Alegre in Rio Grande do Sul are developing programmes similar to MOVA-SP.

Comunidade Solidária's programme, Solidarity Literacy, is a product of the types of social movement that resulted in the political modernization projects exemplified by MOVA-SP. The result of a partnership between Comunidade Solidária, the Ministry of Education, Brazilian universities, city halls and representatives of private initiatives, the programme is designed to assist young people between the ages of 12 and 18 who cannot read and write and live in the municipalities with the highest illiteracy rates in the country. A pilot project was implemented during the first semester of 1997 in thirty-eight municipalities of the northern and north-eastern regions, where illiteracy rates exceed 55%. After being assessed and improved by the participating universities themselves, the programme was expanded in June 1997. These initiatives were recognized and supported in the ten-year Brazilian Education Plan (2001–2011).

Sources: Teixeira et al. (2002); Brazil/ILO/CINTERFOR, 2003.

In the Philippines, the government made public its commitment to the outcomes of both the Jomtien and Dakar conferences. Post-Jomtien, this prompted CSOs to establish stronger relationships with government. In the early 1990s, a series of acts, plans and reforms encouraged this.[9] However, expectations of a 'Grand Alliance' did not materialize. The National Council on Education for All (NCEFA) was short-lived and was not convened after 1993. Although government drew on various CSOs to contribute to specific education initiatives, this was not conceived as part of a national partnership. The organizations involved were either accredited by the Department of Education or were deemed credible by the government.

At the end of the decade, the EFA 2000 Assessment process was strongly criticized by CSOs for its failure to consult, although ultimately the Philippines EFA Assessment Report (Raya and Mabunga, 2002) stated that the active participation of all stakeholders was critical. The report recommended the revival of the 'Grand Alliance' through NCEFA. Thus, a new window of opportunity was opened for the major CSO networks and education-focused NGOs, in part facilitated by the international NGO OXFAM in creating opportunities for dialogue between the Department of Education and CSOs (Raya and Mabunga, 2002). This marked the start of an active period of preparation for the Philippines' participation by CSOs in the World Education Forum in Dakar.

CSOs in the Philippines learnt a number of lessons during the 1990s, especially the importance of forming a broad network to rally around issues of education reform. This was realized in part through the Civil Society Network for Education Reform or E-Net[10] and through public consultations. Thus, in February 2000, the College of Community Health, Development and Management (CCHDM) co-ordinated a consultation on EFA with indigenous peoples, teachers, local government units, line agencies, private groups, and NGOs. The results of this activity were then presented at a National Conference on *Philippine Education Reform and Human Development: A Civil Society Perspective*.

Although civil society appears to have learned some lessons regarding networking, building strategic contacts, engaging internationally as well as nationally, developing well-conceived, well-founded demands, and promoting a strong advocacy strategy, it still remains uncertain whether the post-Dakar decade will be characterized by a more inclusive and participatory approach than the 1990s.

The challenge of scale

In India, there are an estimated 100,000 CSOs/NGOs, a major expansion in number since the 1980s (Clarke, 1998). Disillusionment with the public sector is seen by some to be a major factor in this expansion (Nawani, 2002). Most are small and local. Some work closely with government, some independently, while others act as critics of government policy and practice.

In *Education for All: National Plan of Action;* (India, 2003*a*) the government sets out a mission-driven approach to the achievement of EFA. At individual state level, this requires missions that will involve NGOs, social activists, university teachers, teachers' union representatives, Panchayati Raj[11] representatives and women's groups in achieving EFA goals. It remains to be seen whether this harnesses the rich experience and capacities of civil society in education policy development and review (Roy and Khan, 2003). One recent example where civil society engaged closely with national policy is set out in Box 5.7.

To make its mark, civil society needs to promote policy options that are informed by grass-roots experience and rigorous analysis. One commentator (Kohli, cited in Roy and Khan, 2003) identifies five strategies, each of which requires its own expertise which may not be characteristic of CSOs/NGOs that are primarily service providers:

- the development of common positions and perspectives;
- the creation of alliances and networks;
- a solid base of research and analysis;
- communication strategies for different audiences;
- free flows of information.

To make its mark, civil society needs to promote policy options that are clearly informed by grassroots experience and rigorous analysis.

9. These actions are the following: enactment of the 1991 Local Government Code; signing of the International Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) by the Philippines Government in 1990; enactment of the law on Child Rights (RA 7610); adoption of a comprehensive programme for children – the Philippine Plan of Action for Children (PPAC); and restructuring of the education bureaucracy (tri-focalization) (Roy and Khan, 2003).

10. E-Net is a mixture of various networks, organizations and individuals involved in education work and advocacy.

11. Panchayati Raj is a three-tier system of local government, which became a constitutional part of democracy in India in 1993.

Both the Indian and Philippine cases suggest that networks and access to information are key steps in building strong partnerships. Additionally, strong networks provide citizens with opportunities to publicise changes in policy (Kohli, cited in Roy and Khan, 2003).

Building capacity

A capacity-building programme has been launched by UNESCO in eleven countries of Africa[15]. It is designed to enhance the professional and institutional capacities of NGO/CSOs. Its focus, defined by the organizations themselves, is on policy, the curriculum, pedagogy, and project and programme development in education (Bah, 2003).

The programme is conceived within the framework of the Collective Consultation of NGOs on Education for All (CCNGO/EFA) through a participatory process involving African regional 'focal points', the African Network Campaign on Education for All (ANCEFA), and resource persons from both African civil society and African governments. UNESCO, the World Bank, the Rockefeller Foundation and other partners, such as Luxembourg Development Cooperation, support the initiative.

As Box 5.8 suggests, the process of identifying and addressing needs (and therefore the process of capacity-building itself), requires context-specific answers. The ability to understand and influence the government requires similar skills in most societies.

International networking

As noted in Chapter 6, over the past two decades there has been a rapid growth in the activities of international NGOs and networks. The Global Campaign for Education and the Global March Against Child Labour are two prominent examples. These organizations are having increasing impact on international policy dialogue and are also contributing to the development of capacity at the national level (Chapter 6).

CCNGO/EFA, based at UNESCO, connects approximately 700 NGO/CSOs, two-thirds of which are in developing countries. It operates primarily through regional consultations in order to build strong relations with national CSOs. A strategy of growing importance is to facilitate policy dialogue around specific themes, such as literacy and lifelong learning, and higher education, as this is seen as an effective way of bringing like-minded experts together. Approximately 500 NGOs are involved in this way.

The Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE) is another well-established network. Its primary goal is to influence policies and practice aimed at attaining gender equality in education

Box 5.7. Triggering the debate: constitutional amendments and CSOs in India

In 2002, the 93rd Amendment of the Constitution Bill[12] (making education a fundamental right, free and compulsory for all children aged 6–14 years) was passed. One critique of the Amendment galvanized a broad civil society front: the National Alliance on the Fundamental Right to Education (NAFRE). NAFRE decried the Amendment as a retrograde step due to the exclusion of the 0–6 age group in the provision of free and compulsory education, that had been provided in a Supreme Court judgement of 1993 (Unnikrishanan vs. the State of Andhra Pradesh). NAFRE and FORCES[13] argued that although it is well established that the development of a child in the age group of 0–6 is critical, the provision for pre-primary education including crèche facilities in the country has been very limited. Moreover, the conception and implementation of the Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) located in the Department of Women and Child Development[14] neglects the crucial area of education. The campaign united CSOs involved in education and brought education issues to the fore in public consciousness and policy debates. This augurs well for enhanced accountability in the future. Furthermore, the inclusion of early childhood care and education (ECCE) in Article 45, albeit as a directive principle of the state (implementation is discretionary), recognized the critical links between pre-primary education, child care and development, thus opening some space for a prospective convergent approach.

Source: Roy and Khan (2003).

12. The Bill has been notified and renumbered in the Gazette of India as the Constitution (86th Amendment) Act, 2002.

13. Forum for Childcare and Creche Services, focusing on early childhood care and development.

14. ICDS, and therefore the existing government provision for the age group 0–6, does not come under the Department of Education, although both departments are within the Ministry of Human Resource Development.

15. These are Angola, Benin, Burkina Faso, Chad, Ethiopia, the Gambia, Guinea, Mali, the Niger, Senegal and the United Republic of Tanzania.

Box 5.8. Guinea and the Niger: who calls the tune?

Guinea and the Niger belong to a group of sixteen African countries with primary gross enrolment ratios (GERs) of below 50% in 2000.

Prior to 2000, CSOs were used extensively in **Guinea** to channel aid, implement projects and programmes, reach out to, and mobilize, disadvantaged local communities, and experiment with new teaching and learning approaches (AED/SARAII Project, 2002). Very few CSOs participated in policy development, although a few, mostly branches of international NGOs, had more national visibility and impact.[16] Most were limited in their technical capacity, lacked financial resources and/or were dependent on foreign aid (Barry, 2003). In the **Niger**, a country the size of France, political crises and deep poverty heightened the challenge for poorly resourced CSOs. The circumstances of these countries require broad partnerships if there is to be progress towards EFA. Neither governments nor CSOs alone can deliver on EFA.

In building capacity, understanding local cultures, practices and politics is vitally important if the programme is to be owned and developed by different communities. The culture of planning, implementing and monitoring an agreed course of action cannot be prescribed externally, especially when new capacities are in the process of being built. Pressure on local organizations to plan and behave in 'modern' or 'Western' ways can lessen a sense of understanding and ownership and, ultimately, efficiency.

Some of the best national NGO/CSOs are locally grounded, run voluntarily and driven by a strong sense of commitment. They demonstrate an extraordinary ability to anchor learning within their own contexts while having the capacity to innovate. Capacity-building programmes should recognize these attributes. These programmes may be efficient in their own terms even if they lack staff experienced in skills defined in international management terms.

Source: Bah (2003).

and it has had major successes in placing the issue of girls' education on the agenda of policy-makers in Africa. It operates through national chapters and an example of its work at country level is provided in Box 5.9.

Conclusions

This brief survey suggests a heightened level of activity on the part of CSOs in support of policy development, even in countries where there is little tradition of government engaging with civil society. On the other hand, many lack the requisite technical and political skills to influence government. It is also difficult for constructive criticism of government not to undermine productive partnerships.

Thus, the extent to which the processes envisaged by the World Education Forum will affect outcomes depends largely on the willingness of governments to be more open to processes of public participation in decision-making.

Decentralization: is it making a difference?

Meanings and motives

Decentralization can make a big difference in the provision of social services. This is a message of the *Human Development Report 2003* (UNDP, 2003*b*) in the context of defining policies that will contribute to the elimination of human poverty. But it requires good governance (Box 5.10), an argument that echoes the *World Development Report 2000/2001* (World Bank, 2000): *to benefit poor people* [decentralization] *must have adequate support and safeguards from the centre and effective mechanisms of participation.*

16. For example, Aide et Action, Plan Guinée, OC International (OCI), Save the Children, World Education, Internationale Zusammenarbeit des Deutschen Volkshochschul-Verbandes (IIZ/DVV), Centre Africain de Formation pour le Développement (CENAFOD), Forum des Éducatrices de Guinée/Forum for African Women Educationalists (FEG/FAWE), and Coordination des ONG Féminines de Guinée (COFEG).

Box 5.9. FAWE in Uganda – setting a trend

FAWE supports the monitoring of education in Uganda and has helped to provide scholarships for girls from poor households who perform well in the national primary leaving examinations, but fail to join secondary school because their parents or guardians cannot afford the monetary costs involved. This started out on a small scale, but because it was managed effectively, and the performance of the girls was carefully monitored, the project has attracted funds from donor agencies. A growing number of girls are now in secondary school sponsored by FAWE and as a result a number of other NGOs led by women have adopted this approach.

Source: FAWE (2003).

With or without good governance, one recent survey suggests that 80% of developing countries, plus some of the transitional economies of Eastern and Central Europe, are experimenting with some form of decentralization. In 1999, 96 out of 126 countries had at least one elected sub-national level of government, while 42 countries had two or more levels. In 1997, 52 countries had a measure of fiscal decentralization (Work, 2002).

Decentralization for better education rests primarily on the assumption that the quality of education will be improved as a result of greater efficiency in the use of resources and better responsiveness to specific problems. A World Bank definition (Box 5.11) captures this intent for school systems and indicates the implications this process may have for more fundamental shifts in the meaning of education.

As Table 5.7 suggests, the motives for introducing decentralization are many and varied. Some are fuelled by donor agencies as a means of promoting local democracy through the work of NGOs (e.g. Netherlands, 2002; Nach Mback, 2001). Within countries there may be a genuine wish to respond to demands for greater participation or to political pressures. For example, in recent years, devolution of authority in the Russian Federation, Papua New Guinea, the Philippines and the Sudan has been a response to the risk of secession (Bray and Mukundan, 2003). Efficiency motives may be influenced by a wish to lessen the financial burden on central government.

A historical perspective indicates that decentralization is neither a new idea or process. McGinn (2001) recognizes a number of trends over the past half century. These include:

- a move away from decentralization being conceived as a technical instrument to becoming an accepted component of 'modernization';
- a concern for outcomes as well as inputs;
- recognition of diversity – of place, community and need;
- a more inclusive approach to stakeholders;
- the need to broaden the revenue base;
- a shift from local management to local governance.

The trends have often involved policy reversals. Thus, in 1973, Bangladesh eliminated local management of schools, passed legislation to restore local control in the early 1980s, reverted to central control in 1990 and, most recently, is moving towards local management again (McGinn, 2001).

Colombia demonstrates the inherently political nature of decentralization (Bray and Mukandan, 2003). In the mid–1980s, decentralization was perceived by the government to be a means of promoting stability and political legitimacy. From the early 1990s, resources were transferred from the centre to municipalities, and schools were given direct responsibility for managing personnel, designing aspects of the school curriculum and having some financial control. A greater voice was also given to parents, teachers and students. A voucher scheme for poor students was instituted. However, only 70% of schools had transferred to municipal control by 1993. The enterprise did not have total government support and the teachers' unions, key to making the reforms work, feared the loss of national bargaining power.

Box 5.10. Conditions for success

Decentralization tends to be successful when the central government is stable, solvent and committed to transferring resources, when local authorities are able to assume those responsibilities and when there is effective participation by poor people and well-organized civil society. These conditions generally result in responsive policies and services, increasing growth, equity and human development.

Source: UNDP (2003*b*).

Box 5.11. Getting the conditions right

Decentralization is the process of reassigning responsibility and corresponding decision-making authority for specific functions from higher to lower levels of government and organizational units. Educational decentralization is a complex process that deals with changes in the way school systems go about making policy, generating revenues, spending funds, training teachers, designing curricula, and managing local schools. Such changes imply fundamental shifts in the values that concern the relationships of students and parents to schools, the relationships of communities to central government, and the very meaning and purpose of public education.

Source: Fiske (1996).

Table 5.7. Decentralization: motives and objectives

World Bank[17]	McGinn and Welsh	*Human Development Report* (not specific to education)
1. Education finance ● Generation of resources through local taxation ● Reduce operating costs ● Shift financial burden from central government to regional or local government, community organizations and/or parents 2. Efficiency and effectiveness ● Elimination of bureaucratic procedures ● Improved motivation and productivity of officials ● Centralized planning leads to expensive education ● Better allocation of resources to match needs ● Increased school-level authority eliminates need for central decision-making and improves administration and accountability 3. Redistribution of political power ● Decentralization promotes legitimacy and greater community voice ● Legitimacy to local institutions ● Weakens political opposition 4. Quality ● Decision-making close to each school ● Focus on local cultural and learning environments ● Greater local accountability through incentives for quality performance 5. Innovation ● More suppliers leads to variety of experience ● Innovation through competitiveness	1. Quality ● More inputs for schooling ● Improved quality of inputs ● Increased relevance of programmes ● Increased innovation ● Better range of options ● Reduced inequalities of access ● Better learning outcomes 2. Operation of systems ● Greater efficiency in allocation of resources ● Greater efficiency in resource use ● Increasing match of programmes to employer requirements ● Better use of information 3. Sources and levels of funding ● Increasing the overall sum of money for education ● Shifting the source of funding from one social group to another 4. Benefits for central government ● Lessens external political problems ● Reduces bureaucratic headaches ● Relieves central government of financial burden ● Increases political legitimacy ● Reduces corruption at central level 5. Benefits for local government ● Increases revenues for local use ● Increases capacity of local government ● Improves responsiveness of central government to local needs ● Redistributes political power *Source*: McGinn and Welsh (1999).	1. Faster responses to local needs ● Local authorities respond to local conditions ● No more waiting for central permission ● Opportunities for women to participate 2. More accountability and transparency; less corruption ● Money that is diverted corruptly from development programmes often declines 3. Improved service delivery ● Reduces absenteeism – so enhanced services at no extra cost ● Greater public concern regarding discipline ● Increased accountability and better monitoring 4. Better information flows ● Better early-warning systems 5. More sustainable projects ● Local involvement in design, execution and monitoring ● Participatory budgeting and accounting enhances efficiency, transparency and gender responsiveness 6. Redress of regional inequalities ● Lessens potential conflict ● More equitable distribution of national funds 7. Increased energy and motivation ● Encourages local solutions ● Promotes innovation ● Reduces workload in hierarchical systems 8. Expanded opportunities for political representation ● Stronger voice in public policy ● Increased representation among women and marginalized groups *Source*: UNDP (2003*b*).

Ways to decentralize

Where, then, do the real opportunities lie for better education through decentralization and where is it working well for EFA? There is no comparable data on which to draw, although there are broad surveys of aspects of decentralization (e.g. Crook and Sturla Sverrisson, 1999) and a growing number of regional and national studies (e.g. Narodowski and Nores, 2002). The decentralization experience of seven countries is briefly reviewed below.

Since 1992, Indian decentralization has 'picked up steam' (Mahal et al., 2000). Changes in the Indian Constitution (1992) made it incumbent on individual states to set up representative rural (*panchayats*) and urban bodies. This process was to be accompanied by the establishment of state finance commissions (that would recommend appropriate devolution of resources to the new bodies), and the creation of district planning committees. The exact responsibilities and the specification of the mechanisms to ensure accountability were left to state legislatures to determine. As a result, decentralization finds

17. Based on material from the World Bank Global Education Reform website. www1.worldbank.org/education/globaleducationreform

In South Africa, mandatory school governing bodies assist principals, teachers and parents.

expression in different ways in different states (Govinda, 2003). In Madhya Pradesh *gram panchayats* (village-level authorities) take on responsibility for the construction and maintenance of schools, school inspection, the distribution of free textbooks and uniforms, the management of scholarships for Scheduled Castes and Tribal children and for non-formal education. One positive benefit has been the greater willingness of parents to send girls to school. However, in other states – for example, Maharashtra – these types of responsibility lie at the level of the *zilla parishad* or district level. The recent and varied experience of Kerala is analysed in Box 5.12. This highlights the complexity of the decentralization process where vested interests remain strong.

With the planned enactment of the Free and Compulsory Education for Children Bill, 2003, allied to the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) programme for Universal Elementary Education (UEE), designed to attain UEE for 6–14-year-olds by 2010, decentralization should become an even more prominent part of India's national effort. SSA is defined as a partnership between central, state and local government, involving *Panchayati Raj* institutions, school management committees, village and urban-slum level education committees, parent-teachers' and mother-teacher associations, tribal autonomous councils and other grassroots structures in the management of schools (India, 2003*b*).

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan builds on a number of initiatives from the 1990s. One commentator recognizes at least eight national and state initiatives and programmes, including literacy missions, which have encompassed different approaches to decentralization (Raina, 2002). The debate around these initiatives centres in part on the extent to which the practice of decentralization is about delivery mechanisms rather than learning processes, and decentralized management rather than educational decentralization. Other concerns relate to the power of the national elite being replaced by the power of the local elite: 'Indian central government plans for universalizing elementary education (grades 1–8) would come to nought unless collective voice and collective action becomes effective in all states…' (Mehotra, 2001).

In South Africa, decentralization and democratic participation has been a live issue for the past decade, particularly in relation to school autonomy. During the apartheid era, the democratic movement sought to develop parent-teacher-student associations (PTSAs). The South African Schools Act of 1996 drew on this tradition, establishing mandatory school governing bodies (SGBs). These bodies were designed to assist school managers and teachers, encourage parents to support their children's education, and mobilize additional resources. The recent establishment of the National Association of School Governing Bodies offers some evidence of the significance of SGBs, although there is some way to go in building capacities to enable them to function strongly (Nzimande, 2002).

But some of these developments have raised questions about the balance between the central and decentralized modes of governance, the regulatory role of the state in pursuit of national norms and educational equality, and strong community control (Sayed, 2003).

In Jordan (Work, 2002), the ministry of education has delegated financial and administrative authority to local units, reorganized the ministry to be more responsive to local governments and allowed local decision-makers to promote participatory budget development. District governors advertise, recruit and hire civil service staff through personnel units.

In Oman (Oman, 2001), local support councils have been established to contribute to the running of schools, representing the school itself, students and parents. Parents' councils are empowered to make proposals on admission policies and student achievement.

The United Republic of Tanzania's Primary Education Development Plan 2002–2006 (United Republic of Tanzania, 2001*b*) states that 'central ministries will continue to focus on policy development and monitoring. There will be increased delegated authority to local government and schools to manage education provision and development. The ultimate aim is for each district to be able to provide equitable access by children to education services'. The role of school committees is set out in Box 5.13. It includes both planning and financial accountability functions.

Box 5.12. Decentralization in Kerala: strong rhetoric, entrenched patterns

Kerala State, in the south-west of India, is one of the most developed parts of India. Its average literacy rate of 90.9% contrasts with the national average of 65.4%. Basic education is almost universal. In 2002/03, 5,335,600 children were enrolled in school, of whom 49.2% were girls. The state has a strong reputation for political participation, and its leaders have been outspoken champions of decentralization. However, the volume of rhetoric has barely been translated into reality.

In some respects, initiatives in Kerala derive from national reforms. The 73rd and 74th amendments to the Indian Constitution (1992) required state governments to establish local self government institutions (LSGIs), also known as *Panchayati Raj* institutions. Rural areas were required to have a three-tier system for villages, blocks and districts. The constitutional amendments demanded devolution of significant powers, responsibilities and finances to these bodies.

In Kerala, these initiatives fitted well with local priorities. Enthusiasm moved into a higher gear in 1996 with the election to state government of a radical leftist regime which included in its major activities a People's Campaign for Decentralised Planning (PCDP).

The PCDP was designed to include education alongside health, community governance and other aspects of development, and was implemented with a 'big-bang' approach. A system of multi-level planning was devised in which the village *panchayat* was the lowest unit of administration. In the Ninth Five-Year Plan (1997–2002), state development grants to local communities were increased from 5% to nearly 40%.

At that time, Kerala had over 11,000 government and government-aided schools. Administrative responsibility for these schools was transferred from the state government to the LSGIs, with primary education being made the responsibility of the lowest tier, i.e. the village *panchayats*. The State Planning Board introduced a Comprehensive Education Programme as a general guideline for *panchayat*-level programmes, and the campaign was supported by primary-school curriculum revision.

Continuity more than change

Yet while proclamations are relatively easy to issue, real change is more difficult to achieve. An evaluation after six years indicated continuity more than change. State-level regulations continued to dominate, and bottom-up initiatives were few in number.

One more problem was that village authorities lacked understanding of the tasks devolved to them, and even where they did understand they lacked expertise to conduct the tasks. For example, few village *panchayats* realized the significance of their new powers to monitor and evaluate teaching and learning; even fewer felt competent to use these powers effectively. Teachers resisted what they saw as political incursions into their professional domain; and few village-level leaders felt adequate to challenge the professional views asserted by the teachers.

However, local leaders in a few *panchayats* did find ways to support their schools and to diversify the nature of provision beyond the existing mould. For example, Panniannur and Pinarayi *panchayats* had leaders who were experienced in education and who showed particular interest in implementing educational projects. These cases, which emerged in response to specific socio-political conditions, showed that the advocacy of decentralization did lead to some changes. Nevertheless, the positive examples were few in number, and the overall picture was largely one of continuity of the old patterns. Experience so far thus suggests that a fully decentralized system of educational administration is unlikely to develop. State-level administrators are anxious to preserve the coherence of the education system and to limit the inequalities that would arise in a heavily decentralized framework. And state-level politicians, despite their public pronouncements, are anxious to maintain their existing powers.

Source: Bray and Mukundan (2003).

This represents a very significant attempt to give much greater autonomy to local communities. It requires some investment of people's time, and comparative experience suggests that unless village plans provide the basis for real action, long-term commitment cannot be assured. These issues are acknowledged in Tanzanian research (United Republic of Tanzania, 2001*a*) where, for example, it has been noted: 'There is a significant relationship between village level social capital, of which trust is a major determinant, and parental participation in school-related activities. Although parents retain a degree of confidence in the school committee and the head teacher, there is widespread mistrust of local government as a service provider. This stems from a perception that school fees and other obligatory payments are neither accounted for nor turned into better education. As long as local governments remain under-resourced, it will be a major challenge to turn this situation around' (Narayan, 1997).

Brazil has one the most decentralized fiscal systems of all developing countries (Crook and Sturla Sverrisson, 1999). It is also characterized by great diversity in its educational structures and systems that are managed by 26 states and 5,561 municipalities where the role of central government in primary and secondary education is mainly redistributive and supplementary (Guimaraes de Castro, 2002*a*). One expression of

It is hard to gauge the relationship between decentralization and learning outcomes.

these characteristics is the Fund for Primary Education Development and Maintenance and Enhancement of the Teaching Profession (Fundef). Global revenue for education is allocated between states and municipalities to ensure that there is a minimum level of investment for each student. Funds are set aside for states that cannot meet this commitment. To follow up on the availability and use of funds at the community level, committees have been established. Each government (state or municipal) is required to present a monthly report showing how funds have been used. The new Brazilian government plans to strengthen these mechanisms (Lodi, 2003).

The Lao People's Democratic Republic has made significant progress in expanding educational opportunities after long periods of colonialism, conflict and economic crisis (Seel, 2003). Mass organizations such as the women's and youth unions have traditionally played an important part in community-level development. However recent restructuring and plans for decentralization aim to bring programme implementation to district and village level, and planning and budgeting to the provinces, while the centre retains overall policy direction and monitoring responsibilities. There is an increasing focus on learning outcomes as distinct from educational inputs. School development is being discussed in terms of being responsive to learning needs, with attention to the monitoring of learning and of community participation in schools. The local recruitment of ethnic minority teachers is also being explored.

Developing a balance sheet

This set of examples points primarily to work in progress, but a number of trends can be detected. These include:

- a new balance between the authority and responsibility vested in different levels of government – in federal as well as unitary states;
- new responsibilities for schools, parents and communities;
- greater devolution of financial authority and personnel management;
- some evidence of local – school and district – planning.

These are primarily shifts in the locus of management responsibility. There is much less evidence of the decentralization of the processes that define and monitor teaching and learning activities. There is even less evidence of decentralization developing as the result of local pressure rather than through centrally determined political decisions. It is also difficult to gauge the relationship between decentralization and learning outcomes, even though this is the real test.

There are circumstances in which decentralization can increase disparities. For example, in Burkina Faso, Mali and Senegal,

Box 5.13. School committee responsibilities in the United Republic of Tanzania

- Sensitize and involve all pupils, parents and school staff in respect of the roles they can play in maximizing the benefits of primary school.
- Oversee the day-to-day affairs of the school.
- Work together with the head teacher and other teachers to prepare a Whole School Development Plan.
- Approve Whole School Development Plans and budgets and submit them to the *mtaa* (committee in urban areas) or village council and subsequently to the ward development committee and eventually to the local government authorities for scrutiny, co-ordination and consolidation, and submission to the Regional Secretariat.
- Facilitate planning, budgeting and implementation of Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP) activities
- Open bank accounts and to efficiently and effectively manage funds ... while guaranteeing maximum accountability and transparency ... including making incomes and expenditures publicly available.
- Ensure safe custody of property acquired
- Prepare and submit accurate and timely progress and financial reports to the village council, *mtaa* committee and local government authority.
- Communicate educational information to all parents, pupils, community stakeholders, etc.

Source: United Republic of Tanzania (2001*b*).

where increased levels of authority have been given to communities and NGOs, tensions have been evident between public and non-governmental schools, including different and uneven interpretations of what should be taught (Charlier and Pierrard, 2001).

Other challenges associated with the effective implementation of decentralization are highlighted in Box 5.14.

Industrialized countries – towards greater flexibility?

For education systems in industrialized countries, decentralization 'has variously meant devolving power to the regions, the regional outposts of central government (deconcentration), the local authorities, the social partners and the institutions themselves' (Green, 1999). As a result, a variety of governance models exist in practice. In some countries, for example France and Japan, most power lies at the centre. In Germany and Switzerland regional control is strongest, while the Nordic countries are known for their emphasis on local control. In the United Kingdom and the Netherlands substantial power has been devolved to schools themselves, as well as to the educational marketplace (Green, 1999).

Notwithstanding these differences, industrialized countries share a common interest in innovation for the better governance of education. In 1996, OECD education ministers expressed concern at the ability of their education systems to adapt quickly. They called for more flexible frameworks (OECD, 1996). In 2001, they noted the increasing diversity of learners' needs and the importance of maintaining cultural diversity while improving quality. Strengthening the connections between schools and their communities was seen as an important strategy (OECD, 2001*b*).

The rapidly changing environment of schools is invariably mentioned as the main driver of governance innovation. Systems built on the need to prepare people for repetitive, obedient work and to shape national identity (Barber, 2003) are being replaced by education that is responsive to fast-changing technologies and markets, that not only call for different learning outcomes (problem-solving, networking, communication and learning skills, flexibility, mobility) but also for changes in the organization of the learning process (Carnoy and Castells, 1996). Schools need more autonomy in order to be more responsive to the changing needs of the workplace, the increasing heterogeneity of student populations and the growing complexity of the learning market (Halasz, 2003).

Decentralization is not seen as merely the unconditional delegation of authority to the school level. Even in countries where school autonomy is greatest, there are mechanisms designed to link school improvement with systemic improvement, while rigorous procedures are put in place to ensure accountability. The former Swedish education minister, Ylva Johansson (2000), suggests that 'experimentation should be fostered within the broad frameworks of national goals, with imaginative solutions devised for the real challenges being confronted on the ground. Evaluation and feedback are critical. Some 'failures' are inevitable and must be accepted in

Box 5.14. Impediments to decentralization

- emptiness of ownership: token or ritual planning exercises at local levels which have no financial or political reality
- poor central management of the liquidity of funds scheduled for local use
- paucity of real resources at a local level, resulting in disillusion
- complex procedures transferred to local levels with even less chance of their effective implementation
- threat and reality of corruption: discretionary power over scarce resources allied to weak systems of accountability
- decentralization limited to external agency projects or a condition of agency support; support for particular communities may weaken relationship between communities and local government
- limited management capacities; poor communication and information systems
- unequal representation in school and local authorities; gender and ethnic imbalance
- backlash from educational professionals; a perceived and/or real loss of authority
- government subsidies to local government may not be used for service provision, so the costs of new local structures may eat into local education budgets

Sources: Charlier and Pierrard (2001); Hallak and Poisson (2001); Romeo (2003); Prud'homme (2003).

Networks may offer a better way of exchanging knowledge about what works for schools.

order to encourage risk-taking; valuable lessons can be learned from them as well as from the successes. These practices should not remain isolated examples, but be disseminated so that they can enjoy a much broader impact'.

The United Kingdom, for example, applies the principle of intervention in inverse proportion to success. Initially, schools are granted a large amount of freedom and power. But there are national standards.[18] Schools that do well retain this amount of autonomy. Schools that do particularly well receive even greater autonomy, can be financially rewarded and will serve as examples for other schools. Those schools that perform poorly may loose autonomy and eventually risk direct intervention from central government, a 'takeover' by the private sector or closure. But schools are not left on their own. A well-defined framework is put in place for the early identification of poor performance by means of regular assessments and inspection. Inspection results are disclosed publicly, both to generate the pressure to improve and, in theory, to help schools to identify other schools from which they can learn. The creation of a National College for School Leadership is one of various measures to strengthen schools so that they are able to respond to this challenging framework (Barber, 2003).

In Hungary, involvement of the private sector and the application of business models (benchmarking, quality management) are important in school improvement strategy. The rapid transition from central control to community-owned schools has highlighted the importance of school heads and teachers having the ability to fulfil their new roles. Schools are assisted by consultants from various sectors in defining their goals, in partnership with the local community. Schools are also supported in their development into learning organizations, implementing 'Total Quality Management' and disseminating the best of their experience throughout the education system (Halasz, 2003; Hirsch, 2003).

The Netherlands introduced 'freedom of education' in 1917: parents and civil society organizations were given the right to establish schools according to preference and receive public funding if a minimum set of general conditions were met. This tradition has caused a deeply rooted belief that 'it is not the government's job to intervene at (school) level' (Netherlands, 2003*b*). In this culture, the school itself is the primary actor in the system of quality assurance and accountability. 'Self-evaluation' by the school is the core instrument. The school inspector assumes the role of 'critical friend'; on the one hand, he/she assesses the performance of a school with, as in the United Kingdom, the closure of the school as ultimate sanction in case of lasting under-performance. On the other hand, the inspector seeks to prevent this from happening by supporting the school in its process of improvement. As in Hungary and the United Kingdom, publicly disclosed performance data play an important role (Netherlands, 2001).

Networks of schools and teachers are important vehicles for the exchange of good practice and for professional development. In Portugal, the proliferation of such networks is one of the core strategies in the government's policy of decentralization. In order to ensure the dissemination of successful innovations and a professional consultation among schools and among teachers, Portugal has initiated the 'Good Hope Programme':[19] a government-funded scheme to establish links between schools (Céu Roldao, 2003).

More classic, centrally-driven reform policies may be insufficiently informed by the body of knowledge about school effectiveness (Hargreaves et al., 1998), and therefore inadequately tailored to local contingencies. As a result, they have generally failed to improve student achievement (Hopkins and Levin, 2000). Networks may offer a more influential way of exchanging knowledge about what works for schools. This is important in highly decentralized systems, where channels for top-down dissemination of knowledge may be absent in the first place.

Making primary education affordable

It is very expensive to be poor (Maarifa Ni Ufungo, 2001). One clear manifestation of this truth is that poverty is a major barrier to schooling and to many other types of educational opportunity. As a result, the right to education, and the huge demand that it generates, cannot be satisfied.

18. www.standards.dfes.gov.uk

19. Apart from the Portugese Programa Boa Esperança, Boas Práticas (www.iie.min-edu.pt/proj/boa-esperanca/index.htm), there are many other schools networks, e.g.

Improving the Quality of Education for All (IQEA) project (www.nottingham.ac.uk/education);

Bertelsmann Foundation's Network of Innovative Schools, Germany (www.inis.stiftung.bertelsmann.de/set.htm);

Accelerated Schools Project, United States (www.acceleratedschools. net/);

Network of Agenda 21 Schools, Germany (nibis.ni.schule.de/agenda/projekt.htm);

Network of Core Knowledge Schools, United States (www.coreknowledge.org).

Networks with individuals (teachers, teacher trainers) as members include:

European Observatory on Innovation in Education and Training (www.inrp.fr);

International Network of Innovative School Systems, Germany;

The Learning Consortium, Ontario, Canada (fcis.oise.utoronto.ca/~learning).

Parents and guardians are unable to pay the direct fees and charges which allow their children to attend school, as well as meet the indirect costs that often have significant implications for being able to sustain even the most basic of livelihoods.

These realities are better understood now than fifteen years ago when cost-sharing was advanced as a means to lessen the burden of cash-strapped governments and to generate community ownership of schools. Indeed, it is the application of cost-sharing and cost-recovery strategies and the detrimental effects of structural adjustment during the 1980s and early 1990s that held down enrolment levels. Nevertheless, now, in terms of legal obligations, a majority of countries have a commitment to provide free primary education.

Hard choices for households

Chapter 3 of this report documents the fact that the hard decisions taken at household level are often differentiated by gender and that fees and charges affect girls' chances of learning more than those of boys.

In many countries, fees and charges are more complex than is obvious at first sight. An example from the United Republic of Tanzania in 2000 illustrates the point (Table 5.8). A family in the Kilimanjaro District is required to pay a minimum of ten school charges. The total of these charges then has to be multiplied by the number of children in the family and by the number of years that each child attends school. These direct costs have to be found from an income which varies seasonally, is uncertain annually and in some cases is less than the total cost of school charges shown in Table 5.8. One estimate (Global Campaign for Education, 2003*a*) for the whole country suggests that, prior to the removal of school fees in 2001, it cost about half the annual income of poor rural families to send one child to primary school for one year.

A recent six-country study (Boyle et al., 2002) of Bangladesh, Kenya, Nepal, Sri Lanka, Uganda and Zambia sets the difficult household decisions regarding school fees in a wider context. The study concludes that both for the poorest and for the better-off groups, the costs of education are the predominant reason given for children in the household *never* having attended school. This finding is even stronger for children who have *dropped out* of school and is more pronounced in urban areas where fees are higher and there is less flexibility in payment requirements than in some rural schools. However, although direct charges are critical to preventing full and sustained access to school among the poorest communities, a wide range of other socio-cultural factors are significant. Four points receive particular attention in the study:

- Even the poorest households make judgements about the quality and relevance of schooling and make sacrifices for what they perceive to be education of good quality.
- Gendered decision-making characterizes the trade-offs on schooling for different children. Girls are likely to suffer most.
- Demand for schooling is vulnerable to economic and natural shocks. HIV/AIDS and poor health in general are significant factors.
- Violence and sexual harassment in schools is more pervasive than is often accepted.

Even the poorest households make judgements about the quality and relevance of schooling.

Table 5.9 summarizes the reasons for *leaving* school, as distinct from attending, in four of the six countries. This reconfirms that money is the primary constraint. Unfortunately these data are not disaggregated by gender.

So, while people do make important judgements about affordability, they do so in the framework of a complex set of other factors which also influence their decisions. This being so, government policies on direct charges and costs which are insensitive to the complexity of household decision-making – let alone the impact of supply-side policies – are likely to fall short of their objectives.

Difficult choices for governments

In this context, it is instructive to look at recent developments in sub-Saharan Africa, in a group of five countries that have introduced free primary education over a period of eleven years since 1994 (Table 5.10).

In sub-Saharan Africa, making education more affordable and accessible has been a major talking point in most recent political campaigns, manifestos and elections. This is understandable for a number of reasons. The right to education is better understood. It remains a source of hope and opportunity for people who live with poverty, and most governments recognize that investment

Table 5.8. Costs of primary schooling in Tanzania

School charges	Amount per child (Tanzanian shillings)	Total annual costs for four children
Tuition fees	2000	8000
Other (including uniform and equipment)	7950	31800
Games fees	1000	4000
School repairs	1000	4000
School guards	500	2000
Bookkeeping	800	3200
Food	1000	4000
Cook	500	2000
Teacher Resource Centre	200	800
Examinations	2000	2000
Totals	16950	61800

Note : These data are for one family in the Kilimanjaro District of the United Republic of Tanzania, drawn from a survey conducted in 2000 – before the government announced 'free' primary education in 2001. There were nine members in the household, seven of whom were children, four in school. The family could afford one meal a day. Both parents valued education, the wife completing Standard 7 at school.

Source : Maarifa Ni Ufungo (2001).

in education is significant for national economic and social reforms. In Malawi, free primary education was a rallying call for the United Democratic Front prior to the 1994 election, while more recently, in Kenya in 2002, it was a major campaign pledge by the future president, Mwai Kibaki. In four out of the five cases, free primary education was announced following the election of a new government. As Table 5.10 demonstrates, the political announcements were followed by dramatic short-term responses in terms of primary-school enrolment. In Nairobi, early in 2003, many schools very rapidly experienced a doubling or more of numbers. Three primary schools near the slum areas of the capital registered increases of 1,400, 1,400 and 1,500 respectively (United Nations Office for the Co-ordination of Humanitarian Affairs, 2003). In Malawi, net enrolments prior to 1994 had been 58% for girls. This increased to 73% by 1996. In Zambia, in 2002, the first school year after the announcement of cost reduction measures, primary enrolments grew by 7% compared with 2% in the previous year.

As Table 5.10 shows, the actual interpretation of 'free' takes on different meanings in different countries. In none of the sample countries are households free of meeting some direct costs. For example, in the Kilimanjaro area of the United Republic of Tanzania, an NGO study early in 2003 (Maarifa Ni Ufungo, 2003), one year after the abolition of tuition fees for 7–10-year-olds, found that the average total outlay by parents for one child was now in the range of 2,000–8,000 Tanzanian shillings compared with 7,600–10,600 shillings prior to 'free' primary. Total costs, including a calculation to cover indirect costs, suggested that the cost of keeping one child in school for one year was still nearly 13,000 Tanzanian shillings. The cost of uniform remained a burden but the stigma of sending a child to school without it remained strong. And the inability to pay for books remained a severe curb on regular attendance. Nevertheless, it appears that overall national enrolments in the United Republic of Tanzania have risen dramatically as a result of the abolition of tuition fees.

The sudden and dramatic response to the introduction of free primary education necessitated strong supply-side responses. All five governments increased the share of the national budget to education. Primary education has increased its share of the education budget to 55% or more (Table 5.10). However, in response to the vastly increased numbers of students, the unit expenditures per student typically fell substantially in the immediate aftermath of the abolition of fees.

Meanwhile, the total costs to government continue to rise. In Uganda (Uganda, 2003) it is projected that for the period 2002–15 there will be a 57.7% increase in the total number of primary-school pupils, more than double the number of teachers will be required, and non-salary expenditure will be pegged at close to 25%. The 2015 budget is estimated to be 3.5 times that of the base year.

Sustaining quality

Sustaining the provision of good quality education against this background will be difficult and it is clear from Table 5.10 that there is, and will remain, heavy dependence on external funding. In the short term, this is needed to help meet the intense pressures exerted on fragile systems by sudden increases in enrolment, but it will also be needed in the longer term as population growth and the shift to UPE and towards schooling of

Table 5.9. What is the main reason for leaving school? (%)

	Nepal	Bangladesh	Uganda	Zambia
Lack of money for school expenses	14.9	61.9	48.1	55.3
Did not want to continue	24.1	11.5	6.8	14.4
Difficulties with school work	–	3.5	0.8	–
Expelled	–	0.9	0.8	0.5
Earning money	13.8	2.7	0.8	–
Need to work at home	13.7	5.3	0.8	–
Illness	4.6	3.5	9.8	2.9
Marriage	8	–	7.5	1
Pregnancy	–	–	9.8	1.9
Death in the family	1.1	0.9	2.3	1
Failed a grade and would have to repeat	4.6	2.7	1.5	11.5
Too old to go to school	1.1	–	1.5	–
Completed schooling	5.7	–	4.5	3.4
Transfer	–	–	0.8	–
Withdrawal by parent/guardian Corporal punishment	3.4	–	0.8	–

Note: Columns do not add up to 100 owing to some reasons being non-specified.
Source: Boyle et al. (2002).

higher quality continue to require increased budgetary provision. Projections for four of the five countries show that a more than doubling of educational aid, in real terms, will be needed in order to sustain their move towards UPE over the years to 2015 (Colclough et al., 2003).

In all five countries, the announcement of free primary education has been seen as a defining moment in their educational history. But some difficult lessons are being learned, notably whether primary and then secondary schools can offer an education of sufficient quality to retain much larger numbers of students. In Malawi, the Malunga Commission was established by the government to assess why the education system was failing so many students, as reflected by the low level of performance in the Malawi School Leaving Certificate Examination for secondary students. It concluded that the lack of qualified secondary teachers was the root cause of the problem and that this could be traced back to the decision taken in 1994 to introduce free primary education (*Africanews*, 2003). While secondary schools had been opened quickly, in recognition of the impending increase in the number of primary-school leavers, this had not been matched by an increase in the number of qualified teachers. The Commission said that 12,000 secondary teachers were needed but that there were only 5,000 in the system, of which 1,600 were qualified.

In Uganda, there is little question that there has been significant progress in reaching out to all primary-school-age children. However, some NGOs suggest that between 13% and 18% of children may still not have access to primary education and/or attend alternative education centres (Murphy, 2003), while official net enrolment rates suggest that UPE has been achieved. However, attaining equitable and good quality education for all remains a difficult challenge.

Recent studies suggest significant levels of drop-out. Ugandan P1 enrolments in 1997 were as high as 2,159,850 but had fallen to 832,855 in P5 in 2001. A recent mid-term review of Uganda's Education Strategic Investment Plan indicates a 'drastic decrease in enrolment in the transition from P1 to P2 which might relate to

Table 5.10. Free primary education in five African countries

Country	Date of introduction	What does 'free' mean?	Enrolment	Government finance	External agencies
Kenya	January 2003	Free tuition and no school levies, but the costs of uniform and examinations remain.	*Out-of-school children* 2000 1.9 m *Total enrolment* 2002 6.0 m 2003 7.2 m *GER* 1990/91 91.90 2000 93.42 2001 94.00 (F 93.4) (2002 87.60) (2003 104.00) *NER* 2000 69.27	Prior to free primary, 29% of recurrent budget on education. Now 36% of budget (6% of GDP). 55% on primary. 93% on salaries.	2003 World Bank approved US$50 million and DFID US$21 million. Other agencies helping to bridge immediate gaps in advance of strategic plan.
Malawi	October 1994	Free tuition, books and stationery. Uniform not compulsory.	*Total enrolment* 1993/94 1.9 m 1994/95 3.2 m *GER* 1990/01 61.00 1996 138.00 1999/00 158.00 2000 135.28 *NER* 1992 77.00 1996 67.00 (2000 104.18)	Education 11% of government recurrent budget (1990/01) to 24% (1997) when 65% on primary education.	40% of the primary education budget at introduction of free primary education.
Uganda	January 1997	Free tuition for 6–12 year-olds. Costs remain for clothing, school food, some materials and school fund contributions.	*Total enrolment* 1996 2.7 m 2002 7.2 m *GER* 1990 61.30 1995 74.30 2000 128.91 (2001 135.80) *NER* 1990/91 47.70 (2000/1 109.50)	12% of government budget in 1992 to 25% in 1998. 70% of this on primary education.	Agencies cover over 50% of education budget.
United Rep. of Tanzania	October 2001	Free tuition for 7–10-year-olds first, later to be extended. No mandatory cash contribution. Uniforms not compulsory.	*Out-of-school children* 2000 3.62 m *GER* 1990/01 69.10 2000 63.18 (2002 100.40) *NER* 1990/01 49.80 2000 47.57 (2002 99.30)	Post free tuition, education receives 25% of the government budget of which 62% is for primary.	Agencies provide over 60% of the primary education budget, excluding direct budget support.
Zambia	February 2002	User fees abolished. Uniforms not compulsory. Fees can be levied by PTAs and boards but no student can be excluded because of cost.	*Out-of-school children* 2000 701,000 *GER* 2000 75.97 (2001 76.90) (2002 81.00) *NER* 2000 65.21 (2001 65.10) (2002 66.10)	13.2% of government budget in 1996 to 20.1% in 2002. 56% on basic education.	Agencies cover 27% of total education expenditure in 2000. Approximately 50% of basic education budget.

Sources: Riddell (2003) and a variety of national documents. Figures in parentheses are not found in the administrative data used in the Statistical annex of this report.

the fact that schooling is simply not affordable for those who do not earn a cash income' (Uganda, 2003).

At the level of policy, all five countries have recognized the many implications of reducing the cost of education to parents, reacting to the enrolment surge and improving (or at least sustaining) the quality of education. But the implementation of free primary education is complex and difficult, especially in relation to the training, professional development and support of teachers. In Malawi, in 1994, 19,000 untrained teachers were recruited, received a three-week orientation course, with in-service education provision scheduled to follow. However, neither Zambia nor Kenya deployed untrained teachers. Kenya is currently mapping its teacher requirements. In the United Republic of Tanzania, the government plans to recruit 45,000 new teachers in the period 2002–06, with a substantial increase in double-shift and multi-grade teaching.

These intentions and plans have to be set against the backdrop of HIV/AIDS and its impact on the teaching force. While there is some debate about the scale of prevalence of HIV/AIDS among teachers and future trends across sub-Saharan Africa (Bennell, 2003; Kelly, 2003), there is little question that teachers are seriously affected as a group. For example, it has been estimated that the average annual percentage of teachers who will die from AIDS in the period 2000–10 (assuming that teachers have the same infection rate as the general population) may be as high as 2.1% in Zimbabwe, 1.7% in Zambia, 1.4% in Kenya and 0.5% in Uganda (World Bank, 2002*g*).

Lessons are emerging from the experience of these five countries (Riddell, 2003). Enabling children to realize their right to a basic education is essential and the cost of that education should not be a barrier. The measures taken by the five governments have been important in breaking down some of those barriers. And they reflect a willingness to meet international obligations and commitments along with a clear acknowledgement of the macro-level benefits that accrue from primary education.

But others have argued that some of the detailed micro-level challenges of educational development have been overlooked, while a dependence on external funding agencies has accentuated concern for targets and performance indicators to the detriment of processes that recognize context, capacity and a realistic pace of change.

It is probably fair to say that Uganda has to date been the most successful of the five countries in the aftermath of the introduction of free primary education. Why is this so? In large measure, because of the types of policies and strategies identified in Box 5.15 which demonstrate the importance of a strong macro-planning framework allied to detailed strategies to address the complex education measures needed to achieve real UPE – a recurring theme in this chapter.

This is not to suggest that Uganda's problems are over. The recent mid-term review of ESIP 1 concluded that 'the primary focus and success to date has been ... increasing numbers of learners in primary school but ... the improvement of educational quality, the delivery of education services (including devolution of responsibilities to the District) and capacity development in strategic planning and programming have not been achieved according to ... original targets'. Nevertheless a framework for action is in place (Uganda, 2003).

So free primary education has had important benefits. The demand for education has been re-stimulated. More children are in school. Commitments are being sustained and new modalities of working with agencies are making some progress, although it seems clear that the enrolment impact of suspending school fees should have been better anticipated. Plans should have been in place and new resources identified. Nevertheless, the benefits are plain for children previously denied any educational opportunity at all.

Projections for four of the five countries show that educational aid will need to be more than doubled to sustain their move towards UPE by 2015.

Box 5.15. Policy and strategy in Uganda

1. The policy environment

- Vision 2025
- Poverty Eradication Action Plan
- Education Sector Investment Plan (ESIP 1 1998–2003)
- Political commitment reflected in sustained levels of financing for primary education
- 'Buy in' to UPE across government
- Increase in consistency and predictability of external funding base, including budget support
- Commitment to regular monitoring of performance and progress

2. Attention to Sector Objectives within ESIP 1 – areas of focus*

a. Access and equity

- expansion of facilities
- efficiency measures (better use of teachers)
- access to post-primary vocational skills programmes
- access to higher education

b. Quality improvements

- primary textbooks
- teacher training
- higher education

c. Delivery of educational services

- school and community
- district
- central government

d. Capacity development in strategic planning and programming

- ESIP management (i) implementation mechanism
- ESIP management (ii) capacity building
- government agency consultative mechanisms

* This part of the table draws on the management framework used in ESIP Reviews, e.g. the Final Report of the Mid-Term Review of the Education Strategic Investment Plan (ESIP) in Uganda, January 2002 (Uganda, 2003).

Source: Murphy (2003).

Fees and Poverty Reduction Strategies

In a review of twenty-five Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (Tomasevski, 2003) the significance of school fees is mentioned explicitly in fourteen PRSPs (Table 5.11). Burkina Faso and Yemen make particular reference to the fact that fees should not be charged for girls, while in Cambodia, Kyrgyzstan, Mozambique, Tajikistan and Viet Nam it is stated that the poor should not pay fees.

In the light of the evidence cited in this section (and in the section on 'Patterns of performance – what drives progress?') it is difficult to see how any PRSP can ignore the issue of the affordability of primary education and of the need to eliminate or significantly reduce the charges that households bear in sending children to school. But this is not uniformly the case, as Table 5.11 shows.

EFA in industrialized and transition countries

The *EFA Report* accords priority to those countries where the challenge of achieving EFA is greatest. This is in accordance with the *Dakar Framework for Action*, which recognizes the pressing challenges and needs of sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia, other countries among the international category of least developed countries, and those nations beset by conflict. The overall assessment of progress towards EFA in Chapter 2 confirms the validity of the Dakar diagnosis.

However, this is not to suggest that the *Dakar Framework for Action* excludes industrialized and transition countries from the need to attain EFA goals and to contribute to post-Dakar activities and processes within their own borders. As Chapter 2 demonstrates, the situation in some transition countries is not significantly better than that in some developing regions. Furthermore in industrialized countries no one would claim that current education provision meets the needs of all groups in society.

This section explores how the EFA challenge is understood in a sample of industrialized and transition countries and compares their policy agendas against the EFA goals.

Industrialized countries

The terminology of 'industrialized' and 'developing' countries has many conceptual weaknesses. But it is kept to here to distinguish those countries with high per capita incomes from the rest. Their education indicators at the macro level are well in advance of other groups in terms of enrolment at all levels of the formal system (Statistical annex, Tables 3–7) and of learning outcomes for young people and adults

(UNESCO Institute for Statistics/OECD, 2003*b*; OECD/Statistics Canada, 2000).

Very few industrialized countries set their own education policies in terms of Education for All, and only a small minority have produced an EFA plan. The latter include the Nordic countries (Denmark, 2003; Finland, 2002; Iceland, 2002; Norway, 2002; Sweden, 2002). In the United Kingdom, the National Commission for UNESCO has produced a report on the national and international implications of EFA (UK National Commission for UNESCO, 2003).

The Norwegian EFA Plan illustrates the way in which some industrialized countries have interpreted the *Dakar Framework for Action*. It develops an inventory of the challenge that the Dakar agenda represents in the Norwegian context. It concludes that while a distinctive set of EFA-related issues remains to be addressed in Norway, 'the Norwegian school system is of a high standard in international terms, and these unresolved problems are small in comparison with the challenges in the field of aid and development. Seen from a Norwegian perspective, international development work is therefore the most important focus of EFA' (Norway, 2002). Norway is typical of most industrialized countries that follow the agenda set in Dakar primarily through their development ministries and agencies rather than through their ministries of education.

The Nordic countries recognize that while they may have achieved UPE and gender parity in primary and secondary education, the other goals are less clearly defined and are 'based on a different logic and are more challenging and future-oriented' (Denmark, 2003). The Danish EFA plan pinpoints two major trends in education policy development: decentralization and internationalization. From the 1940s to the beginning of the 1970s, new policies were developed at the central level and implemented in a top-down manner. Thereafter, there was greater space for innovation at local level, which became the driving force for change. There is now what is described as a process of *governed co-operation*, whereby the role of government is to see that there is a continuous and ordered process of negotiation and improvement.

At the same time there has been a growing international dimension to education policy and reform. Denmark is a member of UNESCO, OECD, the European Union, the Council of Europe and the Nordic Council of Ministers. Each of these bodies is seen and used by the country 'as a background of theory, concepts and ideas for a never-ceasing debate on international issues' (Denmark, 2003).

Denmark, like other members of the European Union, participates in the *open method of co-ordination*, also known as the Lisbon process. This is an activity that selects indicators to compare the educational performance of member states and helps to identify good practice (see Box 5.4). Benchmarks serve to challenge and stimulate those with relatively poor performance. But the Danish EFA plan

Table 5.11. School fees and PRSPs

Region/Country	PRSP year	Are school fees mentioned?	Additional comment
Sub-Saharan Africa			
Benin	2003	No	
Burkina Faso	2000	Yes	Not for girls
Ethiopia	2002	No	
Ghana	2003	Yes	
Malawi	2002	Yes	
Mali	2003	Yes	
Mozambique	2001	Yes	Not for the poor
Niger	2002	No	
Rwanda	2001	Yes	Reducing private costs
Senegal	2002	No	
Uganda	2000	Yes	
United Rep. of Tanzania	2000	Yes	
Arab States			
Mauritania	2000	No	
Yemen	2002	Yes	Not for girls
Latin America and the Caribbean			
Bolivia	2001	No	
Guyana	2002	Yes	
Honduras	2001	No	
Nicaragua	2001	No	
Central Asia			
Azerbaijan	2003	No	
Kyrgyzstan	2003	Yes	Not for the poor
Tajikistan	2002	Yes	Not for the poor
East Asia			
Cambodia	2003	Yes	Not for the poor
Viet Nam	2002	Yes	Nor for the poor
Central and Eastern Europe			
Albania	2002	No	
South and West Asia			
Sri Lanka	2003	No	

Source: Tomasevski (2003).

continues to emphasise the responsibility of member states for the content and structure of their own national education systems (Denmark, 2003). The example of Denmark suggests national policy development being *driven* by a democratic process of decentralization and *inspired* by the international context. The *Dakar Framework for Action* is seen as one of the elements of this.

Those few countries that have developed an EFA document appear to have done so with the following objectives in mind:

- To improve the domestic education system by reviewing it along the lines of the Dakar goals. In this light, the Nordic countries have exchanged their EFA plans and produced a synthesis document (Nordic Council, 2003). The UK National Commission for UNESCO has organized six national conferences, one for each of the goals. Baltic Sea countries (and observers from the United Kingdom and Belarus) met in Riga in January 2002 (UNESCO 2002*a*, Box 5.1).

- To be accountable to the world community for the commitment to meet the Dakar goals, again regarding the domestic education system (Nordic EFA plans).

- To enhance understanding and awareness of the challenges facing the global community, especially less-developed countries (UK National Commission for UNESCO).

- To identify ways in which poor and rich countries can learn from one another's experience. The report of the UK National Commission for UNESCO identifies the 'commonalities and contrasts' between developing countries and the United Kingdom for each of the Dakar goals.

It follows that the Nordic and British documents are not action plans. They serve the objectives of review, accountability, awareness-raising and mutual learning, but they do not contain new, financially underpinned commitments to specific short-term action. The United Kingdom National Commission for UNESCO's report, moreover, is not an official government statement but a public initiative.

Fighting polarization and exclusion

In the examination of their own national circumstances, the emphasis in the Nordic and British documents is, in the words of the Norwegian plan, on 'approaches to problems associated with, amongst others, the mentally/physically disabled, minority groups and people with reduced literacy levels' (Norway, 2002). While the Nordic countries have well-developed and well-resourced education systems in which a majority reach very high levels of competence (OECD/Statistics Canada, 2000), and while educational achievement in the United Kingdom has improved markedly in recent years, there are serious concerns in all these countries for those who do not yet benefit fully from the learning opportunities on offer.

More broadly, the American *No Child Left Behind* policy and the European Union benchmarks regarding school drop-out and basic skills reflect the same concerns for those at risk of exclusion, as shown earlier in this chapter. The Finnish EFA document captures this: 'Civilization belongs to all. A genuine information society is within the reach of every citizen. Development must not lead to polarization and exclusion' (Finland, 2002). In the United Kingdom, increased competitiveness between schools is seen as giving rise to tensions between performance and inclusion. There is also a worry that 'the 3Rs (reading, writing, arithmetic) may squeeze out creative subjects, that examinable subjects will displace other parts of the curriculum, and that the child's personal development may be sacrificed to the goal of acquiring information' (UK National Commission for UNESCO, 2003).

In this light, ECCE (the first of the Dakar goals) is regarded as playing 'an important part in levelling out social and learning disparities', as the Finnish plan puts it (Finland, 2002). Yet, enrolment disparities persist. In Norway, 63% of all children between the ages of 3 and 5 are enrolled, but among minorities the figure is 30%. In the United Kingdom, ECCE has recently been an area of massive expansion with an initial focus on the urban poor. In 2004 there will be free nursery education for all children from age 3.

The second goal, UPE, has generally been achieved in all countries. But truancy and drop-out do occur and there is a particular challenge in reaching refugees, asylum seekers and travelling populations.

The language of instruction is becoming an issue. The Finnish and Swedish documents indicate that minority children have the right to be taught in their original language, and in Finnish or Swedish as a second language (Finland, 2002; Sweden, 2002). Some other industrialized countries see a dilemma: if education fully respects the languages and cultures of ethnic minorities, this can, in principle, hinder the integration of the children into their home societies in the long term.

Free education is also a point of discussion among industrialized countries. In the Nordic countries, this adage is generally understood literally. There are little or no costs involved in schooling, transportation and school meals. A more demanding interpretation is that free education can be regarded as being achieved when a country's social and income policy (child benefits, student support, social security, minimum wages) is such that any family is guaranteed to be able to afford the costs involved with schooling. This is a medium-term objective in all the countries.

Bridges towards a job

Goals 3 and 4, meeting the learning needs of young people and adults, represent a special challenge to industrialized countries. On the one hand, there is a tendency towards universal upper secondary education (see Box 5.4), while more than half of the age cohort pursues tertiary education. On the other hand, if an individual does not complete upper secondary education in a country where almost everybody else does, this becomes a strong disadvantage in a comparative sense. Where such disadvantages are concentrated in specific groups, they affect the social fabric. Furthermore, this overall rise of educational attainment encourages people to maximize their stay in education, in order not to fall behind in the increasingly competitive labour market. Thus, young people tend to prefer theoretical pathways that qualify them for further study, rather than vocational ones. This trend poses problems for individuals who have a more practical learning style and are weaker in cognitive learning (OECD, 2000).

In all industrialized countries there is a group of people for whom the regular education system does not provide the opportunities that fit their learning styles and needs. The International Adult Literacy Study (OECD/Statistics Canada, 2000) suggests that this group ranges from 10%–20% of the population in most industrialized countries. This represents an important message for all countries aiming to reach and serve the 'last 10%–20%' of their populations.

Innovative policies are needed to address this group. Sweden, the United Kingdom and other countries are experimenting with Individual Learning Accounts. These ensure the right to learn regardless of age, time, place and provider, and encourage the learner to save for this purpose. Earlier, the United Kingdom pioneered the development of National Vocational Qualifications and Accreditation of Prior Learning. The former aim at making vocational pathways more transparent, flexible and hence more attractive. The latter policy allows individuals to make better use of the competencies they have acquired informally in the workplace or in daily life. Guidance and counselling – in relation to both education and the labour market – are crucial to this policy. Lifelong learning strategies are increasingly harmonized at EU level (Colardyn, 2002).

Learning at work also takes place in apprenticeship systems. Several European countries have retained these, while the United Kingdom and Sweden have (re)introduced them (OECD, 2000). The innovative Production Schools in Denmark (Denmark, 2003) and the Study and Working Life Centres in Sweden (OECD, 1999) bring workplace learning into the school itself. The Norwegian Competence Reform is a framework that encompasses a number of the policies just mentioned. It also implies the right of any individual to complete upper secondary education and thus to acquire access to tertiary education.

Half a century of gender parity does not necessarily result in gender equality.

Segregated workplaces

In relation to Dakar Goal 5, an important message is conveyed by the Nordic and British documents: half a century of gender parity does not necessarily result in gender equality. The Finnish document, for example, states that the 'last restrictions on women's university studies were removed in the early 1900s, and already in the 1950s about half of university student were women' (Finland, 2002). Today more women than men attend higher education in the whole OECD area (OECD, 2001*a*; OECD-DAC, 2003). In fact, the learning achievement of girls is markedly better than that of boys, as all the documents underline,

while the British document even speaks of a 'crisis in male identity' (UK National Commission for UNESCO, 2003).

But at the same time, strong disparities persist in the *choices* that women and men make when enrolling in higher education and, earlier, when deciding which subjects and pathways to follow in secondary education (see Chapter 2). As a result, women tend to have less favourable career prospects than men. The Norwegian document states that the country has 'one of the most gender segregated workplaces in the whole of the OECD' (Norway, 2002). In the education sectors of Nordic countries, around 70% of workers in the lower ranks are female. At higher levels of education and among education managers this proportion is much lower. The policy responses of the countries include a campaign to recruit more male candidates for teacher training, a network for men working in schools and in teacher training (Norway), and gender-sensitive reviews of curriculum and content in Sweden and Iceland. One of the EU targets for 2015 is to raise the number of graduates in mathematics, science and technology, mainly by making these studies more attractive to young women.

In the education sectors of Nordic countries, around 70% of workers in the lower ranks are female.

Patterns of achievement

A strong commitment to the quality of education (EFA Goal 6) is illustrated by the exceptionally high levels of expenditure on education (as a percentage of GDP) in Denmark, Norway, Iceland and Sweden. More moderate levels are found in Finland and the United Kingdom, while in all these countries the share of private contributions to education is relatively small (OECD, 2001*a*).

In recent surveys that measure learning achievement (UNESCO Institute for Statistics/OECD, 2003*b*; Mullis et al., 2003), Finland and Sweden tend to perform very well, the United Kingdom being a runner-up. Norway and Denmark seem to lag behind, despite their high levels of expenditure. However, when measuring the competences of adults, the performance of Denmark and Norway is as excellent as that of Sweden and Finland (OECD/Statistics Canada, 2000). One explanation is that young people in Norway and Denmark 'catch up' thanks to the generous provision of learning opportunities for adults. Another is that the pedagogies aim at laying the foundation for a life of learning, rather than at the mastery of subject matter at an early age. In either case, the examples of Denmark and Norway question the adequacy of assessments during school age.

Nevertheless, *disparities* in educational achievement appear to persist. Norway addresses these in a broad and coherent approach, consisting of a scheme of grants to encourage, reward and highlight good practice within schools; a 'Quality Portal' to help schools in more systematic analysis of data about education quality; and local trial projects to stimulate schools to benefit more from deregulation and decentralization. The major efforts that the United States and the United Kingdom undertake in this respect have been discussed earlier in this chapter.

Transition countries – combating decline

The term 'transition country' applies to countries moving from planned to market economies, in Europe and in Asia. In education they are broadly characterized by the need to combat the tendency to decline. Primary NERs fell between 1990 and 2000 by a few percentage points in Estonia, Georgia, Hungary, Mongolia and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, and they fell quite sharply in Kyrgyzstan, Serbia and Montenegro and Slovenia (Statistical annex, Table 5). In the Republic of Moldova and Azerbaijan, primary GERs declined markedly. Pre-primary education seems even more vulnerable to crisis: GER declined between 1990 and 2000 by more than 10 percentage points in Albania, Bulgaria and Hungary, while it collapsed from 72.7 to 34.9 in the Republic of Moldova (Statistical annex, Table 3).

In Europe, the transition countries have a rich pedagogical tradition. Most have attained and maintained high levels of learning achievement. In a recent survey (Mullis et al., 2003), the rankings of the transition countries are generally as good as those of the industrialized world. However, as a result of rapid political, social and economic change, the level and quality of the financial, human and material resources available to basic education have declined.

In the Russian Federation, for example, the large-scale political and economic transformation that started in 1990 has had a

strong impact on many aspects of life. Making a new society and a new economy based on the principles of democracy, federalism, the market and a respect for human rights, while sustaining a decent standard of life for all, has presented a major challenge. One aspect of this has been to try and counteract many new risks confronting young people – especially those faced with neglect, orphanhood, drug addiction and violence (Russian Federation, 2003).

The modernization of Russian education is driven in part by a long-term vision of a post-industrial information society that will allow the country to compete in a globalized economy. Aware that there is a long way to go, Russia has set its planning horizon at 2025, with intermediate targets every five years. The Dakar goals are part of this long-term vision but so too is higher education, where reform is underway. The role of private providers will be regulated and student support schemes will enhance access and equity. Another priority is to make vocational education more flexible. The regions in the north, where extreme natural circumstances make provision difficult and costly, and the Chechen Republic, where conflict disrupts the continuity of education, are scheduled to receive special attention.

Decline is also threatening the Moldovan education system. As a result of the crisis in pre-primary education, only 20% of 1–5-year-olds now have access to kindergartens, exclusion being particularly severe in rural areas. Pre-school is mandatory at ages 5 to 6, but even at this age only 60% attend. In primary education, the number of out-of-school children has risen sharply, especially 'in rural areas, where poor families cannot even cover all the expenses needed for clothes, footwear, food, school supplies and textbooks', according to the Moldovan EFA plan (Republic of Moldova, 2003). Insufficient or non-existent transport facilities and lack of heating in schools often makes going to school, or staying there, physically impossible, especially in winter when schools may even close. An ageing teaching workforce and a deteriorating material infrastructure complete this dark picture of an education system where primary GER fell from 93.1 to 83.8 between 1990 and 2000.

In the midst of this period of decline, the country ensured the constitutional right to free, compulsory education (Republic of Moldova, 1994). In the EFA plan, education is seen as a *priority branch of production*, both as an occupational area in itself and as an area for advantageous investment. A *market economy based on private and public property, free initiative and competition* is seen as the context for this new education system. Stress is placed on national and universal values and a determination to depoliticize education, avoid excessive centralism and lessen levels of paramilitary training. A national EFA conference in 2001 resulted in the creation of the National EFA Forum and the development of an EFA plan which has three main priorities: good quality early childhood care and education; access to good quality formal basic education, with a focus on children in very difficult circumstances; and appropriate non-formal education and learning opportunities.

A global agenda

Based on the above, the following observations can be made regarding the commonalities – concerning EFA – between developing, transition and industrialized countries.

A century after the introduction of compulsory education, industrialized countries have not yet achieved high quality for all. The specific learning needs of roughly 10%–20% of the population are not adequately met, even if most of these people attended school. In some countries, half a century of gender parity has not resulted in gender equality. The experience of the transition countries suggests that even the universal provision of primary education – regardless of quality – is a fragile achievement and is not resistant to socio-economic crisis.

In some industrialized countries, the concept of education as a national service that is distributed in a more or less uniform way throughout the country is losing its credibility. Decentralization, in order for schools to be more responsive to a diversity of demand at a local level, is an important issue (Istance and Kobayashi, 2003). Developing countries, in their turn, face the challenge of achieving universal access to education within a relatively short time-frame. The pressure to quickly complete this large-scale 'roll-out' operation may make it difficult to do justice to the diversity of learning needs that industrialized countries are still struggling with.

The pressure to quickly complete this large-scale 'roll-out' operation may make it difficult to do justice to the diversity of learning needs that industrialized countries are still struggling with.

There is a temptation for developing countries to *first* accomplish the expansion of capacity and *then* address the more specific needs of certain groups and communities.

The experience of northern countries suggests that this is to be avoided. Having developed their education systems in response to industrialization and the emergence of the nation-state (Barber, 2003), countries in the north now find themselves 'concerned about the education system's capacity to change quickly, at a time when many factors are combining to influence the shape of tomorrow's schools. ...This means rethinking the way in which much education is currently organized, with the objective of ... making it more accessible to ... adults returning to learn, the disadvantaged and those with disabilities' (OECD, 1996*b*). *Bold experimentation* is said to be needed, 'in order to arrive at imaginative solutions devised for the real challenges being confronted on the ground' (Johansson, 2000).

Focus on groups at risk of exclusion is an important feature of policy in industrialized, transition and developing countries.

Thus, the quality of education, with a focus on groups at risk of exclusion, appears to be an important feature of policy in of industrialized, transition and developing countries. Decentralization can be instrumental for schools in trying to respond to a diversity of needs but, as shown earlier in this chapter, many countries are wrestling with it and seeking to prevent harmful side effects. This points to the importance of strengthening school management.

Teachers, too, are high on the global agenda (UNESCO/ILO, 2002). Many developing countries need to ensure the 'supply' of sufficient numbers of teachers during a phase of rapid expansion – sometimes impeded by HIV/AIDS – while transition and industrialized countries are faced with ageing teaching workforces and a low level of interest among young people in entering the profession. In all countries, solutions that predominantly address the quantitative aspect of the problem will have repercussions on the quality of teachers. This is all the more important as teachers are critical to the innovation of education and the improvement of learning achievement among low-performing groups (OECD, 2001*b*).

There are also discrepancies between the various policy agendas. While UPE is one of the core goals for developing countries, universal upper secondary education is clearly the next frontier for industrialized countries. Higher education is seen as crucial for countries to become and remain competitive in the global knowledge economy. The expansion of higher education raises searching questions of affordability, privatization and equity in the North, while the South is still wrestling with more basic education priorities. The two come together, however, around the issue of global trade in higher education services.

Vocational education is important in all regions but not always for the same reasons. For developing countries, strengthening vocational education may help to better reap the benefits of educational expansion. For industrialized and transition countries, the challenge seems rather to raise the esteem of this sector that is so often regarded as second rate in comparison with theoretical pathways into university.

Lifelong learning, too, has different connotations. For developing countries, the emphasis is on meeting the learning needs of youth and adults, partly to compensate for a lack of good initial schooling. Industrialized countries tend to adopt a 'cradle-to-grave' interpretation (OECD, 1996*a*) in which all initial learning from early childhood on aims at building the motivation and skills needed for a life of recurrent learning in multiple settings. Although this vision is in essence equally relevant to developing countries, their

immediate policy priorities tend to be to provide as many people as possible with at least some basic skills.

Among all commonalities and discrepancies between policy agendas, one thing seems absolutely unique for transition countries. They face a double challenge. On the one hand they need to restore and ensure the continuity of the purely operational functioning of the education system. This is a matter of training teachers, printing textbooks and repairing school buildings, not unlike the situation in many developing countries. On the other hand, and at the same time, transition countries are pressed by the forces of globalization to quickly regain lost ground – in an economic sense – vis-à-vis the industrialized countries. In today's world, this can no longer be accomplished by a strategy of low-skilled and low-cost labour, as the Russian and Moldovan EFA plans underline. Fortunately, there still is an impressive intellectual, pedagogical and technological heritage that can support transition countries in their double challenge. But there is a risk of 'lost generations', and this heritage seems to be in danger.

Most industrialized and transition countries have achieved the goals of UPE and gender parity, but they have not achieved gender equality and the other goals. There is clearly a case for 'mutual learning' between countries of the South and the North.



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Returning refugees, Sierra Leone, 2002.



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Class in a bombed building in Angola, 1997.

Chapter 6

Meeting our international commitments

The *EFA Report 2002* concluded that progress in translating the international commitments made in Dakar into real resources, directed to priority ends, and turning the language of co-ordination into practice, remained limited and uneven. It suggested that the separate mandates and agendas of individual organizations continued to be more influential than a strong coalition working towards a shared objective. This chapter examines whether there are signs of improved performance in levels of aid flows to basic education, the extent to which international programmes such as the Fast-Track Initiative are making a difference, and the impact of post-Dakar co-ordination mechanisms on political commitment and resource mobilization.

EFA is variously conceived as a right, a vision, a movement or a process, as well as a framework for action.

As this report shows, EFA is variously conceived as a right, a vision, a movement or a process, as well as a framework for action. Given this spectrum of interpretation, the international events that have been responsible for defining and promulgating EFA (Chabbott, 2003) have given rise to a number of strategies, plans, forums, groups, initiatives and research.

For those charged with sustaining international momentum and improving co-ordination for EFA, this diversity is a potential strength, especially if it can be harnessed to support national and international policies in flexible ways. However, if, as is sometimes the case, the challenge is to bring together competing interests, the challenge of co-ordinating partners for effective EFA outcomes becomes more complex. It requires the ability to identify processes that will command strong public support, utilize sound technical solutions and implement approaches that match the scale of the challenge – the lives of hundreds of millions of people. As the president of the World Bank has noted, '...we are no longer talking about policy or arguing about framework, it is the moment for implementation' (UNESCO, 2003*c*).

With this message as the touchstone, three main topics receive attention. The analysis of **aid flows** to education has been updated to allow comparison between 1998–99 and 2000–01 data. The interpretation of these flows is supported by a brief survey of the education policies of a set of bilateral funding agencies.

EFA is the subject of a variety of **international initiatives**, some of which have evolved in significant ways over the last year, most notably the Fast-Track Initiative (FTI). This forms the second part of the chapter. Finally, progress in improving **international co-ordination** as an essential component of the global effort to achieve the EFA goals is re-assessed, particularly, but not exclusively, with regard to UNESCO's mandated role. The gender dimensions of the three strands are examined where the data makes this both possible and appropriate.

Table 6.1. Total Official Development Assistance (ODA), net disbursements, US$ billions (1990–2001)

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Current prices												
Total	52.0	59.2	60.4	55.6	59.9	59.1	55.8	47.9	50.2	52.2	49.6	50.8
Bilateral	38.7	43.2	43.1	39.4	41.3	40.6	39.1	32.4	35.2	37.9	36.0	35.0
Multilateral	13.3	15.9	17.2	16.3	18.6	18.5	16.7	15.4	15.0	14.3	13.5	15.7
Constant 2000 prices												
Total	55.1	60.6	57.6	54.1	55.8	49.8	48.8	44.8	48.6	49.8	49.6	52.4
Bilateral	41.1	44.6	41.4	38.3	38.6	34.4	34.5	30.6	34.6	36.5	36.0	36.2
Total multilateral	14.0	16.1	16.3	15.8	17.2	15.5	14.2	14.2	13.9	13.3	13.5	16.2
European Commission (EC)	2.5	3.2	3.6	3.5	4.0	3.6	4.1	4.4	4.3	4.3	4.4	5.5
IDA (World Bank)	4.2	4.5	4.7	4.4	5.3	0.4	5.1	5.0	4.7	4.3	4.2	5.1
Inter-American Development Bank	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	4.2	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3
UNDP	1.0	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.5	0.2	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.3
UNICEF	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6
African Development Fund	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.4
Asian Development Fund	1.2	1.1	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.8
Other*	3.7	5.0	4.9	4.7	4.9	4.8	2.1	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.6	3.0

Notes: Figures are rounded.
Official Development Assistance comprises grants or concessional loans to developing countries.
Net disbursements are defined as total disbursements less any repayments of loan principal during the same period.
The DAC deflators used to calculate constant prices adjust for inflation in the domestic currency and for changes in the exchange rate between the domestic currency and the US dollar. The currency effect tends to dominate for the period 1992–99 and in 2001.
* Other includes other United Nations agencies, IFAD, Arab Funds and some IMF assistance.
Source: DAC on-line database (OECD-DAC, 2003*a*, Table 2a).

Aid flows

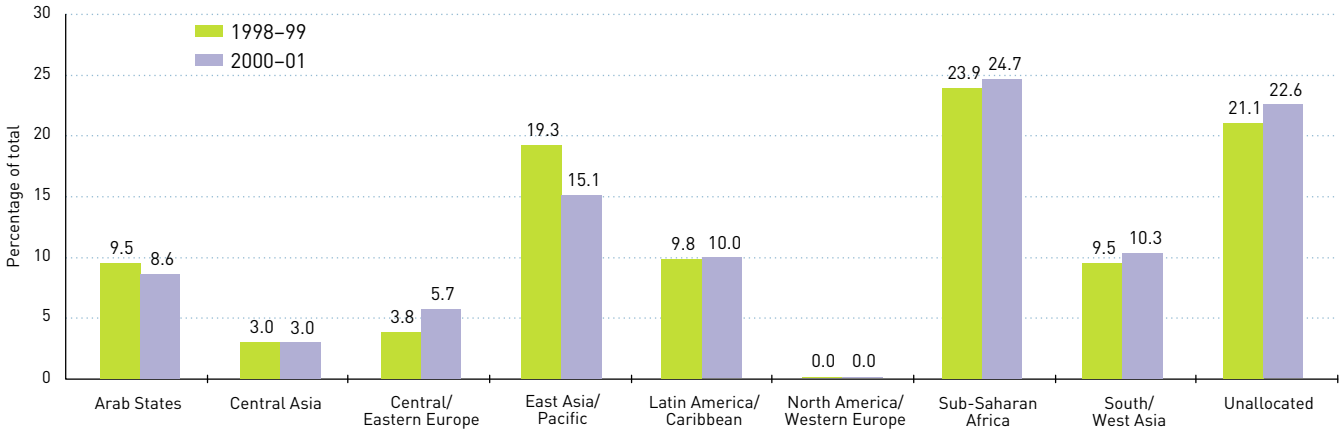
Total aid flows to developing countries

Aid flows to developing countries fell during the 1990s, although there has been an upward trend since 1997 (Table 6.1). The 2001 Official Development Assistance (ODA) disbursements represent a 5.7% increase in real terms (constant prices) compared with the year 2000. Nevertheless, the total flows of US$52.4 billion in 2001 are still below the levels attained ten years earlier when total ODA was US$60.6 billion. Bilateral agencies provided the majority of ODA during the decade – 69% of the total in 2001. The increase between 2000 and 2001 is, however, almost solely explained by a rise in multilateral aid. The World Bank (IDA) and the European Commission (EC) are still the main sources of multilateral assistance and both increased their flows in 2001.

Of the total ODA disbursements over the two biennia (1998–99 and 2000–01) almost one quarter went to sub-Saharan Africa, one-sixth to East Asia and the Pacific, and one-tenth to South and West Asia.[1] There was some decline in the disbursements for East Asia and the Pacific and small increases in those for sub-Saharan Africa, and South and West Asia (Figure 6.1).

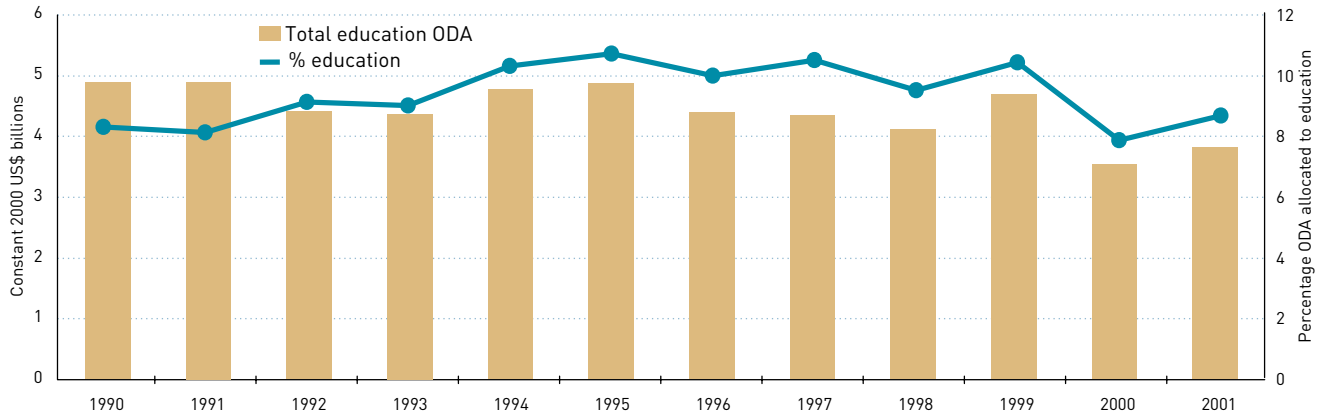
1. Note that a high proportion (more than 20%) of total disbursements cannot be allocated to any one of the EFA regions.

Figure 6.1. Percentage regional distribution of ODA disbursements, average (1998–99 and 2000–01)



Source: DAC on-line database (OECD-DAC, 2003*a*, Table 2a).

Figure 6.2. Bilateral aid to education (1990–2001)



Source: DAC on-line database (OECD-DAC, 2003*a*, Table 5).

Bilateral aid to education

Bilateral aid flows to education declined during the 1990s.

As with total ODA, the trend for bilateral aid flows to education was downwards during the 1990s, from near US$5 billion at the beginning of the decade to slightly less than US$4 billion in 2001 (Figure 6.2). Although there was some improvement in 2001, as compared with the previous year, taking the two years together, bilateral aid to education fell by 16% between 1998–99 and 2000–01 (Table 6.2).[2]

Table 6.2 indicates considerable inter-country differences. Six countries accounted for more than three-quarters of the bilateral aid commitments to education in 2000–01 (France, Germany, Japan, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and the United States). A majority of the countries (thirteen) increased their aid to education over the two biennia, including two of the six largest providers – the Netherlands and the United States. Three countries – Denmark, Portugal and Spain – increased their education aid commitments very substantially, in percentage terms, with changes of 238%, 75% and 61% respectively. In contrast, nine countries reduced their commitments to education, including France, Germany and Japan, among the biggest providers. Austria had the largest negative change (–44%) followed by France (–40%) and Japan (–24%).

Aid to education fell from 10% to 8% of total aid flows over the two biennia (Table 6.2). Some of the smaller countries, including Ireland, Luxembourg and New Zealand, allocate between one-fifth and one-third of their aid to education – as does France (23%). The United States, in contrast, allocates only about one-third of the average for all DAC countries.

Table 6.3 shows changes in the flows of aid to education and to basic education for the DAC member countries in 1998–99 and 2000–01[3]. As noted above, DAC countries as a whole reduced their aid to education from US$4,386 million to US$3,679 million, and as a percentage of total aid from 10% to 8%. In contrast, aid to basic

Table 6.2. Bilateral aid commitments to education in constant 2000 US$ millions (1998–99 and 2000–01)[1]

	ODA		Education			Education as % of total ODA		
Country	1998–99	2000–01	1998–99	2000–01	% change	1998–99	2000–01	Point changes
Australia	729	779	131	104	–23	18	13	–6
Austria	509	449	110	62	–44	22	14	–8
Belgium	443	512	51	65	28	12	13	1
Canada	1274	1343	97	131	35	8	10	2
Denmark	644	932	14	47	238	2	5	3
Finland	227	242	16	21	32	7	9	2
France	4507	3342	1290	771	–40	29	23	–6
Germany	3707	3258	669	568	–15	18	17	–1
Greece	61	91	6	7	15	10	8	–2
Ireland	123	168	21	33	57	17	20	3
Italy	563	686	26	42	62	5	6	1
Japan	14975	13561	1076	818	–24	7	6	–1
Luxembourg[2]	74	93	15	22	46	21	24	3
Netherlands	1733	2593	150	185	23	9	7	–2
New Zealand	87	86	31	28	–10	36	33	–3
Norway	967	941	81	63	–22	8	7	–1
Portugal	204	250	16	28	75	8	11	3
Spain	776	1083	88	141	61	11	13	2
Sweden	985	1137	57	45	–21	6	4	–2
Switzerland	522	634	22	28	27	4	4	0
United Kingdom	2257	2786	187	186	0	8	7	–1
United States	8842	9712	230	284	23	3	3	0
Total DAC countries	44209	44680	4386	3679	–16	10	8	–2

Notes: Figures are rounded.

1. In reporting to DAC, most bilateral agencies use commitments. Only a few, including the United Kingdom, provide disbursement figures. This complicates comparison across the agencies and with the ODA disbursement figures.
2. Luxembourg figures for 2000–01 cover only 2000.

Source: DAC on-line database (OECD-DAC, 2003*a*, Table 5).

2. Data on aid commitments may fluctuate significantly from year to year because agencies record aid in the year in which funding is committed rather than in the year it is disbursed. Biannual averages are therefore more reliable.

3. The DAC definition of basic education covers primary schooling, basic life skills for youth and adults, and early childhood education.

Table 6.3. Percentage changes in bilateral aid flows to education and to basic education in constant 2000 US$ millions, average (1998–99 and 2000–01)

	Education		Basic education		Education as % of total aid		Basic education as % of education aid		Change in amount		Change in %	
Country	1998–99	2000–01	1998–99	2000–01	1998–99	2000–01	1998–99	2000–01	Education	Basic education	Education/ total	Basic education/ education
Group I												
Belgium	51	65	2	6	12	13	4	9	Positive	Positive	Positive	Positive
Canada	97	131	5	31	8	10	5	23	Positive	Positive	Positive	Positive
Denmark	14	47	2	25	2	5	13	54	Positive	Positive	Positive	Positive
Luxembourg[1]	15	22	4	8	21	24	26	34	Positive	Positive	Positive	Positive
Portugal	16	28	<1	3	8	11	1	12	Positive	Positive	Positive	Positive
United States	230	284	81	195	3	3	35	69	Positive	Positive	NSC	Positive
Group II												
Spain	88	141	10	13	11	13	12	9	Positive	Positive	Positive	Negative
Netherlands	150	185	72	131	9	7	48	71	Positive	Positive	Negative	Positive
Group III												
United Kingdom	187	186	49	70	8	7	26	38	NSC	Positive	Negative	Positive
Australia	131	104	31	33	18	13	23	32	Negative	Positive	Negative	Positive
France	1 290	771	6	119	29	23	0	15	Negative	Positive	Negative	Positive
Japan[2]	1 076	818	48	68	7	6	11	13	Negative	Positive	Negative	Positive
Group IV												
Finland	16	21	5	3	7	9	30	14	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative
Italy	26	42	<1	<1	5	6	1	0	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative
Switzerland	22	28	8	8	4	4	38	28	Positive	NSC	NSC	Negative
Group V												
Greece	6	7	<1	<1	10	8	0	0	Positive	NSC	Negative	NSC
Austria	110	62	2	1	22	14	2	2	Negative	Negative	Negative	Negative
Germany	669	568	82	53	18	17	12	9	Negative	Negative	Negative	Negative
New Zealand[3]	31	28	3	2	36	33	18	6	Negative	Negative	Negative	Negative
Norway	81	63	45	15	8	7	56	24	Negative	Negative	Negative	Negative
Sweden	57	45	32	16	6	4	56	36	Negative	Negative	Negative	Negative
Ireland	21	33	n.a.	n.a.	17	20	n.a.	n.a.	Positive	–	Positive	–
Total DAC countries[4]	4 386	3 679	486	800	10	8	13	24	Negative	Positive	Negative	Positive

Notes: Figures are rounded. NSC – no significant change.

1. Luxembourg figures for 2000–01 cover only 2000.
2. The amount of aid reported by Japan by sub-sector amounted to only 41% of total education aid in 1998–99 and 63% in 2000–01.
3. New Zealand reported only 58% of its total education aid by sub-sector in 1998–99.
4. As a result of the under-reporting by sub-sector in the cases of Japan and New Zealand, the total for DAC countries by sub-sector constituted only 85% of total aid in 1998–99 and 92% in 2000–01. Aid for basic education as a percentage of total education aid has been calculated based on the reported sub-sector figure rather than the figure for total education aid.

Source: DAC on-line database (OECD-DAC, 2003*a*, Table 5).

education increased by more than 60% (from US$486 million to US$800 million). As a proportion of the total, it almost doubled, reaching 24% in 2000–01.

Although the period concerned is too short to establish a trend, some patterns emerge from Table 6.3. Thus, independently of size of economy or of other political considerations, one group of countries had an unambiguously positive record. It can be seen from the last four columns of the table that in Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Luxembourg, Portugal and the United States, the absolute magnitude of aid to education and to basic education increased. Furthermore, education received greater priority in the overall aid programme in these countries and basic education was given greater prominence in educational support. Elsewhere, experience was more mixed. In some Group III countries in the table (including France and Japan) education aid as whole fell, whereas aid to basic education increased. In other countries, aid to basic education fell, both absolutely and as a proportion of education aid. These are the countries shown in Groups IV and V, and include Austria, Germany, Switzerland and three Nordic countries.

More than a fifth of aid to education is classed as 'unspecified'.

However, the groupings and patterns presented in Table 6.3 should be interpreted with some care, in part because they offer only a short-term indication of the levels and trends of aid flows for education. In addition, a more detailed examination of the composition of bilateral aid to education, set in the context of changing aid policies and modalities, allows a more nuanced interpretation of patterns and trends to emerge.

Composition of bilateral education aid

Table 6.4 shows that support for basic education from all DAC countries increased from 13% to 24% of bilateral education aid. Nevertheless, these data need to be seen in the context of more than one-fifth of aid to education being classified as 'unspecified'. Even though this category decreased over the period, it still comprised more than half of total education aid in five countries. Strictly, the 'unspecified' category refers to education aid which cannot be classified by sub-sector.[4]

The category 'unspecified' is best understood by examining OECD-DAC's Creditor Reporting System (CRS, see Box 6.1). Its composition is shown in Figure 6.3 for five donor countries. In most of these cases the largest part is accounted for by education policies, administration and management. This is often the category to which general sector support is assigned, notwithstanding that a large part of such support may in fact be targeted at basic education. Furthermore, more careful reporting of sub-sectoral detail over time appears to be happening. Accordingly, the apparent increased level of support to basic education over the period shown in Table 6.4 may partly arise from a re-classification of aid flows from the 'unspecified' category. Replies to a survey of eight bilateral agencies,[5] conducted for this Report, suggested that this was the main explanation for the compensating movement of the shares of 'unspecified' and 'basic' between

Table 6.4. Percentage composition of bilateral education assistance (1998–99 and 2000–01)

	1998–99				2000–01				Point changes in basic education (B) - (A)
Country	Unspecified	Basic (A)	Secondary	Post-secondary	Unspecified	Basic (B)	Secondary	Post-secondary	
Australia	3	23	10	63	6	32	12	49	9
Austria	2	2	45	51	12	2	2	83	0
Belgium	27	4	12	56	18	9	12	61	5
Canada	43	5	2	49	22	23	10	44	18
Denmark	46	13	40	1	14	54	21	11	41
Finland	57	30	7	6	68	14	7	11	-17
France	36	0	35	29	21	15	6	57	15
Germany	7	12	18	63	5	9	9	76	-3
Greece	49	0	0	51	31	0	1	68	0
Ireland	–	–	–	–	100	0	0	0	-
Italy	75	1	3	21	55	0	25	20	-1
Japan[1]	48	11	9	32	24	13	16	47	2
Luxembourg[2]	49	26	14	11	37	34	28	0	8
Netherlands	19	48	5	29	17	71	1	12	23
New Zealand[3]	2	18	5	75	2	6	12	79	-12
Norway	28	56	6	10	13	24	2	61	-32
Portugal	24	1	27	48	27	12	17	44	11
Spain	36	12	13	39	53	9	10	28	-3
Sweden	21	56	4	20	40	36	2	22	-20
Switzerland	40	38	2	20	28	28	24	19	-10
United Kingdom	64	26	6	4	55	38	6	2	12
United States	20	35	19	25	1	69	0	31	34
Total DAC countries[4]	30	13	21	36	21	24	8	47	11

Notes: Figures are rounded.

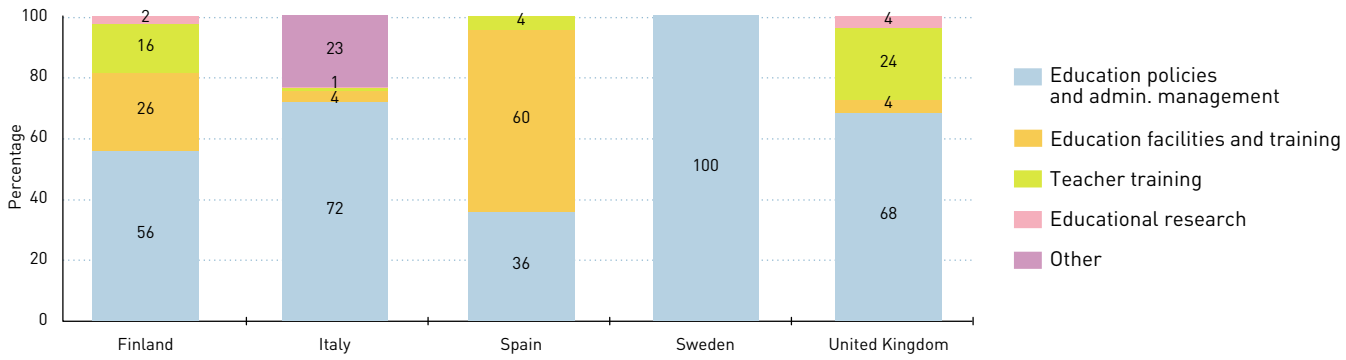
1. The amount of aid reported by Japan by sub-sector amounted to only 41% of total education aid in 1998–99 and 63% in 2000–01.
2. Luxembourg figures for 2000–01 cover only 2000.
3. New Zealand reported only 58% of its total education aid by sub-sector in 1998–99.
4. As a result of the under-reporting by sub-sector in the cases of Japan and New Zealand, the total for DAC countries by sub-sector constituted only 85% of total education aid in 1998–99 and 92% in 2000–01.

Source: DAC on-line database (OECD-DAC, 2003*a*, Table 5).

4. DAC education aid is classified according to three main sub-sectors: basic, secondary and post-secondary. What cannot be apportioned to any of these appears in a fourth category termed 'unspecified'.

5. A survey was conducted for this report amongst eight significant bilateral aid providers to education: Canada, France, Germany, Japan, the Netherlands, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States. The survey was designed first, to ascertain agency perspectives on reported DAC education statistics and second, to clarify policy directions and the impact that these may have on types and levels of assistance.

Figure 6.3. Percentage composition of 'unspecified' education aid, selected countries, average (2000–01)



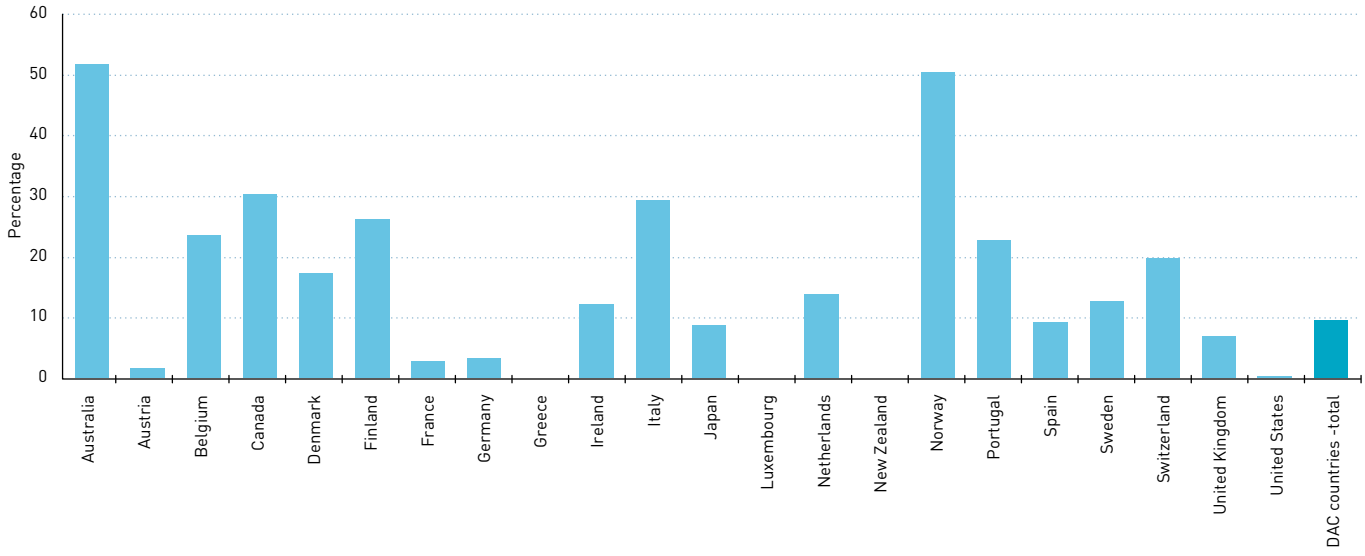
Source: CRS on-line database (OECD-DAC, 2003*a*).

1998–99 and 2000–01 for the United Kingdom and – in the opposite direction – for Sweden.

Aid to education is also provided through other sectors, as Figure 6.4 shows. These flows are insignificant in some countries (such as the United States), but they constitute highly significant amounts in others (approximately 50% for Australia and Norway). These, of course, may be atypical rather than regular. For example, in the case of Norway, the figure was 30% in 1998–99. In addition, these allocations may reflect a limited number of activities. Thus 90% of the 2000–01 figure for Norway is explained by two medical training projects in the United Republic of Tanzania. This considerable proportion of education aid allocated through other sector programmes may counterbalance the somewhat negative characteristics for Norway suggested by Table 6.3.

It is, then, necessary to take account of all DAC data sources in order to establish a full picture of aid to education and to explain changes in aid provision by individual member countries. This is particularly relevant for countries that have adopted the sector-wide approach or more general support to the budgets of governments

Figure 6.4. Aid to education through other sectors as a percentage of total aid to education, average (2000–01)



Source: CRS on-line database (OECD-DAC, 2003*a*).

as their predominant aid modality, and for those that provide large amounts of aid for education under other sectoral programmes.

Reporting on aid to education

The previous sections have suggested that difficulties remain in obtaining a totally accurate picture of aid to education, and to basic education more specifically, but steady improvements in reporting to the OECD-DAC are being made, as Box 6.1 demonstrates. In the survey conducted for this report, all bilateral agencies acknowledged the value of the DAC education statistics as an official source on aid flows and as a basis for comparison across countries. However, some of them also indicated that the DAC figures do not provide the full picture of their support for education and that in some cases there are differences between what they record for the DAC and what they report nationally. This partly relates to difficulties in applying the DAC recording system, particularly in the context of moving from specific projects to more general sectoral and budget support, and partly to other technical issues that vary in importance from country to country (see Box 6.2).

What remains of immediate interest is whether the data issues raised by the agencies may partly explain the patterns set out in Table 6.3, the extent to which support for basic education and the 'unspecified' sub-sectors are interrelated, and whether support provided through channels other than through the education sector can be considered as significant.

Aid trends, policies and commitments

In recent policy statements, the bilateral agencies participating in the survey for this report indicated strong support for education, stressing its role in poverty reduction, in sustainable development, and in the empowerment of women and girls. Table 6.5 summarizes the agencies' returns.

Box 6.1. Statistics on aid to education: the quality of reporting

The analysis of aid flows to the education sector presented in this report is mainly based on OECD *International Development Statistics* (OECD-DAC, 2003*a*). The data come from agencies, including the twenty-two member countries of the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) of the OECD, the European Commission and other international organizations. The statistics are compiled according to the definitions and classifications agreed by the DAC (OECD-DAC, 2003*a*).

Data on total *annual amounts of aid to education* extended by individual DAC providers are available from 1971 onwards. Basic education has been distinguished as a separate category in the statistics since 1993. Initially, reporting by level of education was difficult for several agencies, but the revision of the DAC sector classification in 1996 helped to clarify the definition of the education sector and its sub-categories. The rules on how to classify educational activities in other sectors (e.g. health, agriculture) or projects targeting several levels of education (e.g. basic and secondary education) were also clarified. For the biennium 2000–01, data on aid to education can be broken down by level of education for all DAC providers.

DAC members' reporting on *individual education projects and programmes* has also greatly improved over the last few years. The Creditor Reporting System (CRS) Aid Activity database of the DAC allows sector-by-recipient analyses and covers over 90% of DAC providers' bilateral ODA since 1999. Coverage is lower in the education sector (more than 70%). The data gaps (mainly concerning France and Japan) can, however, be remedied by aggregating aid to education by recipient, as reported in the annual DAC statistics.

The main problem encountered in the analysis of aid to education concerns multilateral agencies. Data on educational projects have been available for the World Bank and the regional development banks since 1973, and for UNICEF since 2000. As regards the European Commission (a member of the DAC), the total amount of aid to education is known for 2000–01 but activity-level detail is available only on European Development Fund and European Investment Bank activities. Improvements are expected in statistics on 2003 flows.

The aggregate and activity-level data in the DAC *International Development Statistics* are the main source of data on aid to education (OECD-DAC, 2003*a*). Whereas internal systems of member countries might provide more detailed information, the DAC statistics allow comparability. DAC members have urged that the remaining international providers not yet using the system – in particular the UNDP but also some other United Nations agencies – should report their aid activities to the OECD using the same format, definitions and classifications as the bilateral agencies. This will help to provide a complete global picture of aid efforts according to standardized definitions and classifications.

Source: Based on information provided by the OECD-DAC.

Box 6.2. Statistics on aid to education: reporting difficulties

DAC countries highlight a set of problems in reporting their aid flows to DAC, in particular:

Difficulties in reconciling figures reported to DAC and figures published by agencies:

- DAC reporting follows the calendar year whereas some countries report to their own parliaments for a fiscal year.
- Many countries report to their own parliaments using a sector classification which is not identical to the DAC classification.
- Whereas DAC compiles data from all national agencies, in some countries individual agencies submit separate reports to their own governments.

Difficulties in capturing all education aid through the DAC coding system

- DAC statistics report mostly commitments, although disbursement figures are considered to be the most reliable by the agencies.
- Education aid is not captured by the DAC education code when it is a sub-component of multi-sector programmes or is provided through other sectors.
- The 'unspecified' category hides some support for the basic education sub-sector.
- Education support and components provided for NGOs, as non-project grants, and as humanitarian aid are not captured in the DAC figures.

Source: Based on returns from eight bilateral agencies as part of the survey conducted for this report.

These indications of a renewed commitment to basic education have been accompanied by some announcements of new funding commitments. At the G8 summit in Kananaskis, Canada, in March 2002, both Japan and Canada announced additional funding for basic education. Japan indicated pledges of more than US$2 billion of ODA for the education sector over the next five years to support low-income countries faced with difficulties in achieving the EFA goals, and that it would strengthen its Basic Education for Growth Initiative (BEGIN) which focuses on access, quality and management. Canada declared that it would increase its investment in basic education in sub-Saharan Africa to CDN$100 million by 2005 and would maintain at least that level of investment annually thereafter. This was in addition to the CDN$555 million that Canada committed to invest in basic education in its Social Development Priorities Framework published soon after the World Education Forum in Dakar.

At the United Nations Conference on Financing for Development in Monterrey, Mexico, in March 2002, France announced an increase of its ODA to reach 0.5% of its GNP over the next five years, and 0.7% over ten years. This is expected to lead to increased support for education and particularly for basic education. The United States announced that it would increase its core assistance to developing countries by 50% over the next three years, resulting in a US$5 billion annual increase over current levels by 2006 (U.S. Government, 2002). The new fund, which will supplement the current assistance, would be placed in a Millennium Challenge Account and be available to countries that have demonstrated commitment to sound development policies. So far, Congress has approved US$800 million for 2004 (USAID, 2003*a*). Education is expected to benefit from this account. In addition, US support for basic education is expected to increase in the order of 50% during 2001–03 (U.S. Government, 2002).

Education is expected to benefit from the Millenium Challenge Account.

More recently, the Netherlands announced its intention to spend €2.5 billion (approximately US$2.92 billion) on education in developing countries in the next five years, of which 76% will go to basic education (Netherlands, 2003*a*).

The Fast-Track Initiative (FTI), discussed later in this chapter, has also attracted funds from nine bilateral agencies. This, in association with IDA acceleration funds, is in the order of US$200 million for the period 2003–05.

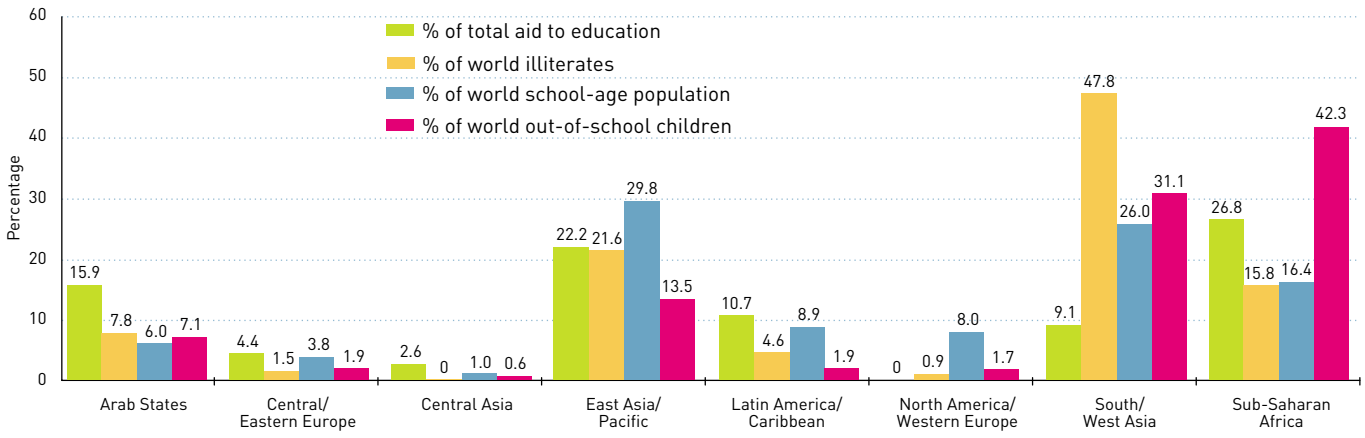
Table 6.5. Aid to education: policy orientation of eight bilateral agencies

	Priorities	Emphasis on EFA and MDG goals	Policy papers*
Canada	Working with other agencies at the country level as a partner to assist countries to prepare credible plans for their education sector. Assisting in their implementation.	Access for all to free and compulsory primary education. Elimination of gender disparities in education. Improving the quality of basic education.	*Social Development Priorities: A Framework for Action* (CIDA, 2000). *Action Plan on Basic Education* (CIDA, 2002).
France	Effective utilization of internal and external resources. Impact of educational policy on economic and social development (poverty alleviation). Co-ordination with other partners in sector programmes. Debt relief.	Corresponding MDG and EFA goals: Universal primary education by 2015. Gender parity by 2005 and equality by 2015.	
Germany	Country-specific sector support. The EFA goals and and MDGs are points of reference for policy formulation and quantifiable EFA goals are targets where relevant. Vocational education and training is a component of support strategies for economic reform and the development of market systems. Linkage with national education sector strategies and relevant EFA goals.	Free and compulsory primary education of good quality. Improved levels of adult literacy. Elimination of gender disparities/support to gender equality.	*Support to Basic Education in Developing Countries* (to be updated) (GTZ, 1999). Forthcoming position paper on support to basic education in the context of the Dakar Framework, the Millennium Declaration and related international initiatives. *Programme of Action 2015* (GTZ, 2001*a*); *The Art of Learning* (GTZ, 2001*b*).
Japan	Expansion of primary and secondary education. Reduction of disparities in education. Satisfaction of the educational needs of youths and adults. Expansion of infant care and early childhood education. Improvement of educational management.	All six EFA goals and the two MDGs, particularly: Universal primary education by 2015. Halving illiterate population by 2015. Improving all aspects of quality of education.	*Approaches for Systematic Planning and Development Projects – Basic Education* (JICA, 2002).
Netherlands	Strengthening civil society and transferring ownership of learning programmes to the governments of the countries concerned.	Maintain and improve the quality and relevance of basic education. Promote equality of access to education, especially for underprivileged population groups. Eliminate gender disparity in participation in education and promote equitable gender relations in society.	*Education: A Basic Human Right* (Netherlands, 2000).
Sweden	Participatory rights-based, learner-friendly and gender sensitive approaches to teaching and learning. Transparent and accountable management of education at all levels. Making primary education compulsory and truly free. Drawing up education legislation and policies in line with the human rights conventions and the EFA goals. Meeting the special needs of children with disabilities, illness or other learning problems. Removing gender-biased, language or ethnic barriers. Mobilizing rural communities to allow education for girls. Rehabilitation of education in emergency and post-conflict situations. Improving conditions for access and learning. Enhancing literacy for all. Enhancing formal, non-formal and informal life-long learning opportunities.	All six goals based on partner-country programmes.	*Education for All: A Human Right and a Basic Need. Policy for SIDA's Development Cooperation in the Education Sector* (SIDA, 2001).
United Kingdom	Importance of governments being 'seriously committed'. High priority to UPE, abolition of user fees and other direct cost barriers. International agencies: better co-ordination and attention to the capacity of countries to use aid effectively.	The two education related MDGs – UPE and gender equality in the context of the reduction of poverty.	*The Challenge of Universal Primary Education* (DFID, 2001*a*). *Children Out of School* (DFID, 2001*b*).
United States	Holistic approach vis-à-vis Dakar Framework and EFA goals. Education a driver of economic growth and poverty reduction. Responsive to education and training needs of countries. Integration with PRSPs, partnerships under the Monterrey compact and the policy framework of the Millennium Challenge Account. HIV/AIDS pandemic. Public private civil society alliances.	Moving into early childhood, workforce and skills development, adult literacy, higher and secondary education activities, while continuing and/or expanding ongoing primary level efforts, particularly for girls.	New worldwide strategy for education currently being drafted.

* These exclude policy papers specifically on gender and girls' education that appear in Box 6.4.

Source: Based on returns from eight bilateral agencies as part of the survey conducted for this report.

Figure 6.5. Regional distribution of bilateral aid to education, average (2000–01), adult illiterates, school-age population and out-of-school children (2000), percentage.



Note: Total education aid does not add up to 100% because of aid that cannot be allocated to one region.
Source: Compiled from CRS on-line database (OECD-DAC, 2003*a*) and Statistical annex, Tables 2 and 5.

Regional distribution of bilateral education aid

Figure 6.5 shows the regional distribution of bilateral education aid.[6] The highest proportion is provided for sub-Saharan Africa (approximately 27%), followed by East Asia and the Pacific (approximately 22%) and the Arab States (approximately 16%). These regions all face difficulties in meeting the Dakar goals by 2015 as reported in the *EFA Report 2002* (UNESCO, 2002*b*). Other regions, however, face similar difficulties, but receive far less education aid. This is particularly the case with South and West Asia, which, despite having one-third of the world's out-of-school-children, received less than 10% of aid to education. More aid than this was received by Latin America and the Caribbean, where the scale of educational problems is significantly less intense.[7]

Although the distribution of education aid cannot be disentangled from broader economic and political considerations, most, if not all, funding and technical assistance agencies acknowledge the right to education and its significance for empowerment and development (Table 6.5). From this perspective, a distribution of aid reflecting comparative needs might be expected. However, as Table 6.6 shows, this is far from the case. The Arab States, Central Asia, and Latin America and the Caribbean all receive more

Table 6.6. Education aid by region and national characteristics (2000–01)

	Adult illiterates (15+)[1]	Out-of-school children[1]	Education aid[2]	Aid per capita[3]	Aid per school-age child[3]	Aid per illiterate[3]	Aid per out-of-school child[3]
Arab States	67.5	7.4	544.6	2.0	14.0	8.1	73.5
Central and Eastern Europe	12.5	1.9	150.9	0.4	6.1	12.1	77.7
Central Asia	0.2	0.6	90.1	1.2	13.4	405.7	144.5
East Asia and the Pacific	186.4	14.0	761.3	0.4	4.0	4.1	54.3
Latin America and the Caribbean	39.3	1.9	368.3	0.7	6.4	9.4	189.0
South and West Asia	412.2	32.4	313.6	0.2	1.9	0.8	9.7
Sub-Saharan Africa	136.0	44.0	919.7	1.5	8.7	6.8	20.9
Unallocated[4]			283.6				
World	862.0	104.2	3 432.5	0.6	5.3	4.0	32.9

Notes: Figures are rounded
1. In millions
2. In constant 2000 US$ millions
3. In constant 2000 US$
4. 'Unallocated' refers to aid which was not classified by recipient, or which straddled more than one EFA region.
Source: Compiled from CRS on-line database (OECD-DAC, 2003*a*) and Statistical annex, Tables 2 and 5.

6. The regional distribution of bilateral education aid has been calculated from information in the CRS, adjusted for data gaps, and compared with official DAC development statistics (see Appendix 3).

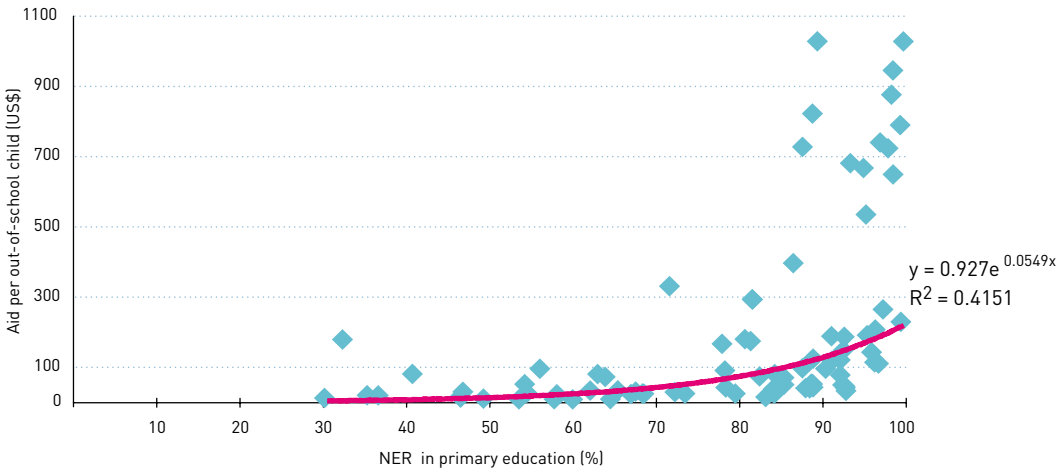
7. The regional data obscure the needs of individual countries whose out-of-school populations and adult illiteracy rates may be relatively insignificant in global terms but constitute an overwhelming problem at the national level. This, for example, is the case of the Comoros, whose 49,761 out-of-school children constitute approximately half of the primary school-age population.

A closer analysis of country data confirms that aid is attracted by better-performing education systems.

education aid per capita, per school-age child, per illiterate, and per out-of-school-child than the global average, whereas South and West Asia receives much less. Sub-Saharan Africa, on the other hand receives more than the global average on each indicator, with the exception of aid per out-of-school child.

A closer analysis of country data confirms that aid is attracted by better-performing education systems. An analysis of 77 countries for which the net enrolment rate and the amount of bilateral aid per out-of-school child are available shows that the amount of aid per out-of-school child increases with the level of net enrolment (Figure 6.6). Similarly, for 120 countries having these data, a positive non-linear relationship is apparent between literacy rates and aid per illiterate adult (Figure 6.7).

Figure 6.6. NER in primary education and bilateral education aid per out-of-school child (in constant 2000 US$), average (2000–01)



Note: Data for NER and out-of-school children are for 2000.
Source: Compiled from CRS on-line database (OECD-DAC, 2003*a*) and Statistical annex, Table 5.

Figure 6.7. Adult literacy rate and bilateral education aid per adult illiterate (in constant 2000 US$), average (2000–01)



Note: Data for illiterates and adult literacy rate are for 2000.
Source: Compiled from CRS on-line database (OECD-DAC, 2003*a*) and Statistical annex, Table 2.

Multilateral aid to education

Support to education from multilateral agencies (excluding the World Bank and the EC) fell over the periods 1998–99 and 2000–01 (Table 6.7). This decrease is explained solely by the decline in support from the regional development banks. Support for basic education involves all education aid in the case of UNICEF, some 86% for UNRWA and 47% for the European Commission.[8]

As regards World Bank funding for education, trends in concessional finance (IDA) have followed a similar pattern to the Bank's commercial lending (Figure 6.8). Having remained relatively stable throughout the first half of the 1990s, both then became more variable, and have subsequently been in decline. Furthermore, education has also declined as a proportion of total lending in recent years, and the IDA element now constitutes only half of its level in the mid-1990s.

In terms of its regional distribution, high priority is given to sub-Saharan Africa and to South Asia in total IDA lending, and for education (Figure 6.9). IDA lending to South Asia to some extent counterbalances the comparatively lower allocations from bilateral agencies for that region.

Table 6.8 summarizes total bilateral and multilateral aid to education and to basic education in 1998–99 and 2000–01. The bilateral flows dominate the picture. Both bilateral and multilateral aid to education decreased between 1998–99 and 2000–01. In contrast, there was a positive development for basic education, with aid increasing by between one-fifth and one-quarter under high and low assumptions, respectively. The multilateral agencies allocated a comparatively higher proportion of their total aid for basic education than did the bilateral agencies. However, these levels of support of around US$1.5 billion per year remain small when compared with the estimated level of additional aid of US$5.6 billion per year needed to reach the major EFA goals (UNESCO, 2002*b*: Chapter 4).

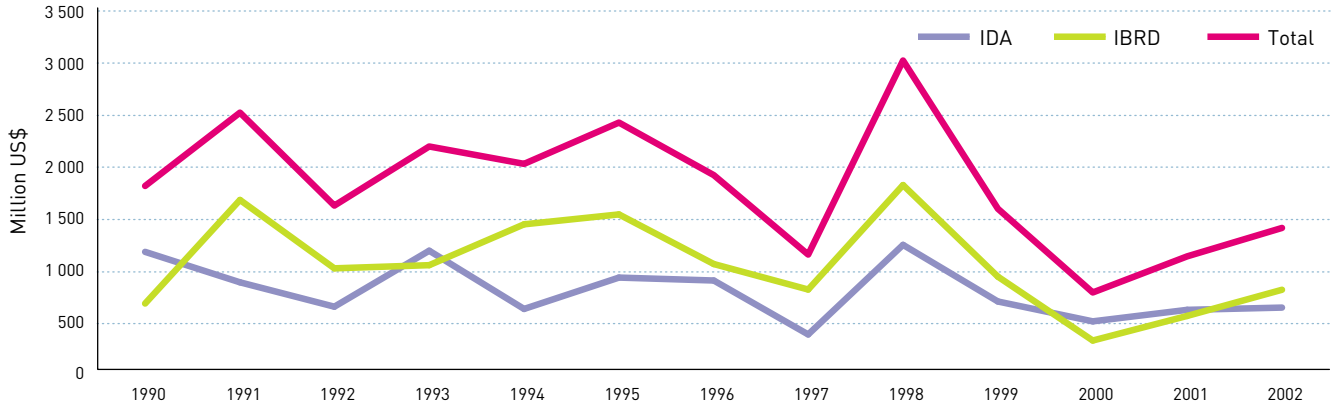
8. The breakdown for basic education is unavailable for the regional banks.

Table 6.7. Multilateral ODA commitments, excluding the World Bank, in constant 2000 US$ millions, average

	Total		Education		Education as % of total	
	1998–99	2000–01	1998–99	2000–01	1998–99	2000–01
African Development Fund	774	407	120	41	15.5	10.1
Asian Development Fund	1165	1072	108	84	9.3	7.9
Inter-American Development Bank	578	487	36	27	6.2	5.6
European Commission (EC)	n.a.	6445	n.a.	306	n.a.	4.7
UNICEF	445	586	43	53	9.6	9.1
UNRWA	301	326	169	171	56.2	52.3
Others	81	93	4	7	4.9	7.1
Total multilateral	3345	9416	481	687	14.4	7.3
Total multilateral (excluding EC)*	3345	2971	481	381	14.4	12.9

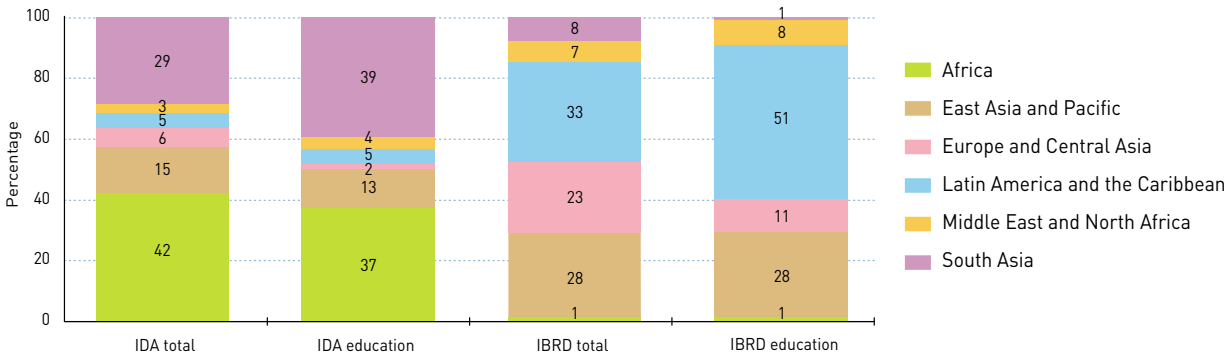
Note: Figures are rounded.
The DAC deflator for the United States has been used for all multilateral agencies except for the EC.
* Total multilateral (excluding EC) permits comparison between the two biennia as data are unavailable for the EC for 1998–99.
Source: DAC on-line database (OECD-DAC, 2003*a*), Table 5.

Figure 6.8. World Bank lending to education, constant 2001 prices in US$ millions (1990–2002)



Note: The DAC deflator for the United States has been used to produce constant prices series.
Source: http://devdata.worldbank.org/edstats/worldbanklending/wblsum_02.xls

Figure 6.9. Percentage regional distribution of IBRD and IDA cumulative lending total and for education (1990–2002)



Note: These regional divisions follow the World Bank classification which does not match exactly with the EFA regions.
Source: World Bank (2002*f*, pp. 131–2).

Table 6.8. Bilateral and multilateral assistance to education in constant 2000 US$ billions (1998–99 and 2000–01)

	Education		Basic education			
	1998–99	2000–01	1998–99		2000–01	
			High	Low	High	Low
Bilateral[1]	4.39	3.68	0.57	0.57	0.87	0.87
Total multilateral of which	1.49	1.32	0.74	0.57	0.67	0.58
IDA[2]	0.91	0.51	0.40	0.27	0.22	0.15
European Commission (EC)[3]	n.a.	0.31	n.a.	n.a.	0.14	0.14
UNESCO[4]	0.10	0.12	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.04
Inter-American Development Bank	0.04	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01
Asian Development Fund	0.11	0.08	0.05	0.03	0.04	0.03
African Development Fund	0.12	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.02	0.01
UNICEF	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.04	0.05	0.05
UNRWA	0.17	0.17	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.15
Other multilateral	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Total	5.88	5.00	1.31	1.15	1.55	1.45

Notes: Figures are rounded.
1. Of the bilateral education aid accounted for by sub-sector, 13% (in 1998–99) and 24% (in 2000–01) was committed to basic education (Table 6.3). It is assumed that these proportions also applied to the remaining education aid.
2. IDA commitments cover fiscal and not calendar years. Two estimates have been used to calculate IDA education commitments allocated to basic education: a high estimate of 44% and a low estimate of 30% (see data provided in UNESCO, 2002*b*, note 9, p. 172). The same estimates have been used for the Inter-American Development Bank, the Asian Development Fund and the African Development Fund.
3. 47.2% of EC aid to education was allocated to basic education in 2000–01.
4. UNESCO commitments are for fiscal and not calendar years. It is assumed that 30% of the UNESCO education budget goes to basic education.

Sources: Calculated from Tables 6.3, and 6.7; Figure 6.8; UNESCO (1998*a* and 2000*c*).

Summary

The gap between rhetoric and reality in support for education seems to persist, although it may well be too early to see stated commitments since Dakar reflected in DAC recorded figures. Analysis of the most recent data shows that overall support for education from both multilateral and bilateral agencies has been declining in recent years. Multilateral support for basic education has also gone down. In contrast, support for basic education from bilateral agencies has increased and is possibly at a higher level than that captured by the DAC data because of recording deficiencies and allocations outside the basic education sub-sector. It is particularly important to recognize that increased allocations through the sub-sector 'unspecified' may compensate for decreased contributions to the basic education sub-sector in countries that strongly support sector-wide approaches. Nevertheless, even this more encouraging trend in support of basic education must be understood in the context of a smaller overall aid budget for education in general. It also remains small in comparison with projected needs for EFA.

The analysis has also shown a persistent pattern of regional distribution of Official Development Assistance and support for education, targeting

particularly sub-Saharan Africa and East Asia and the Pacific. South Asia receives a comparatively smaller proportion of both overall and education aid, although allocations of IDA funding for this region – both in general and for education – are more favourable than bilateral support. While all targeted regions have difficulties in terms of large numbers of out-of-school populations and adult illiterates, those countries with the greatest needs in these terms do not generally receive an aid allocation that reflects their circumstances. This is further reflected in the aid per capita data which suggests that aid is attracted to better performing systems.

Aid, education and gender

Chapter 4 concluded that the promotion of gender parity and equality in education requires strong leadership from governments in order to redistribute resources within the education sector to meet the specific needs of girls. It also highlighted the need for more effective multi-sector partnerships and the direct engagement of women and girls in the processes of social change.

The extent to which the existing commitments of the international community are directed to these ends is not easy to ascertain. An interrogation of OECD-DAC project data would be a useful exercise in this respect but has not been possible for this report. However, it is clear that gender equality, in and through education, has an increasingly prominent place in the policies of a good number of funding agencies. The Partnership on Sustainable Strategies for Girls' Education[9] is one indication of this interest. UNICEF continues to provide leadership internationally in promoting girls' education (the subject of the *The State of the World's Children 2004* report), and other organizations and programmes are giving increased attention to gender in their work (e.g. in the Task Force on HIV/AIDS and Education[10] and at the Commonwealth Secretariat[11]). Box 6.3 highlights the thrust of the work on gender and education by some bilateral agencies.

A growing technical literature pays attention to the extent to which gender is being addressed in education sector projects and programmes, especially in Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) and Sector Wide Approaches (SWAs). Although many guidelines for the development of these approaches stress the central significance of gender equality (e.g. World Bank, 2001*b*), the extent to which PRSPs and SWAs are underpinned by good gender analysis remains unclear.

One recent study of four PRSPs concludes that the twin requirements of broad-based participation and consultation on the one hand, and endorsement by the boards of the World Bank and the IMF on the other, have given rise to contradictions in both the content and the formulation of PRSPs. This is most evident in the limitations of the consultation process with civil society organizations and stakeholder communities and in the under-representation of women's voices. This weakens the analysis of gender perspectives on poverty (Whitehead, 2003). As Box 6.4 indicates, this may be the cause, or the consequence, of confusion about

Box 6.3. Bilateral agencies: gender and education

Many bilateral agencies have issued policy statements on basic education that reflect the Millennium Development and EFA Goals. Some agencies have overarching gender policies (e.g. CIDA, 1999; DFID, 2000; BMZ, 2001), which inform their education sector policies. Thus, Canada's *Action Plan on Basic Education* (CIDA, 2002), in which the elimination of gender disparities is one of three main goals, is a component of CIDA's *Social Development Priorities: A Framework for Action* (CIDA, 2000).

Most statements on basic education, the EFA goals and/or the MDGs, cite gender equality as a major objective. The Netherlands document *Education: A Basic Human Right* (Netherlands, 2000) has as one of three goals 'to eliminate gender disparity in participation in education and to promote equitable gender relations in society'. USAID places a special emphasis in all basic education activities on 'improving opportunities for girls, women and specially disadvantaged populations' (USAID, 2003*c*). The UK Department for International Development (DFID) has 'made girls' education a central tenet of its education work in line with achieving the MDG goal on parity and equality' (DFID, 2003; DFID 2001*b*). France and Japan are both giving increased weight to the two MDG education-related goals (AFD, 2003; JICA, 2003).

In support of this growing attention to gender in education, and for a more specific focus on girl's education, many agencies are undertaking work to strengthen their own capacity to contribute to the development of national policies and programmes. CIDA's *Educating Girls: A Handbook* (CIDA, 2003), BMZ's ongoing work on gender-budgeting and DFID's guidance notes for its education advisers on *How Can Education Advisers Help to Achieve the Public Service Agreement (PSA) Gender Equality Targets* (Newbigging and Derbyshire, 2003) are examples.

Source: Based on returns from eight bilateral agencies as part of the survey conducted for this report plus personal communication.

9. A partnership of the World Bank, UNICEF and DFID (see World Bank, 2003*e*).

10. HIV/AIDS Impact on Education Clearinghouse (see UNESCO-IIEP, 2003*a*).

11. Commonwealth Secretariat series on gender mainstreaming (e.g. Commonwealth Secretariat, 2003).

Box 6.4. Gender, education and PRSPs

A study of Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) for Bolivia, Malawi, the United Republic of Tanzania, and Yemen found that 'attention to gender was shockingly limited' (Whitehead, 2003), a view supported by some other studies of gender in PRSPs, including by the World Bank (2001*b*). Strategies for addressing gender were often fragmented, with 'piecemeal policies dealing with an aspect of women's disadvantage, not set within any wider analysis of the gender bases for these dimensions of vulnerability' (Whitehead, 2003). Another study noted that girls' education is either addressed under gender issues, or under education, but not across both. This has implications for the translation of gender strategies into education planning, strategies and actions (Winter and Burnett, 2002). And even when girls' education is treated under gender, or under education, the level of analysis remains very general. Thus, Chad's PRSP states that the country will improve access and equity within education by 'promoting schooling for girls' and 'reducing regional and gender-related disparities'.

PRSP analysis which is fully gender-inclusive should encompass issues of reproduction, household structures, and women's livelihoods, incomes and employment. Other dimensions are important too, including vulnerability, powerlessness, and male-bias in governance systems. And examination of the implications and the impact of national budget priorities and allocations is essential for a comprehensive analysis of the gender dimensions of poverty.

The absence of sound gender analysis in PRSPs has significant implications for achieving gender equality within and through education. Given that gender disparities in education are heavily influenced by socio-economic conditions, a gendered poverty analysis contributes to a much clearer understanding of gender based educational inequalities. At present, PRSP strategies for girls' education are often focused on supply side issues without reference to, or analysis of, the demand side constraints that inhibit girls' full participation in schooling. The four PRSPs mentioned above made no reference to the material aspects of well-being – such as income, wages and livelihoods – and their relevance to women's poverty, yet these issues have a major impact on gender parity in education.

The lack of priority and target setting, as well as more general analytic limitations, reflect broader problems with PRSP documents, on which many authors have commented. These include the lack of linkage between priority statements and resource allocations or planned actions. This failure may reflect several factors: lack of political will to act on gender inequalities; a lack of capacity to translate policy intentions into actions; weaknesses inherent in the processes of developing PRSPs, which are often time-bound; and lack of consultation to ensure that women's perspectives on poverty are understood and incorporated into strategy formulation.

Sources: Whitehead (2003); Winter and Burnett (2002); World Bank (2001*b*).

how to address women as a specific group, and, in turn, broader gender issues within the education sector.

As Box 6.5 shows, the weakness of gender analysis in the PRSPs re-surfaces in national MDG reports, while a survey of gender in EFA National Plans in Africa, Asia and Latin America raises similar concerns (Kanno, 2003).

Literature on SWAs and education is broadly of four types: national monitoring and evaluation reports on education sector programmes; comparative studies of SWAs across countries; agency and research studies on the mechanics of SWAs; and analysis that focuses on the extent to which SWAs address, or meet, specific goals of access, inclusion, gender and quality. An initial review of this literature conducted for this report suggests that a number of studies (e.g. Elson and Evers, 1998) find that limited attention is paid to both gender outcomes and the inputs that affect them.

A recent comparative study on Ghana, India and Uganda concluded that while sector programmes do have the potential to enhance the provision and quality of girls' education, attention needs to be given to a set of major constraints:

- 'Evaporation' of national policy as gender objectives travel down the bureaucratic chain.
- Failure to promote gender policy by development partners for fear of undermining local SWA ownership.
- Focus on the expansion of girls' enrolment in primary education (access) at the expense of attention to gender issues in education provision (quality) and a neglect of linkages to, and the promotion of, girls' post-primary education.
- Insufficient dialogue amongst development partners, and poor communication within agencies between gender and education specialists.
- Lack of attention to power relations in the countries concerned and to women's rights groups (Sibbons et al., 2000).

In order to positively influence gender equity, SWAs need to be coherent, and agencies need to have a shared understanding of what constitutes an appropriate gender strategy in education. The very process of preparing and agreeing on an SWA provides an opportunity for the establishment of gender mainstreaming,

Box 6.5. Gender and MDG reports: results of a 'scan'

A recent 'scan' of country-level Millennium Development Goals reports through a gender lens was conducted by UNDP. The review of thirteen country reports examined the extent to which gender equality considerations were mainstreamed into reporting on the MDGs.

Central to all the MDGs is Goal 3, which is to 'promote gender equality and empowerment of women'. Unlike the other MDGs, Goal 3 is not specific to any particular sector or issue, as gender equality and women's rights underpin all the other goals. Equally, gender equality and women's rights will not be achieved without achieving the other MDGs. Thus, the scan focused on both reporting against Goal 3 as well as the tracking of gender gaps and inequalities against each of the other MDG targets.

The study concluded that:

- The inadequacy of gender mainstreaming is a feature shared by reports irrespective of authorship. Seven of the reports were prepared by United Nations country teams, four by independent expert groups, one by a national government and one by the government and the country team in partnership.
- Wide variations were found in the presentation and analysis of data. The reports seldom drew the lines between cross-cutting gender issues and sectoral policies in a satisfactory way.

With regard to the gender analysis of Goal 2, 'to ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling', it was found that gender issues had been mainstreamed to a certain extent, possibly because gender parity is explicitly mentioned in the goal. Seven of the thirteen country reports identified bridging the gender gap in education as a national priority. However, not all reports provided sex-disaggregated data on enrolment, retention and literacy, and three reports made no mention of gender issues in education, referring to 'children' as an undifferentiated category.

The report recommends strengthening the reporting process through the following measures:

- **Consultation and capacity**: Involving members of women's groups and gender experts in consultations across goals, to ensure that gender issues are discussed and integrated into all sections of the final report, and ensuring that draft reports are reviewed by independent gender experts familiar with country context.
- **Data collection and analysis**: Gender awareness training for statisticians involved in collating and processing data for the MDG reports to strengthen the gender dimensions of reporting on mandatory indicators. The report also recommends supporting the collection of sex-disaggregated data on key indicators.

Source: Menon-Sen (2003).

provided that those in the partnership have a common understanding of what can be achieved. Where harmonized dialogue is lacking there are invariably differing definitions of gender concepts and approaches to gender equality. And where gender priorities are not matched by budget allocations, progress is further limited, although SWAs should provide the opportunity to undertake resource-based planning, driven by policy priorities and outcomes.

International initiatives

Global commitments are giving rise to global initiatives, funds and broader international developments for enhanced aid flows and the harmonization of aid procedures. The Global Fund to AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria[12] is a case in point. The Monterrey Consensus on Financing for Development (United Nations, 2002*b*) is providing the framework for international dialogue on increasing aid flows while the *Rome Declaration on Harmonization* (OECD-DAC, 2003*b*) reflects the growing consensus on the need to harmonize the operational policies, procedures and practices of funding agencies.

The Fast-Track Initiative (FTI)

The Fast-Track Initiative (FTI), which was launched in June 2002, is comparable in its scope and ambition with these global projects. Designed as a major initiative to help to achieve the MDG of Universal Primary Education (UPE) by 2015, the FTI has reached a critical point in its development. It was conceived as a new international compact, able to mobilize significant new funds for countries that have the commitment but not the resources to achieve UPE, but to date FTI has yet to receive substantial and concrete international support for its activities. If it is to become a significant force in meeting the Dakar commitment that 'no countries seriously committed to education for all will be thwarted in their achievement of this goal by a lack of resources' (UNESCO, 2000*f*), then the expectations that have been raised in the process of its development will need to be met or reviewed.

12. Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria (2003) http://globalfundatm.org/overview.html

Since the FTI was launched, efforts have been made by financial and technical assistance agencies and by participating countries to adhere to the principles of the Monterrey Consensus.

Led by the World Bank, the FTI also involves the European Commission (EC), UNESCO, UNICEF, the multilateral development banks and all the major bilateral development agencies in its planning and development. So far, these activities have focused on defining a Framework for the Initiative that covers eligibility criteria, the nature of country proposals, review processes, financing and operational modalities, and governance structures. But it has not proved easy to finalise and reach consensus on this Framework. There has also been debate about the inclusion and ownership of the Initiative by the countries that have been invited to participate and the extent to which the full EFA agenda, including gender, is part of the FTI endeavour.

Definition and objectives

The FTI was endorsed by the Development Committee of the World Bank as a 'process that would provide quick and incremental technical and financial support to countries that have policies but are not on track to attain Universal Primary Completion by 2015' (World Bank Development Committee, 2003*a*). Its primary frame of reference is the Monterrey Consensus (March 2002). This commits governments and international financial and technical assistance agencies to work through new 'development partnerships' based on mutual accountability and responsibility for achieving the MDGs, including UPE by 2015. Within the compact, countries implementing policy and institutional reforms and having the means to be accountable for their results can expect to receive additional and better-co-ordinated external assistance in support of their development plans.

Within this framework, countries with a PRSP and an agreed 'credible' education sector plan are eligible to develop proposals to join the FTI. In practice, other plans can be acknowledged as an Interim PRSP and an education sector plan can cover only the primary or basic education sub-sectors. Nevertheless, even where such plans are acknowledged, countries have so far had to develop separate proposals for FTI funding, although this is understood to be a catalyst for support to education sector plans through existing mechanisms, and not as a parallel process with its own separate funding.[13]

Plans are evaluated by using criteria from the Indicative Framework, developed by the World Bank. This provides targets or benchmarks that have been derived from an analysis of experiences of developing countries that have either attained UPE or made considerable progress towards it. This achievement, according to the Bank study, has been based on a positive combination of factors related to financial sustainability, service delivery and expansion (World Bank, 2002*a*; Bruns et al., 2003).[14]

However, the simulation model that underpins the framework has been criticised on grounds that insufficient recognition has been given to the limitations of poor-quality data, the unpredictability of economic growth and unreliable population projections (Takala, 2003; Rose, 2003*c*). It has also been suggested that it is based on 'flimsy evidence related to experience in ten diverse 'successful' countries, with a wide variation in the indicators' (Rose, 2003*c*).

Main advances

Since the FTI was launched, efforts have been made by both financial and technical assistance agencies and by participating countries to adhere to the principles of the Monterrey Consensus. The FTI Secretariat established at the World Bank, which includes staff from other partners in the Initiative, has monitored the development of the FTI in the light of issues emerging from partner countries and agencies. Agency partners have met on several occasions to discuss systemic issues and to mobilize resources for the Initiative.[15] The announcement of the FTI action plan and initial international resource mobilization through the Development Committee and the G8 has brought high-level political attention to the Initiative and to the EFA agenda.

In the first tranche of countries that have applied to participate, governments have developed proposals for support from the FTI. These have been reviewed by country-based funding agencies taking into consideration costing, national capacity and aid absorption and levels of incremental financing required. Policy and resource issues that have emerged as a result of these processes have been brought to the international FTI meetings through the FTI Secretariat. Recently a proposal was made that in the future, local consortia of funding and technical assistance agencies should approve funding in response to plans developed by governments and only where insufficient funds were available would the shortfall be brought to

13. As emerges from the discussion below, in reality parallel processes have occurred although it was recently proposed that countries should no longer have to develop separate FTI plans (Bruns, 2003).

14. The benchmark criteria are: (1) Financing reforms: Public revenues 14-18% of GDP; Education expenditures 20% of revenues; Primary education expenditures 50% of total education expenditures. (2) Quality reforms: Pupil/teacher ratio of 40:1; Non-salary costs 33% of recurrent expenditure. (3) Efficiency reforms: Average teacher salary 3.5 times per capita GDP; Repetition of 10%.

15. Since the Amsterdam Conference in April 2002, partners have met in Brussels in November 2002 and in Paris in March 2003. The next meeting is scheduled for November 2003 in Oslo when a second tranche of country proposals for participation in the Initiative are expected to be ready.

the attention of the international forum of the FTI (Bruns, 2003).

Of the eighteen countries that initially applied to participate, seven were endorsed for funding in November 2002 (Burkina Faso, Guinea, Guyana, Honduras, Mauritania, Nicaragua, the Niger). Three more proposals were endorsed in March 2003 (the Gambia, Mozambique, Yemen). The remaining eight countries are working on PRSPs and sector plans and seeking clarity on what the FTI can offer (Albania, Bolivia, Ethiopia, Ghana, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania, Viet Nam, Zambia). As the selected countries have a relatively small proportion of the world's out-of-school children, special attention is also being paid to five high-population countries (Bangladesh, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, India, Nigeria and Pakistan) which together account for approximately half of all out-of-school children in the world. These countries have been selected for a preparatory phase of interim capacity building, and the development of sector plans underpinned by analytical work – the so-called Analytical Fast-Track. Furthermore, special efforts are being considered for countries with poor short-term prospects for FTI eligibility but great need for support, the so-called Low-income Countries under Stress (World Bank Development Committee, 2003*a*). Additional discussions concern the possible creation of a multi-partner facility to provide flexible funding in countries with low development partner presence. The overall aim is to ensure that all low-income countries form part of the Initiative within the next two to three years (Bruns, 2003).[16]

The first seven FTI proposals

The basis for inclusion of the first seven countries was country proposals assessed by agencies working in-country, according to guidelines developed by the FTI Secretariat in Washington. These included the seven major benchmark criteria, four broad areas of concern identified in the design of the FTI (gaps in policy, financing, capacity and knowledge) and some consideration of factors identified in the Dakar Framework for Action (evidence of country ownership, inclusion of stakeholders in the development of the proposal, innovative approaches and attention to monitoring and evaluation). Finally, the possible risks to the implementation of the proposal, including the need for capacity development, were highlighted. Nevertheless, the benchmark criteria were – and have remained – the most important consideration (Rose, 2003*c*).

The Indicative Framework Criteria have been considered in all of the targets set by the seven endorsed countries. There are, however, variations among the individual countries, underlining the fact that criteria have been interpreted in some cases as a guideline, and in others as more of a conditionality. For example, while in the Niger, civil service salaries, including teachers salaries, are retained at 8.1 times per capita compared with the benchmark of 3.5. (Table 6.9), in Burkina Faso, the Indicative Framework parameters have been followed rather more closely. However, the assessment of the Burkina Faso FTI proposal questions the rigid application of the benchmarks both because of their narrow focus on primary education and of their disregard for demand-side issues. The importance of adult literacy and non-formal education as vehicles for achieving UPE and gender parity and equality is neglected.

Some of the adjustments to the FTI benchmark criteria have major policy implications.

Some of the adjustments to the benchmark criteria have major policy implications. In the case of the Niger, the FTI targets are more ambitious than those of the country's envisaged education sector programme. This is because, according to the FTI assessment, only the FTI proposal has taken into account the Niger's capacities for domestic and external resource mobilization. The adjustment of public revenues from 9.2% to 14% of GDP by 2015 has been based on a simulation model that rests on assumptions concerning the average annual rate of economic growth, a tax/GDP ratio, and specific allocations of the national budget to the education sector and to basic education. Interestingly, although the estimated resource mobilization has been termed realistic in the assessment of the proposal, macro-economic vulnerability is also identified as a major risk to implementation.

Similarly, the planned adjustment of teacher salaries is comprehensive in the cases of Burkina Faso and Honduras. In Honduras, the adjustments of salaries for regular teachers and the adoption of lower salary levels for new teachers rest on the demanding assumption that the government will manage to eliminate political influence in the hiring of teachers and to delegate labour negotiations to an entity outside the ministry of

16. A provisional analysis of priority countries undertaken by the FTI Secretariat shows that funding and technical assistance agencies tend to continue to support countries for which they already provide assistance. This leaves little or no attention to some of the selected FTI countries (for example Albania, the Gambia, Guyana and Mauritania – Information from FTI Secretariat, 5 August 2003).

Table 6.9. Indicative Framework benchmark criteria and FTI proposal targets for 2001 (base year) and 2015

	Burkina Faso	Guyana	Guinea	Honduras	Mauritania	Nicaragua	The Niger
	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001
	2015	2005[1]	2015	2015	2015	2015	2015
Public revenue 14-18% of GDP	12.5%	35%	11.5%	18.1%	27%	23%	9.2%
	14-18%	33.9%	16%	18%	23%	18%	14%
Education expenditure 20% of revenues	21%	21.2%	15.7%	22.8%	14%	14%	20%
	20%	23.6%	20%	22%	20%	20%	28.6%
Primary educ. expenditure 50% of total educ. expenditure	58%	30%	40.6%	51.6%	47%	65%	49%
	50%	40%	50%	52%	50%	65%	50%
Pupil: teacher ratio 40:1				42:1[2]			
	51:1	27:1	45.7:1	29:1[3]	43.5:1	36:1	41:1
	40:1	27:1	40:1	37.5:1	40:1	35:1	40:1
Non-salary costs 33% of recurrent expenditure	n/a	14%	32.7%	10.56%	19%	35%	28%
		20%	33%	32%	33%	35%	33%
Average teacher salary 3.5 times per capita GDP		3.4/2.9					
	7.6/3.6[4]	3.5/1.8	1.9/3.5	6/3.7/3.3[7]	4.7	2.6	3.9/8.1
	3.5	4.0/3.5[5]	3.2[6]	3.5-4	4.2	3	3.9/8.1[8] = 4.3 (aver.)
Repetition of 10%	18%	n/a	20.3%	8%	15%	25%[9]	n/a
	8%		5%	2%	10%	6%	

Notes:
1. The second benchmark date for Guyana is in all instances 2005, not 2015.
2. Rural.
3. Urban.
4. 7.6 for current teachers, 3.6 for new teachers.
5. 3.4-4.0 for existing teachers, 2.9-3.5 for new teachers, 3.5 for trained teachers, 1.8 for untrained teachers.
6. 1.9 for contractuals, 3.5 for full-time staff.
7. 6 for regular teachers, 3.7 for new teachers, 3.3 for community-hired teachers.
8. 3.9 for contractuals, 8.1 for civil servants.
9. 1st grade.

Source: *Individual Country Assessments* (www1.worldbank.org/hdnetwork/efa).

education. The reduction of teacher's salaries is potentially the most controversial issue in the context of the FTI. This is illustrated in the case of the Niger and the non-FTI country, Côte d'Ivoire (Box 6.6). Otherwise, the most important factors to threaten successful implementation in most of the countries are institutional and management capacities which (except for the case of Guinea) are not specifically linked in the assessments to the issue of absorption of new funding through FTI.

In the case of Mauritania, the development of the FTI proposal seems to have led to a constructive process of readjustments of existing targets in the national education plan, and in Honduras, to the first quantitative targets being set. In both the Niger and Mauritania more equitable funding for poorer rural regions and/or for disadvantaged groups including girls and disabled children receives attention. Improvement in the quality of education figures prominently in Honduras and Nicaragua while Burkina Faso, Guinea, Mauritania, and the Niger all plan to advance access, enrolment and completion of primary education for girls by 2015.

FTI proposals are considered to reflect country ownership because they are set in the context of nationally owned PRSPs and education plans – an understanding that has been questioned because of the strong involvement of external partners in the development of these plans, and it is a general criticism of the development of FTI proposals as well (Rose, 2003*c*). In the case of Nicaragua, the FTI process has been criticized as running parallel to the national education review planning process and co-ordinated by different ministry officials,[17] casting doubt on the degree of national consultation involved in the process and of national ownership of the product. In the case of Burkina Faso, one NGO observer questioned the FTI approach as reinforcing an educational development programme that first needed to be debated in the country (*Education Today*, 2003).

17. Raised by the regional adviser of UNICEF-TACRO at the annual meeting of the Consultative Group on Early Childhood Care and Development held in Washington D.C. 19–22 May 2003.

Box 6.6. Salaries and teachers' unions: the Niger and Côte d'Ivoire

The Niger implemented measures to reduce the teachers' wage bill in the 1990s as it could not ensure regular payment. The inadequacy of public resources led the government to pay salary arrears in the form of land. This caused other problems, in particular the expropriation of land in peri-urban areas. In 2003, there were vigorous strikes against the ordinance (introduced in 2000) that planned the retirement of all civil servants after thirty years of service or at the age of 55.

There is continued dissatisfaction about the unreliability of payments. The Confédération Démocratique des Travailleurs du Niger (CDTN) trade union has called national strikes of all civil servants on a range of issues related to conditions of service. The implications of the Fast-Track Initiative concerning differential payment of new teachers presents significant political risks.

As long as unions continue to react to unpopular measures, the stability of the education system is jeopardized.

In Côte d'Ivoire, austerity measures introduced in the 1990s included limiting teachers' service to thirty years, voluntary retirement and differentiated wage levels. Teachers hired before 1991 would keep their wage levels while those hired after 1991 would receive lower wages (up to half or less for some university teachers). This was based on the harmonisation of civil service salaries, teachers traditionally earning more than other government workers. These measures led to major disturbances and have been contentious ever since. The government abandoned this practice in 2001 and reintroduced an earnings differential in favour of all teachers relative to other civil servants.

Sources: Proteau (2002); Odunfa Kouadio (2003); Afrikeco (2003); Geocities (2001).

The first seven – funding

The FTI has not found it easy to attract substantial amounts of new funding quickly. By August 2003, US$208 million had been committed for the first seven countries for the period 2003–05 (Table 6.10). These commitments (and there is some question as to whether they all represent new money) are in addition to the estimated aid commitments of US$368 million for the same three-year period. They represent a 56% increase in existing levels of aid to primary education. Viewed a little differently, the new commitments represent 48% of the total of the original FTI submissions by the governments of the seven countries but 64% of the revised FTI estimates made by funding agencies. Accepting the very different circumstances of the seven countries, the overall FTI financing gap could be met in different ways – by an increase of 11% in government funding, 32% in agency funding relative to their commitments prior to FTI or a 57% increase in current FTI commitments. Or a combination of the three.

However these figures are interpreted, it is clear that these sums are insignificant in the context of Monterrey commitments and small in relation to the actual pledges made to basic education during 2002, which have been estimated at about US$1.2 billion in additional annual assistance (UNESCO, 2002*b*). Furthermore, the gap remains significant relative to the agreed needs of the first seven countries. There is clearly some way to go if the FTI is to be conceived as being in the mainstream of development assistance to education.

Table 6.10. Financing commitments for FTI endorsed countries[1] (August 2003 in US$ millions)

	2003	2004	2005	Total
Government and funding agencies' commitments prior to the FTI				
Government financing for primary education	355	377	395	1127
Existing funding agencies' commitments (bilateral and multilateral)[2]	127	124	116	367
Total resources available for primary education	482	501	511	1494
FTI proposals				
Additional resources required – FTI country submissions (A)	104	151	174	429
Additional resources required – revised by agencies (B)	55	122	149	326
(B) as a percentage of (A)	52%	81%	86%	76%
FTI commitments[3]	50.2	74.9	82.6	207.7
France	0	28.9	45.1	74
Netherlands	12.2	10	10	32.2
Germany	6	8.5	5.5	20
Sweden	6	6	5	17
Japan	10.5	4.5	0	15
Belgium	1	4	4	9
Canada	0	3	3	6
United States	5	0	0	5
Norway	3	0	0	3
IDA acceleration/potential pipeline	6.5	10	10	26.5
Financial gap after FTI (rounded)[4]	4.5	47.4	66.8	118.7
Financial gap as a percentage of government financing	1%	13%	17%	11%
Financial gap as a percentage of funding agencies' commitments prior to the FTI	4%	38%	57%	32%
Financial gap as a percentage of current FTI commitments	9%	63%	81%	57%

Notes:
1. Data are estimates and subject to change.
2. Commitments are based on DAC data for historical figures and on information from donors for 2003–05. Estimates do not include HIPC debt relief, which is included in the government's resource envelope.
3. New commitments estimated by FTI Secretariat. These are provisional.
4. Additional resources required, revised by agencies minus FTI commitments.

Sources: Bruns (2003); Global Campaign for Education (2003*b*).

Analytical Fast-Track

In their letters of invitation to the five high-population countries, World Bank country directors (June 2002) indicated that the purpose of the Analytical Fast-Track is to enable countries to qualify for Fast-Track financing in the mainstream of the Initiative. A technical team would work with national personnel to articulate strategies for accelerating UPE-related outcomes and ensure that the eligibility criteria for participation in the mainstream Initiative would be met as soon as possible. In other words, funding for the Analytical Fast-Track would be catalytic. While expressing general interest, the five countries have requested further details on what their participation would actually imply and what would constitute the graduation criteria from the Analytical to the mainstream Fast-Track.

The purpose of the Analytical Fast-Track is to enable countries to qualify for Fast-Track financing in the mainstream of the Initiative.

Bilateral funding agencies see this analytical work as a means to promote better in-country co-ordination. For most of the FTI countries, existing PRSPs, Interim PRSPs or sub-sector primary education or basic education plans would be used as the basis on which to determine the steps needed to make maximum progress towards the UPE goal. Work would be undertaken in three important areas whose relative importance would depend on the country context:

(1) Building policy consensus for reforms in line with the Indicative Framework. This would include enhancing civil society and private sector participation in the FTI and considering the implications of decentralized government with respect to, for example, PRSPs and education sector strategies.

(2) Enabling countries to accelerate progress towards completion of UPE within a sustainable financial framework with clarification on the overall funding gap, the possible need for increased domestic financing and improvements of the efficiency and effectiveness of government expenditure.

(3) Strengthening national and sub-national management capacity and data.

In all five cases, insufficient discussion seems to have taken place about the purpose of the Analytical Fast-Track both with the governments in question and within the agencies, between headquarters and their field offices. This perhaps explains the different reactions to its potential in Nigeria. On the one hand, it has been considered an opportunity for setting guidelines and negotiating conditionalities.[18] On the other hand, it has been a source of frustration among some ministry officials because it has appeared as a repackaging of the existing Universal Basic Education Programme, supported by the World Bank and DFID, rather than as a basis for additional technical or financial support. According to one agency official, 'the government is justifiably sceptical, because analytical is a euphemism for no extra money' (ActionAid, 2003).

In the case of India, its Tenth Five-Year Plan has already been acknowledged as the basis for eligibility to the mainstream FTI, leaving uncertainty both about the purpose of the Analytical Fast-Track and how countries move from the preparatory phase to the mainstream Initiative. If the Analytical Fast-Track is taken up and once technical support has ensured that eligibility criteria are met, it appears likely that the financial proposals may well exceed the levels of funding for the first set of countries by a considerable margin. So, seen in the context of the difficulties of securing adequate financing even for the first seven countries, it seems doubtful that access to the Analytical Fast-Track would easily translate into access to additional funding through the mainstream Fast-Track Initiative.

Ways forward

FTI is perceived by many as a potentially significant response to Dakar. It has received considerable international attention and expectations have been raised in many parts of the world. Yet the FTI has not captured the support of many agencies in a way which is commensurate to the task.

The main difficulties appear to be the following:

- Many agencies do not appear to be in a position to commit levels of additional funding for basic education consistent with the level of estimated funding needs for UPE – whether this is through the FTI or not.
- Agencies appear unwilling to allocate significant levels of bilateral funding towards an unproven global initiative, as opposed to using existing bilateral channels.
- Prioritising a sub-sector may conflict with general budget or programme support through

18. Interview with Amina J. Ibrahim, National EFA Coordinator (*Education Today*, 2003, p. 6).

education sector programmes. Another aspect of concern is that UPE is only one part of the EFA Framework for Action.
- There is a perceived risk that the FTI will create parallel planning processes within countries.
- Some agencies are concerned that a new central bureaucracy may move decision-making away from countries.
- Uncertainties remain about some of the logic and the evidence underlying the Indicative Framework.
- An emphasis on rapid results has led to commitments being made before the Framework for the Initiative has been agreed.

These issues need to be debated and resolved at an early date. The September 2003 meeting of IMF/World Bank Development Committee asked for a progress report on funding and lessons from the implementation of the FTI at its next meeting (World Bank Development Committee, 2003*c*).

The FTI can still become a real and practical response to the Dakar commitments. In its absence, its critics need to demonstrate how aid for education can be mobilized for countries that have the poorest educational indicators, the least resources and the weakest capacity, in a well co-ordinated manner in the immediate future. The diversion of relatively small sums from bilateral aid budgets through the FTI may show some measure of commitment. But they are, as yet, a completely inadequate response to the Dakar pledge.

Projects, decades and campaigns

In addition to the FTI, a number of international projects and activities are designed to promote international support for basic education. These include the task forces dedicated to education in both the Millennium Project and the Global Governance Initiative (Box 6.7). Both activities provide significant opportunities for the identification and promotion of strategies that work well in meeting the challenge of the MDGs and the EFA goals, including through the dissemination of the findings of this Report.

United Nations Decades

International Decades, a feature of United Nations activity since 1985, are designed to draw attention to issues of global significance and

Box 6.7. Initiatives and campaigns of relevance to EFA

The Millennium Project

Launched by the Secretary-General of the United Nations and the Administrator of the United Nations Development Programme, the project is designed to recommend the best strategies to meet the Millennium Development Goals (United Nations, 2003*b*). By June 2005, Professor Jeffrey Sachs, Special Adviser to the United Nations Secretary-General on Millennium Development Goals, will present the final recommendations of the Project to the Secretary-General. The project focuses on operational priorities, organizing the means of implementation and financial structures. There are ten theme task forces, one of which is on Education and Gender Equality, led by Nancy Birdsall (Center for Global Development). The Task Force has already strongly endorsed the underlying concepts of EFA, voiced support for the partnership embodied in the Fast-Track Initiative and highlighted the need for a substantive increase in current levels of external support and improvement in the effectiveness of the mechanisms by which this is channelled. Task Force papers are available on the project website (e.g. Levine et al., 2003). www.unmillenniumproject.org/html/about.shtm

The Global Governance Initiative

The World Economic Forum has launched this Initiative to monitor progress in the global effort to implement the goals in the United Nations Millennium Declaration (2000). Each year the Initiative will highlight the gaps between the goals endorsed by the international community and the effort that is being made to achieve them. It will provide a factual summary of progress, a qualitative assessment of changes in the level of effort by, and co-operation among, governments, international organizations, civil society, and business in the pursuit of each goal. This assessment will take the form of an overall rating of progress in effort and co-operation during the preceding year, accompanied by a discussion of the significant developments, initiatives, or problems. One of the seven groups is devoted to education (World Economic Forum, 2002). www.weforum.org/

Global Campaign for Education

Set up in 1999, the Campaign is a membership organization (nineteen national and seven regional coalitions, and ten international networks and organizations) that promotes education as a basic human right. It mobilizes public pressure on governments and the international community to fulfil their promises to provide free, compulsory public basic education for all people; in particular for children, women and all disadvantaged, deprived sections of society. It produces briefing and position papers on a regular basis (e.g. Global Campaign for Education, 2003*b*). www.campaignforeducation.org/_html/home/welcome/framset.shtml

Global March Against Child Labour

The movement began as a physical march in 1998 and culminated with the adoption of the Convention on the Worst Forms of Child Labour in 1998. It has partners in 150 countries. Its mission is to mobilize world-wide efforts to protect and promote the rights of all children, especially the right to receive a free, meaningful education and to be free from economic exploitation. http://globalmarch.org

Box 6.8. Literacy and sustainable development

The United Nations General Assembly proclaimed the **Literacy Decade** at its 56th session in 2001 and charged UNESCO with co-ordinating activities at the international level.

According to the International Plan of Action for the Literacy Decade (United Nations, 2002*d*), the Decade must be seen as an integral component of Education for All, given that literacy is 'the common thread that runs through the six goals'. Creating literate environments and societies is also essential for achieving the Millennium Development Goals. The Action Plan states that Literacy for All should be the central focus of all Education for All plans and programmes and that work will be undertaken within existing Education for All co-ordination mechanisms. The expected outcomes include:

- Significant progress towards the Dakar goals in terms of a recognizable increase in the absolute numbers of those who are literate among: (i) women; (ii) excluded groups in countries that are otherwise considered to have high literacy rates; (iii) regions with the greatest needs, namely sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia and E9 countries.
- Attainment by all learners, including children in school, of a mastery level of learning in reading, writing, numeracy, critical thinking, positive citizenship values and other skills.
- Dynamic literate environments, especially in schools and communities of the priority groups, so that literacy will be sustained and expanded beyond the Literacy Decade.
- Improved quality of life (poverty reduction, increased income, improved health, greater participation, citizenship awareness and gender sensitivity) among those who have participated in the various educational programmes under Education for All.

The **Decade of Education for Sustainable Development** was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in December 2002, following the endorsement at the World Summit on Sustainable Development (Johannesburg, 2002) and will commence in 2005. UNESCO has been assigned to be lead agency in the promotion of the decade as well as playing a substantive role in its implementation.

According to the Framework for a Draft International Implementation Scheme for the Decade (UNESCO, 2003*c*) the primary goal will be to promote education as a basis for a more sustainable human society, balancing human and economic well-being with cultural traditions and respect for the earth's natural resources. The Decade is designed to help to integrate sustainable development into education systems at all levels and to strengthen international co-operation for the development and sharing of innovative policies, programmes, and activities. All six EFA goals and the objectives of the Literacy Decade are conceived as integral parts of education for sustainable development. Equally education for sustainable development should be incorporated within EFA and the Literacy Decade strategies. Four major thrusts are envisaged:

- Promotion and improvement of basic education.
- Reorienting existing education programmes.
- Developing public understanding and awareness of sustainability.
- Training.

Note: E9 countries account for 50% of the world's population but 70% of the world's illiterates. They are Bangladesh, Brazil, China, Egypt, India, Indonesia, Mexico, Nigeria and Pakistan.

Sources: United Nations (2002*d*); UNESCO (2003*d*).

encourage co-operation and international action. Two new Decades are of direct relevance to EFA, the United Nations Literacy Decade 2003–12 and the United Nations Decade of Education for Sustainable Development 2005–14 (Box 6.8).

The value of a United Nations Decade is undoubtedly its potential to raise awareness and focus action on a critical global issue. In the case of the two new Decades, it has been made clear that there should be a strong and well-defined relationship with the EFA Framework for Action. The benefits of this potential and necessary synergy will require effective co-ordination, internationally and nationally, in order to avoid parallel planning, monitoring and evaluation. Given its leadership role in all three areas, this will be a considerable challenge for UNESCO.

Campaigning for education

The role of international non-governmental organizations (INGOs) in campaigning for education and becoming much more prominent in international discourse with governments and international agencies (Chabbott, 2003) is an important characteristic of the last twenty years and especially the last decade. This reflects a growing technical professionalism in NGOs, the power of the Internet, increased public awareness of global issues and the willingness of governments to fund and support NGOs, including to support their own policy work.

One study identifies five major effects of a 'new and unanticipated leadership in international EFA efforts' by INGOs (Murphy and Munday, 2002):

- A coherent and independent network of national and international NGOs with a common EFA agenda.

- The Global Campaign for Education has raised the visibility and status of basic education across the international community.
- A more focused and sustained discussion among bilateral agencies, international organizations and G7 countries about the financing of EFA and its relationship to debt relief.
- An international environment where pressure is exerted for concrete commitments of resources for EFA.
- A place for civil society in policy planning and monitoring at national and international levels.

In tactical terms, INGO networks have defined a gap between international rhetoric and reality, bypassed international education channels to go directly to the heads of governments and international organizations, promoted global approaches about how EFA goals might be achieved and pushed for high-level declarations of intent (Murphy and Munday, 2002). This work influenced the development of the *Dakar Framework for Action* and, since the World Education Forum in Dakar, the deliberations of G8, the World Bank and the European Community's education and development policies. It is a significant new force in support of EFA which seeks to heighten a sense of accountability for the goals that have been set internationally.

The Global Campaign for Education (see Box 6.7) is also active in raising public appreciation of EFA issues. For example, in April 2003, with strong backing from the United Nations, *The World's Biggest Lesson* was organized to highlight the importance of education for girls and women on the third anniversary of the World Education Forum. More than 1 million people took part worldwide. In 2004, the EFA Action Week will focus on the children who are missing any kind of education. A mass lobby *by* children *for* children is planned.

Strengthening international co-ordination

International efforts to find ways of working together more effectively underpin much of the current global impetus to enhance aid flows, improve the use of aid, collect and analyse better data and learn from research. In the context of EFA, UNESCO has a primary responsibility to promote international co-ordination and is therefore the main focus of this section.

UNESCO and EFA co-ordination

The *EFA Report 2002* (UNESCO, 2002*b*) suggested that UNESCO had interpreted its challenging Dakar co-ordination role in a relatively conservative manner. This continues to be the case.

At the request of the World Education Forum, the Director-General of UNESCO established the EFA High-Level Group. This meets annually with a membership that is re-established each year. UNESCO has also created the Working Group on Education for All which has met on four occasions since Dakar.

UNESCO has a primary responsibility to promote international co-ordination

Both groups work to a set of publicly stated objectives. In particular, the *small and flexible* High-Level Group is mandated to *serve as a lever for political commitment and technical and financial resource mobilization* (UNESCO, 2000*d*). UNESCO has also determined that the Group should be a vehicle for reviewing progress towards the Dakar goals and for assessing the extent to which international commitments are being met. The EFA Report 2002 influenced both the structure and the content of the second meeting of the group in Abuja, Nigeria, in 2002 – a model for the next meeting in New Delhi (India) in 2003.

However, on current evidence, it is not clear that the High-Level Group is yet proving to be influential in meeting its primary purpose. Neither the communiqués (Box 6.9) nor the reports (UNESCO, 2002*d*; UNESCO, 2003*f*) from the first two meetings (Paris, 2001 and Abuja, 2002) have had any visible international impact, either in generating political commitment or in mobilizing the resources required to achieve EFA. The group has however, offered a broad commentary on progress and on international commitments.

The apparent limitations of the High-Level Group are not a failure of good intentions. Indeed, in principle, the Group has the potential to deliver a strong message, underpinned by the *EFA Global Monitoring Report*. However, UNESCO is faced with a difficult conundrum. Even with a strong message, the Group has no internationally

Box 6.9. The text of the recommendations from the EFA High-Level Group 2002

- Governments in the South must ensure that free and compulsory primary education is a right reflected in national legislation and in practice. National strategies to achieve the goals of Education for All must receive their necessary share of government budgets and benefit from all possible funding sources, including debt relief.
- Strong and committed action is required by Governments to improve the status and working conditions of teachers to address the anticipated shortages signaled by the monitoring report. This anticipated shortage is being exacerbated by the impact of HIV/AIDS, conflict and emergencies. This action is particularly important as young people are no longer attracted to the teaching profession in some countries.
- Regional and sub-regional forums, starting with the Proyecto Regional de Educación para América Latina y el Caribe (PRELAC) (November 2002), the Conferences of the Ministers of Education of African Member States organized by UNESCO (MINEDAF) (December 2002) and regional initiatives such as the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) and the Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE) that promote South-South collaboration are important opportunities for mobilizing political commitment and resources for EFA.
- The meeting of funding and technical assistance agencies in Brussels (November 2002) offers an important opportunity for bilateral and multilateral agencies to co-ordinate their commitment to deliver on the promises made at Dakar and Monterrey.
- The G8 meeting in Evian, France, in 2003 presents a critical opportunity for this influential body to continue and to accelerate the valuable contribution made through its Task Force on Education.
- An advocacy strategy on EFA must be designed and co-ordinated by appropriate agencies, to address specific areas of concern in different countries and regions (for example girls' education by UNICEF and teachers' conditions by UNESCO).
- Every advantage should be taken of the coming UN Literacy Decade and the proposed UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development to advance the EFA agenda.
- Maximum use must be made of opportunities presented by the High-Level Group, the annual monitoring report, the annual EFA week and high-level international events on development issues to underline the importance of education for global development.
- UNESCO should strengthen urgently its capacity to fulfil its international co-ordination role.
- UNESCO and other key EFA agencies must devise and implement a strategy to ensure that subsequent High-Level Group meetings have higher-level representation with stronger capability of mobilizing political commitment for the EFA goals.

Note: The EFA High-Level Group first met in Paris 29-30 October 2001 (UNESCO, 2002*d*) and then in Abuja, 19-20 November 2002 (UNESCO, 2003*f*).

recognized authority beyond its Dakar mandate, nor does it have clear lines of communication with the wider United Nations system, except through UNESCO's own governance bodies. Therefore, the extent to which the group's pronouncements are influential is highly dependent on the quality of its output, upon UNESCO's own external political relationships, and the degree to which members of the Group are themselves pro-active in support of its outcomes. On this last point, because the membership changes each year, at least in part, a largely different Group assembles to assess the impact of the previous year's conclusions and recommendations. This has the merit of widening the opportunity for different countries to participate in the discussions of the Group. However, its weakness is that such an arrangement is less likely to sustain a strong, critical and consistent voice in support of EFA.

A related challenge is how to secure global attention for the messages from the High-Level Group. Broad injunctions to governments, regional bodies and agencies (such as the Abuja communiqué, Box 6.9) that are little different from those emanating from other international conferences on education have a limited lifespan.

The EFA Working Group has met on four occasions (Table 6.11), in each case with over fifty participants. The Group has been described as 'an informal mechanism to provide technical guidance to the EFA movement. It creates and sustains partnerships, supports regional and sub-regional networks, and ensures linkages among inter-agency flagship programmes in the follow-up to Dakar. It deliberates on key issues and recommends priorities for collective action to follow up the World Education Forum. It also prepares the High-Level Group meeting on EFA' (UNESCO, 2003*a*). This is a weighty agenda, particularly for an informal group, meeting over a day and a half with only partial continuity among its membership.

Table 6.11 suggests that in fulfilling its very broad role, the EFA Working Group has vacillated somewhat between a pro-active task-force approach, exemplified by work on *An International Strategy to Put the Dakar Framework for Action on Education for All into Operation* (UNESCO, 2002*a*; UNESCO, 2003*a*) and a more general sharing of experience. The product of its discussions on technical issues, such as the financing of education, has not added greatly to the substantive debate. Group recommendations are recorded in the report of the Working Group but these are not subject to follow-up or report-back discussions the following year. Moreover, the idea that the Working Group might be influential in the design and development of the High-Level Group has been modified, so that since 2002, a group of 'sherpas', which is broadly representative of the membership of the Working Group, has been convened by UNESCO to help to design the agenda and possible outputs of the High-Level Group.

There is clearly a price worth paying for evidence-based, international consultation, networking and dialogue. This is a well-established UNESCO function and to a degree it sustains a certain momentum through becoming a fixture on the annual calendar. However, as presently constituted it is difficult to see how either of the two groups can deliver on their respective mandates and make a tangible contribution to international co-operation. If this judgement is justified, either the mandates or the mechanisms deserve re-examination. The following possibilities might be considered:

The High-Level Group:

- Membership: The Dakar mandate of small and flexible has been interpreted to require a group membership of approximately twenty-five countries, agencies and NGOs invited on a broadly representative basis and partly changing each year. One option would be for the Director-General of UNESCO to convene a smaller group of high profile, ex-officio members, whose reputation would attract global attention to their findings. They would be invited to serve for a minimum of three years.

- Product: the group's product (a declaration perhaps) should be known for its independent voice, vision, and proposals for action underpinned by rigorous analysis and research, supplied in large part by the *EFA Monitoring Report*.

- Pathways: The output of the High-Level Group would be formally presented to the United Nations Secretary-General or to a committee of the General Assembly. Clear channels for the group's findings to influence the World Bank, the G8 and major regional forums would need to be identified.

- Dialogue: A new approach to facilitating Group dialogue is needed and to generate collective responsibility for its outcomes.

The output of the High-Level Group would be formally presented to the UN Secretary-General.

The Working Group:

- An option that is consistent with the suggestions for the High-Level Group is for the Working Group to become much more of a technical committee of the High-Level Group. It would monitor progress and actions arising from the previous year's High-Level Group. It would help to prepare for High-Level Group meetings by advising on agenda, emphases and follow-up. It would help draft communiqués or declarations and liaise with High-Level Group members as necessary between meetings. The broad sharing of information, which is the primary function of the current Working Group, could be pursued in a range of existing UNESCO conferences and forums.

It remains the case that UNESCO is under-resourced for the role that is has been asked to play. This is increasingly recognized (e.g. Bertrand, 2003). The existing EFA co-ordination capacity in UNESCO cannot undertake much more than the administrative function required to organize the meetings of the Groups. A larger and more technically diverse secretariat is needed. Involving UNESCO institutes more thoroughly in the process could also make a difference.

The above analysis suggests that both Groups have settled into a particular way of working that can best be described as 'consultative arenas' (Little and Miller, 2000). In their review of The International Consultative Forum on Education for All (which operated in the 1990s), Little and Miller made the distinction between an 'arena' and a 'platform'. The former is described as 'a

Table 6.11. The Education for All Working Group

Year/Participation*	Objectives and Outcomes
2000 51 (F 17 - M 34) Countries 6 Regional organizations 4 Bilateral agencies 6 Multilateral and regional agencies 6 CSOs/NGOs/foundations 8 OECD	Focus • A common framework of knowledge and understanding of what is happening in specific countries, regions and organizations, in particular what has happened since Dakar. • To (a) link EFA plans with other plans nationally; (b) examine how to mobilize international support for EFA; (c) how to monitor EFA goals and targets. Recommendations • Sub-groups to be established on what constitutes a 'good' plan, integrating EFA in wider development frameworks and criteria for 'target' or 'eligible' countries. • UNESCO to develop (a) a website for country plans and planning processes; (b) to act as a facilitator of 'truly participatory and inclusive' preparation of plans. • UNESCO to involve NGOs in the 'Dakar process'. International agencies should provide support for capacity building and monitoring. • Task force to be set up on financing for EFA.
2001 51 (F 20 - M 31) Countries 6 Regional organizations 6 Bilateral agencies 6 Multilateral agencies 6 CSOs/NGOs/foundations 7	Focus • Urgent attention to meeting the 2002 deadline for the preparation of EFA plans. • A comprehensive global EFA strategy. • *EFA Global Monitoring Report*. • High-Level Group. Recommendations • Peer review processes of national EFA plans should be put in place by the end of 2001. • A task force will draft a comprehensive strategy – a final draft by April 2002. • 'Flagships'for teachers, quality and disability proposed. • *Monitoring Report* should be aimed at all stakeholders and enable the High-Level Group to maintain the impetus for EFA.
2002 64 (F 26 - M 38) Countries 12 Regional organizations 5 Bilateral agencies 9 Multilateral agencies 7 CSOs/NGOs/foundations 10	Focus • Planning and implementing EFA. • Financing EFA. • Strengthening partnerships. • *EFA Global Monitoring Report*. • The High-Level Group. Recommendations • Planning for EFA takes place in a number of frameworks. Processes must be inclusive of all goals and civil society. • Creative communication strategies needed. • Fast-Track Initiative should be negotiated within country contexts. Financing beyond UPE needs urgent attention. • *Monitoring Report* to provide high-level tool. • High-Level Group will be effective if it is action-oriented. EFA international strategy may serve as a tool in structuring national and international partnerships.
2003 58 (F 20 - M 37) Countries 10 Regional organizations 4 Bilateral agencies 8 Multilateral agencies 5 CSOs/NGOs/foundations 11	Focus • Overview and common understanding of 'flagship' programmes. • Updates on the Fast-Track Initiative. • Third High-Level Group. • *EFA Global Monitoring Report*. • Strengthening global alliances. Recommendations • Not available at the time of writing (UNESCO, 2003*g*).

The EFA Working Group meets in Paris. It has issued four reports.
* Not including observers.
Sources: UNESCO (2000*d*, 2001, 2002*e*, 2003*e*).

loosely-organized coalition, in which participants act on the basis of shared assumptions about general purpose and desirable outcomes, but are driven by different imperatives and employ different strategies.' The latter is conceived as a 'stage, a display place, raised area, political manifesto or political programme'. Within this framework, they characterized the multi-party, multi-agency Consultative Forum as an 'arena', a focal point and the symbol of the shared global vision and the area within which that shared vision has been kept alive.

The post-Dakar evidence suggests that UNESCO has sustained the idea of 'consultative arenas', inviting people from different constituencies, on a broadly representative basis, for an annual dialogue and examination of progress. This is similar to many conference activities around the world. It is neither threatening nor intrusive. Nevertheless in a world that is highly competitive in the attention that it gives to different issues and priorities, and to the resources allocated to them, a strong, well-coordinated, well-publicized 'platform' for EFA is almost an essential prerequisite for success. This is not provided by the current mechanisms. Significant change is required to generate an impact appropriate to the scale of the EFA challenge, and to the responsibilities assigned to the High-Level Group.

Better data – better monitoring

A consistent message in nearly all reports on EFA is the critical importance of accurate and timely data if education policy is to be evidence-based and if the monitoring of progress and evaluation is to be meaningful. This is one example of a broader international concern for better indicators of development outcomes. For example, work is underway to develop a global framework to monitor the policies and actions of developing countries and development agencies for achieving the MDGs (World Bank Development Committee, 2003*a*). This draws on MDG reports orchestrated by UNDP, the work of the Millennium Development Project (Box 6.7) and of the United Nations agencies that contribute to the Secretary-General's reports on the Monterrey Consensus and the Millennium Declaration. The work of the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) and the findings of this report have a contribution to make in support of these efforts, in addition to monitoring progress towards all of the EFA goals.

In the education sector, it remains the case that many countries and international bodies are constrained in their ability to promote well-informed planning and programming by the lack of accurate and comprehensive data. This problem, as noted elsewhere in this report, is particularly acute with regard to literacy but remains a fundamental difficulty for education systems more generally. It is also a key issue if gender equality in education is to be realized, as the lack of disaggregated data remains a significant problem in developing gender-aware policy.

For this situation to improve, there is an indisputable requirement to improve the collection and the quality of information. The problems of doing this have been set out by the UIS (Lievesley, 2003), including recognition that without enhanced capacity in many countries only limited progress is possible, both in the

Box 6.10. Monitoring progress towards EFA

Monitoring Education for All

- The *EFA Global Monitoring Report* is issued annually by UNESCO. It derives its mandate from the World Education Forum and, in its funding, staffing and development is an international partnership between agencies, and is facilitated by UNESCO. www.unesco.org/education/efa_report
- The EFA Observatory in the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) is charged with collecting, analysing and disseminating up-to-date information on the state of education required by countries, regions and the international community in order to monitor progress towards the goals of EFA. Its tasks include mapping the needs for statistical data in countries and regions, conducting training workshops, developing new indicators, helping countries improve their capacity to collect and analyse data and promoting awareness of the need to use data to inform policy-making. (UNESCO-UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2003) http://portal.unesco.org/uis/

Monitoring Progress Towards the MDGs

- Each year, the Secretary-General of the United Nations reports on the Implementation of the Millennium Declaration. The first such report was in 2002 (United Nations, 2002*a*).
- The United Nations Statistics Division works in close collaboration with United Nations agencies and funds, the World Bank, the IMF and OECD. It co-ordinates data analysis and maintains the database containing the series related to the forty-eight basic MDG indicators, as well as other background series to enable more in-depth analysis (see, for example, United Nations, Statistics Division, 2002).
- Millennium Development Goals country reports are co-ordinated by UNDP. By the end of 2004 every developing country will have produced at least one MDG report (UNDP, 2003*a*). Twenty-seven such reports had been prepared by mid-2003 (e.g. Guinea, 2003). www.undp.org/mdg/country reports.html

World Education Indicators

- Starting in 1997, and with funding support from the World Bank, the World Education Indicators (WEI) project has been a joint UIS-OECD activity for the development of policy-relevant education indicators from nineteen middle-income countries (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, China, Egypt, India, Indonesia, Jamaica, Jordan, Malaysia, Paraguay, Peru, the Philippines, the Russian Federation, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Tunisia, Uruguay and Zimbabwe, representing 70% of the world's population). Outputs to date include a comparative dataset of education indicators for 1998–2001, studies of national education systems and reports on *Investing in Education* (OECD-UNESCO, 2000); *Teachers for Tomorrow's Schools* (OECD/UNESCO, 2002); and *Financing Education – Investments and Returns* (OECD/UNESCO, 2003).

International Aid

- The OECD (DAC) issues an annual set of comparative statistics and information on international development (OECD-DAC, 2003*b*). Time-series cover: volume, origin and types of aid and other resource flows to over 180 recipient countries; individual aid activities on bilateral and multilateral Official Development Assistance or Official Aid commitments by sector type – including education, donors and recipients, with textual and numerical information on projects; the amount and composition of the external debt of 168 recipient countries; key development indicators; aid charts for DAC members and recipient countries/territories and regions. www.oecd.org

Other EFA relevant databases include:

- USAID's *Global Education Database* which draws on UNESCO and household survey data and is available on-line or on CD-ROM (USAID, 2003*b*) www.oecd.org
- Data collated for UNICEF's *The State of the World's Children* (UNICEF, 2002*b*).
- World Bank database on MDGs for 207 country tables covering countries with a population of more than 300,000 (and for smaller countries that are World Bank members). They present time-series data for four of the last ten years, as available. (World Bank, 2003*c*)

collection and use of administrative data and household surveys.

While there is a regular and justifiable call on UNESCO and the international community to strengthen UIS, the scale and complexity of the issue of improving the quality of data requires well-coordinated international partnerships. Box 6.10 provides a brief summary of some of the activities and programmes that are designed to enhance co-ordination in support of monitoring educational progress, some of which derive their authority from EFA mandates and others from particular regional and institutional interests and programmes. In promoting and strengthening these partnerships, UIS has suggested that five principles should underpin the collection and co-ordination of international data:

National statistical priorities should not be distorted by international demands.

- No duplication. Collaboration across agencies with agreements to have joint data collection where feasible and to share data rather than collecting it anew.
- Data collection should reflect national needs, with national statisticians consulted about the international database. National statistical priorities should not be distorted by international demands.
- International agencies should be temperate in what data are requested.
- The idea of 'key' data is attractive. Equally, concentration on too small a set of data can mislead.
- International databases should utilise existing sources of data within countries rather than requiring new data collection. Building capacity is a critical part of all data strategies.

These and related topics have been the subject of debate over the past year between UIS, the World Bank, USAID and UNICEF and were discussed informally at the International Working Group on Education meeting in Finland in June 2003. These consultations augur well for stronger and more coherent partnerships but require more funding.

In a different but related context, OECD-DAC is co-ordinating the collection of education-related aid data, a topic in which this Report has considerable interest and which has led to a fruitful dialogue reflected earlier in this chapter about ways of strengthening the reporting and analysis of aid to education.

Box 6.11. Major international reports of relevance to EFA in 2003–04

- *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2003/4* (UNESCO)
- *Human Development Report 2003. Millennium Development Goals: A Compact Among Nations to End Human Poverty* (UNDP, 2003*b*)
- *World Development Report. Making Services Work for Poor People* (World Bank, 2003*d*)
- *The State of the World's Children 2004* focusing on girls' education. (UNICEF, 2003*b*)

Finally, brief mention needs to be made of the growing number of international reports issued each year. In 2003–04 four major reports will be published with relevance for EFA, including the EFA Report. *The Human Development Report* focuses on achieving the Millennium Development Goals, *The World Development Report* on public services and *The State of the World's Children* on girls' education (Box 6.11). This is healthy in helping to ensure that EFA is given priority attention in international debate and policy dialogue.

Flagships: the benefits of inter-agency co-ordination

The World Education Forum in Dakar emphasised the benefits of international and regional agencies working together on major cross-cutting themes that have a strong bearing on the achievement of EFA. Fourteen thematic studies prepared for Dakar – the product of inter-agency co-operation – showed relationships between access, equity and quality in education and gender, technology, aid, conflict, HIV/AIDS, health and governance. These connections are reflected in the twelve strategies included in the Dakar Framework for Action (UNESCO, 2000*f*). In addition, there was a strong and practical demonstration of agency co-operation with the launch by the United Nations Secretary-General of the Ten-Year United Nations Girls' Education Initiative (UNGEI).

In the immediate aftermath of the World Education Forum, UNESCO identified the potential benefits of recognizing, supporting and linking inter-agency programmes and activities.

It came up with the idea of 'inter-agency flagship programmes'[19] as one way of consolidating international co-operation (UNESCO, 2000*d*). At that time, six existing initiatives were identified as demonstrating a strong inter-agency approach: FRESH (Focusing Resources on Effective School Health); AIDS and education; early childhood care and education; literacy in the context of the then-proposed United Nations Literacy Decade; UNGEI; and education in emergency situations (UNESCO, 2000*d*). UNESCO also suggested that new inter-agency initiatives should be encouraged in other areas such as inclusive education, education and child labour, women and education, new information technologies, and education statistics. By the time the EFA Working Group met in July 2003 to review EFA flagships, there were nine partnerships in place following the initiation of inter-agency activities on 'The Right to Education for Persons with Disabilities: Towards Inclusion', 'Education for Rural People' (ERP), and 'Teachers and the Quality of Education'. Basic information on each of these nine flagships is provided in Table 6.12.

A clear strength of the EFA flagships idea is that significant cross-cutting activities are given a status and a profile that might otherwise be lost as individual agency programmes. They provide a focal point for the wide array of agencies that are active in the different theme areas and it is clear that the idea has, in itself, given impetus to new partnerships, for example, on disability.

The flagship programmes work in different ways – from formal initiatives with time-bound objectives to loosely-structured information networks. Some emphasise activities designed to offer direct technical support to country-level strategies and programmes, for example FRESH, ERP and UNGEI. Others place greater emphasis on advocacy, research and information exchange. This is true, for example, of ECCE and Education in Emergency and Crisis. But there is no hard and fast dividing line as each partnership defines its own comparative advantage. This diversity of function and activity is illustrated in Box 6.12 for a sample of four of the programmes: UNGEI, Disability and Inclusion, HIV/AIDS and Emergency and Crisis.

A clear strength of the EFA flagships is that cross-cutting activities are given a status and profile that might otherwise be lost as individual agency programmes.

Table 6.12. Inter-Agency flagship programmes

Flagships	Lead agency	Main source of online information
HIV/AIDS and Education	UNESCO's International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP).	www.unesco.org/iiep (This provides access to IIEP's HIV/AIDS Impact on Education Clearinghouse)
The Initiative on Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE)	Consultative Group on ECCD (a consortium of UN, bilateral and multilateral agencies, foundations and NGOs).	www.ecdgroup.com
The Right to Education for Persons with Disabilities: Towards Inclusion	Joint leadership: UNESCO and the University of Oslo.	www.unesco.org/education/inclusive
Education for Rural people (ERP)	Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO).	www.fao.org/sd
Education in Situations of Emergency and Crisis	Joint leadership: CARE USA, the International Save the Children Alliance, the International Rescue Committee, the Norwegian Refugee Council, UNESCO, UNHCR, UNICEF and the World Bank.	www.inee.org
Focusing Resources on Effective School Health (FRESH)	Joint leadership: UNESCO, UNICEF, WHO, World Bank, FAO, UNODC and several NGOs.	www.freshschools.org
Teachers and the Quality of Education	Joint leadership: ILO, UNESCO and Education International.	No website
The Ten-Year United Nations Girls' Education Initiative (UNGEI)	UNICEF	www.undg.org
Literacy in the Framework of the United Nations Literacy Decade (UNLD)	UNESCO	www.unesco.org/education/litdecade

Sources: UNESCO (2003*b*) and 'flagship' sources.

19. EFA flagship programmes were subsequently defined as a structured set of activities, carried out by voluntary partners to provide a better understanding of EFA and to contribute to the elimination of specific obstacles to the Dakar goals through targeted and co-ordinated action (UNESCO, 2002*d*).

Box 6.12. Four flagship programmes

The Ten-Year United Nations Girls' Education Initiative (UNGEI)

UNGEI was launched at the World Education Forum in 2000 by the United Nations Secretary-General. Thirteen United Nations agencies and bilateral and non-governmental organizations work co-operatively to help governments meet their commitments to ensure quality education for girls everywhere. Since its launch, several activities have been undertaken in the field of advocacy, capacity building and research. One country, Egypt, has officially signed a UNGEI compact. This is designed to ensure that political and resource commitments are made at the highest levels of government to end gender inequality in education and that United Nations and all other partners support the country in the development of a coherent and realistic strategy.

At the end of the 2002, the '25 by 2005' Initiative was launched by UNICEF, lead agency for UNGEI. This aims to accelerate progress on girl's education in twenty-five countries, to meet the goal of gender equality in primary and secondary education by 2005. In part, it represents an attempt to overcome some of the challenges faced by the UNGEI partnership, including the need to adopt a more pro-active approach in supporting countries which face the greatest challenges and to assist them with sufficient human and financial resources.

The Right to Education for Persons with Disabilities: Towards Inclusion

This flagship programme was launched in April 2002. The process of its development represents a significant breakthrough in establishing a common international platform based on a conceptual framework to which a broad community of agencies and organizations that work for the disabled can subscribe. By expanding its membership through the flagship programme, the International Working Group on Disability and Development (IWGDD), a loose alliance of some twenty agencies and NGOs, including UNESCO, UNICEF and the World Bank, became an alliance of global disability organizations, United Nations and bilateral agencies and disability experts from the South and the North. Adopting the status of EFA flagship helped to trigger new funding commitments, notably from the World Bank, Finland and Norway. Indeed, the concept of a flagship was seen as more dynamic and action-oriented that the previous 'working group'. While still at a planning stage, the flagship has started to collaborate on inclusive education issues in the context of the second Asian and Pacific Decade of Disabled Persons (2003–12) and the OAU African Decade of Disabled People (2000–09).

HIV/AIDS and Education

This initiative represents the work undertaken by the UNAIDS Inter-Agency Task Team on Education (IATT). In May 2003, the team published *HIV/AIDS and Education: A Strategic Approach**. This recognizes that the EFA and MDG goals may not be achieved in many countries because of HIV/AIDS, in many cases for lack of a coherent education sector strategy designed to respond to the HIV/AIDS epidemic. It identifies policies with the potential to mitigate the impact of HIV/AIDS on individuals, education processes and systems and use education for preventing HIV infection. With funding from several partners, the UNAIDS IATT has spearheaded an *initiative to accelerate the education sector response to HIV/AIDS in Africa.* This calls for a multi-partner effort from the United Nations system, bilateral agencies, countries, NGOs, and the private sector at three levels: advocacy at ministerial level to promote understanding and political will, capacity-building through facilitative seminars at the technical level to promote understanding of feasible actions and technical assistance from regional task teams to help ministries of education develop and implement prioritised country implementation plans. The initiative seeks to share experiences among countries in sub-Saharan Africa. Eleven countries have been involved so far (Burundi, Cameroon, Congo, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Gabon, Kenya, Nigeria, Uganda, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia).

Education in Situations of Emergency and Crisis

This programme draws attention to the educational needs of populations affected by crises and man-made or natural disasters and promotes improved collaboration and effectiveness in education responses during crisis, post-crisis and early reconstruction, through communication, information/knowledge and resource sharing, and advocacy. The Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) was formed in November 2000 to serve as a major vehicle for reaching out to education practitioners around the world working in situations of emergency and crisis. Since its launch, INEE has operated at the global level through its website for sharing of information, best practices and training materials. While it has no mandate to implement projects or co-ordinate agencies during crises, it does enable network members to work more effectively, including through training opportunities and by encouraging collaboration. The partnership now has over 530 individual members and 85 organizations.

* An initial draft was produced by a UNAIDS Inter-Agency Working Group on HIV/AIDS, Schools and Education.
Sources: UNESCO (2003*g*); UNICEF (2003*a*); UNESCO-IIEP (2003).

It remains too early to say whether the flagships, individually and collectively, will add significant value to the achievement of the EFA goals, over and above existing international partnerships in areas such as HIV/AIDS and emergencies. The idea of flagships certainly gives a sense of collective endeavour and partnership in pursuit of a common goal, and it offers an international framework with the potential to recognise and exploit linkages, for example, in the relationship between girls' education and HIV/AIDS. But ultimately it is the extent to which the programmes contribute to the achievement of significant outcomes at a country level which is key and this requires a very clear strategy as to how the interface between 'flagships' and national education strategies actually functions, especially if a number of these inter-agency partnerships are active in the same country. National as well as international co-ordination is required.

As UNESCO is the lead agency of two flagships and joint lead of five, it has the potential to play a central role in strengthening the overall impact of flagship programmes. This would suggest the importance of ensuring a pro-active co-ordination role in its own participation across the flagships, backed by provision of an appropriate level of resources and the mobilisation of its sectors, field offices and institutes in support of flagship activity.

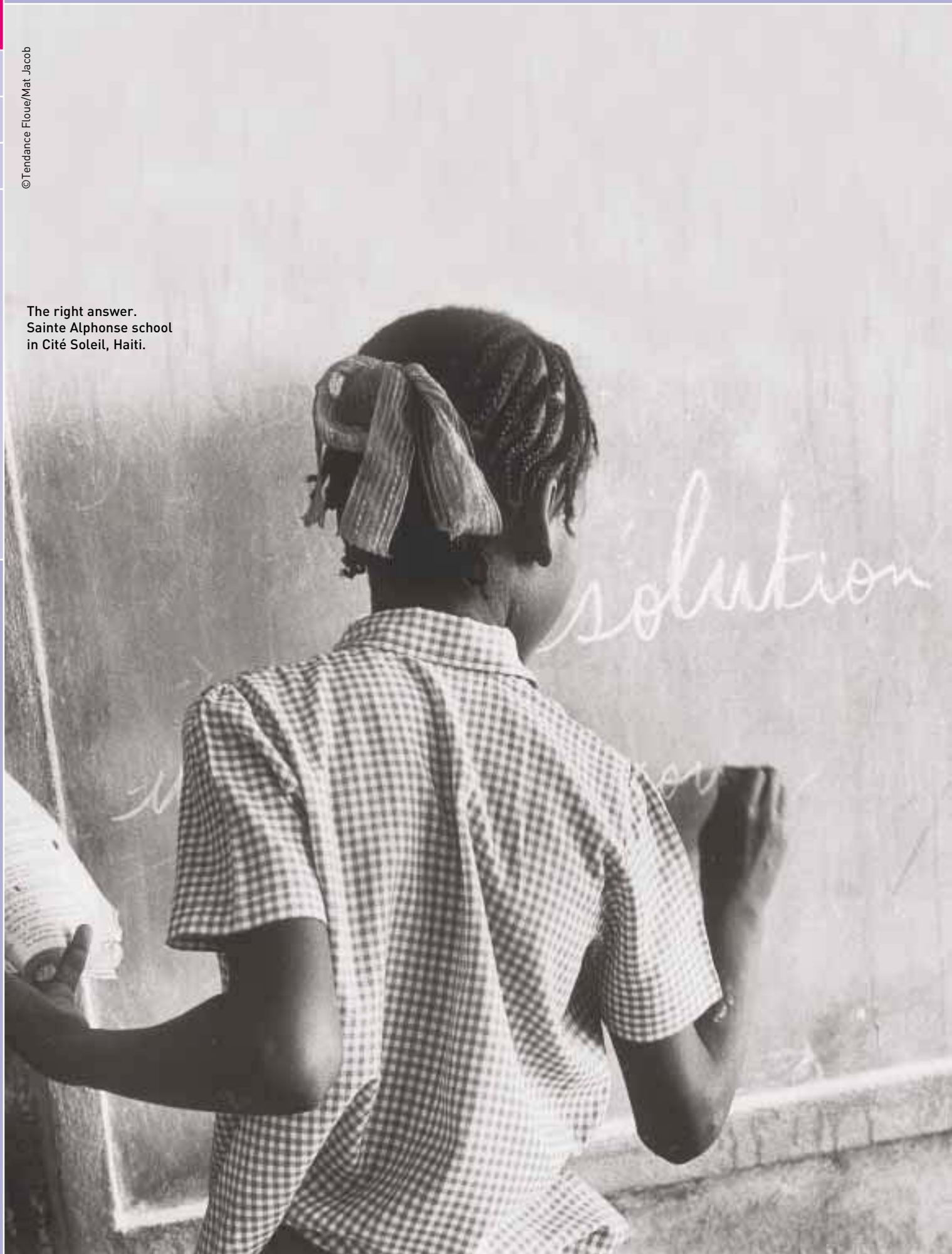
The issue of whether there should be formal co-ordination *across* the flagships by UNESCO, including a strong flow of information about all of the flagships (which are neither well known nor well understood internationally), was the subject of some discussion at the fourth meeting of the EFA Working Group on EFA (UNESCO, 2003*e*) but still remains largely unresolved. If there is a demand for UNESCO to take on a stronger, central co-ordinating function, this has to be balanced against the need to respect the diversity and flexibility that is the hallmark of the flagship partnerships. It also has resource and staffing implications for UNESCO.

Summary

It is clear from this overview of aid flows, initiatives, campaigns, and efforts to improve co-ordination that there is no lack of international activity on basic education. Indeed if success were to be judged by the range of commitments, initiatives, projects and publications, it would appear that EFA is receiving the attention it rightly deserves. But of course that is not the basis on which to make well-founded judgements. Three years after Dakar, the international response to enabling every girl, boy, woman and man to enjoy their right to a basic education remains well short of their needs and the commitments that have been made. This is not to deny the central role of national governments in achieving EFA, but it is recognition of the significant gap between international rhetoric and reality, relating both to levels of funding for EFA and to a real willingness to work together in a well-coordinated manner. There are many political and technical constraints to making the leap of faith and practice required but it is difficult to be optimistic unless that leap is made. As the United Nations Secretary-General noted in his recent report to the UN General Assembly, albeit in a slightly different frame of reference, 'Member states [of the UN] need at least to take a hard look at the existing 'architecture' of international institutions and ask themselves whether it is adequate for the tasks we have before us' (United Nations, 2003*a*).

There is a significant gap between international rhetoric and reality.

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The right answer.
Sainte Alphonse school
in Cité Soleil, Haiti.

Chapter 7

Gendered strategies for EFA

The world as a whole is moving closer to reaching the EFA goals and there are many successes to acclaim. There have been major strides towards UPE, as measured by net enrolments, in South and West Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean and in some of the Arab States. There has also been a strong global move towards greater gender parity, particularly at primary level, where the proportion of girls to boys enrolled has improved from 88% to 94% over the past decade. But many countries, despite great efforts, have made little progress. Population growth has remained strong and, partly because of this, the number of the world's children who remain out of school declined only marginally – by about 3% – over the decade. Furthermore, the gender balance at higher levels of schooling in the poorer developing countries is strongly dominated by boys and much remains to be done to achieve gender equality in education in most parts of the world. This final chapter focuses on future national and international strategies to achieve EFA, with particular emphasis on the gender goals.

Quantitative aspects of progress

Gender inequality in education entails serious losses for society.

The overriding case for achieving equal access to, and treatment within, education derives from principles of human rights, which are clearly enshrined and accepted internationally. In addition, however, gender inequality in education entails serious losses for society. Where girls and women are more educationally disadvantaged than boys and men, shifting the balance towards girls will, over the medium term, improve economic growth, increase farm output and the incomes of the poorest, nourish citizenship, enhance the well-being of children, reduce fertility, and improve the prospects for future generations. For a large range of reasons, removal of gender gaps in education should have first priority in all programmes of expansion and qualitative improvement.

This report demonstrates the extent to which such changes in direction are required. The gender goal for 2005 aims to achieve parity in primary and secondary enrolments by that date. Chapter 2 shows that 52 out of 128 countries have achieved this goal, or are likely to do so by the intended date. The goal is likely to be missed, however, by more than half of these countries, one-third of which are in sub-Saharan Africa.

Twenty-two of those countries that will miss the 2005 goal should be able to achieve parity by 2015, but fifty-four of them (two-fifths of the total) are unlikely, on present trends, to achieve parity even by then. In most of these cases, secondary schooling is the lagging subsector. These countries are concentrated in sub-Saharan Africa (sixteen), and in East Asia and the Pacific (eleven), and they include China and India.

Gender disparities in enrolments are overwhelmingly in favour of boys. In a significant minority of countries they favour girls – mainly in Latin America and the Caribbean, Europe and some southern states in sub-Saharan Africa. These disparities are usually small and they are concentrated at secondary level. However, they have often been worsening in recent years, and they will require policy attention if shifts back towards parity are to be achieved.

This report uses a new Education for All Development Index (EDI) to provide a summary measure of progress towards EFA. It incorporates proxy measures for UPE, gender parity, adult literacy and school quality. Each of these elements are given equal weight, and the index can thus be used as a rough indication of the 'average' extent of national progress towards four of the six EFA goals. No attempt has been made to project values of the index to 2015, because at present only around half of all countries can be included in it, owing to lack of data. However, a cursory inspection of current values, for those countries represented, indicates that a major challenge exists. Only sixteen countries, from the ninety-four for which data are available, have achieved the four goals, or are close to doing so (having an EDI of 0.95 or higher). No country from South and West Asia (except Maldives), sub-Saharan Africa or the Arab States is yet in that category. Furthermore, more than one-third of the countries have EDI values lower than 0.80, indicating that they have far to go to reach EFA.

It must be emphasized, however, that rapid progress towards EFA can be made by these countries. Planning and policy reform is capable of bringing many nations closer to achieving EFA over the next decade, provided that it is supplemented by strong external support from the aid community. As regards the gender goals, even for those countries likely to fail to reach gender parity at primary and secondary levels by 2005, policies are available to speed up their transition, and in such circumstances their longer-term prospects to 2015 are more promising.

Gender-aware strategy for education

Context matters

Effective policy design obviously requires an understanding of the extent and nature of the problems to be addressed. This report shows that gender inequality is usually deeply rooted, and inequality in educational participation and outcomes reflects broader inequalities in society. Social norms and customs create powerful incentives that guide people's behaviour, and determine the roles that women and men can have in the family and community. Social norms are embedded in kinship and religious systems that are highly diverse across – and often within – societies. But such norms can and do change –

in response to environmental and economic change and to broader political and social developments. Change can result from deliberate actions of state or civil society organizations, and from legislative and institutional social reforms. These can influence the expectations and incentives governing human behaviour – including those affecting educational participation and performance.

Decisions about participation in schooling are made by families. It is here that notions of gender relations are transmitted from one generation to the next. This happens implicitly via the gender roles that members of the household themselves fulfil, and explicitly through the gender frameworks within which children of each sex are brought up. Households allocate time for different activities among their members, and they also allocate resources – for consumption, savings and investment, including those associated with the formation of human capital – between each of them. These allocations are influenced by the broad social and institutional framework of custom and opportunity in which households are located. But changing the factors that affect household constraints, opportunities and incentives is a critically important means of influencing their decision-making.

Role of the state

The state's role in this is important in at least three principal ways: *creating an enabling environment* for promoting gender equality in education through legislative and policy reform; *investing in redistribution*, by targeting resources for female education and introducing special measures to reduce inequities; and *mitigating the burden of external shocks* on girls and women, such as the effects of conflict, economic crisis and HIV/AIDS. Although changes to education policy are critically important, in order to be successful, actions to promote gender parity and equality in education need to be nested within a wider set of measures affecting many other aspects of economy and society.

Creating an enabling environment

Legislative reform

Most nations are signatories to human rights treaties that guarantee equal access to education. However this report shows that national reporting to treaty bodies is often slow and implementation is patchy. In order to improve equality in education, a broad and supportive national legal framework is required. This should go beyond the establishment of compulsory schooling legislation, which is often ineffective in the absence of more broadly based rights protection. Legal measures which ensure that women enjoy non-discrimination and protect their fundamental freedoms are necessary bases for gender equality. The establishment of property rights is a crucial element in securing economic and social justice for women. Reforms may also be required in family law, to influence behaviour where the impact of customs and social norms may otherwise be decisive. The agenda here covers aspects of marriage rights, control of property, divorce, custody and inheritance. These are often deeply controversial issues as they affect many aspects of the relationship between men and women and their respective rights over children. However, they can provide a decisive counterweight to the influence of social norms on life decisions – including those which affect whether or not children are sent to school.

Mainstreaming gender within institutions

Both women's and men's interests need to be explicitly considered in the design of all legislation, policies and programmes. The overall objective of this kind of 'mainstreaming' is to ensure that women and men benefit equally, and that inequality is not perpetuated. It means that all development decisions and interventions need to be gender aware. It carries implications for the staffing, procedures and culture of all institutions as well as for the programmes that they run. In the past, gender issues in aid dialogue and within aid agencies themselves have often been vaguely specified – too inconsistently to achieve solid results. In national governments, dedicated 'gender units' have often been understaffed, underfinanced and lacking in real authority.

In most countries, a strong general policy on gender equality is required at national level. This can inform practice throughout the administration and at sectoral levels. Policy development needs sex-disaggregated data and analytical information, made easily available. 'Champions of change', preferably at senior levels of the bureaucracy, are needed to build support and provide an example. Many female ministers of education have provided excellent examples of what can be done. But they need to

All development decisions and interventions need to be gender-aware.

be more widely spread within governments. Capacity needs to be built in government and CSOs to allow groups campaigning for gender equality to engage with the national policy process.

Encouraging NGOs

In most countries in the developing world, non-state providers have had a longer engagement with education service provision than the state itself. As pressures to expand have increased, particularly where the adjustment burden has been intense, non-state providers have become an attractive option in several countries. This can work to the advantage of girls. NGOs can be major contributors and they are generally committed to ensuring that education reaches the poorest and most disadvantaged groups. Many of the most innovative educational experiments which have focused on girls' enrolments have been undertaken by NGOs. Religious providers are also long-established in many parts of the world, and have often been responsible for ensuring an education for otherwise excluded groups, including girls. However, they are usually conservative organizations, tending to reinforce, rather than undermine, local gender stereotypes. Their activities may help to attain gender parity in education, but they have sometimes made equality more distant. Both private-sector and community schools are also active in many countries. Here, the costs of attendance are often significant and their impact on gender parity and equality in education is often less positive. On balance, then, NGO activities can be a useful complement to state endeavours, but the activities of other providers have a less certain impact on equality. Policies need to be informed by an assessment of gender impact, as regards both the access of girls to these forms of schooling, and the relative quality of different schooling models.

NGOs are generally committed to ensuring that education reaches the poorest and most disadvantaged groups.

Investing in redistribution

Many households find it difficult to send all their children to school. Their incomes are too low to afford the costs involved. Changing the costs – including the opportunity costs – of school attendance and their incidence between the sexes is necessary in these circumstances. This is particularly so in poor communities, and where parents can expect to receive more future income from their educated sons than from similarly educated daughters. Equalizing the benefits that arise from schooling is a more fundamental process, founded upon achieving a society and labour market free from discrimination such that the opportunities and advantages faced by all children at given levels of education and achievement are broadly equal.

School fees

The direct and indirect costs of schooling to households include, but are not limited to, the fees charged by schools or governments for school attendance. Abolishing primary-school fees can have a major impact on boosting the enrolment of both girls and boys. Where they still exist at primary level – as they often do in the form of charges for books, equipment, or participation in sports, if not for tuition – they need to be removed.

Table 7.1 shows that primary-school fees are still charged in twenty-six of the thirty-four countries (excluding Macao, China) that are unlikely to reach the gender goal for primary schooling in 2005. It can also be seen that fourteen of these 'at risk' countries, all of which charge fees, have net enrolment ratios of less than 80%.

The removal of school fees in these countries would probably be the single most effective means of raising primary enrolments and reducing gender disparities in the short term. This would, of course, imply increased costs to the state for each and every child enrolled in school, and there would be an additional cost impact arising from the enrolment increases themselves. The fee element of total costs varies substantially between countries, and no dependable data are available on a comparative international basis. Rough estimates, based on national studies, suggest that fees – where they are charged – account for 5%–15% of unit costs in typical cases. The enrolment impact will also vary, depending on base-year NER levels, but, in some cases, its accommodation would alone require a major increase in public spending on primary schooling.

The experience of a number of African countries where fees have recently been abolished suggests that, at least where they represent a significant proportion of household schooling costs, it would be best for their removal to be phased over a (short) number of years. The negative impact on school quality of large proportionate increases in primary enrolments in any one year can be substantial. New classrooms

have to be built, teachers trained, equipment purchased – all of which take more than a few months to provide. In their absence, the increased enrolments cause class sizes to increase, sometimes to insupportable levels, and the quality of learning can be badly affected. If the necessary resources to support the expanded primary system are not forthcoming it will not be long before enrolments again begin to decline. Experience shows that early candidates for dropping out, in such circumstances, will be girls. Accordingly, it is critically important that governments budget carefully for the increased financial costs implied by the removal of fees, and plan for the provision of the additional physical and human resources necessary to underpin schooling of an acceptable quality, in the context of rapid expansion. Programmes of international co-operation would be ideal instruments to help to bridge the resource gaps involved in these cases.

Measures to reduce child labour

Eliminating the fee aspects of direct costs is only one, albeit important, part of the challenge of achieving gender parity and equality in education. Tackling the opportunity costs is equally important. This report shows that the need for children to work – the source of the opportunity costs of school attendance – is one of the most important causes of under-enrolment in school. Accordingly, measures to reduce or remove the need for child labour represent, in many countries, an important means of increasing school enrolments among both girls and boys.

The design of policy to address child labour depends on recognizing that most children work with or for their parents in economies where markets are underdeveloped and where the legal and political infrastructure is thin. Bans on the worst forms of child labour are needed in all countries, where existing legislation is inadequate. Where such work continues to be allowed, trade sanctions are required at the international level. Pressure to apply international labour standards and the introduction of minimum wages is needed to combat the incidence of child factory workers. But, in order to reduce the extent of child labour in households and on family farms, additional measures are required.

As regards long-term changes, measures to raise the productivity and hence the wages of adult labour will reduce the need to depend on the labour of children. In addition, any measures that reduce discrimination in employment or wages against women will, by raising the return to girls' education, discourage child labour among girls.

Where the main cause of child labour is the returns from such work compared with those

Table 7.1. School fees in countries at risk of not achieving gender parity in primary schooling

Gender parity prospects	Primary school fees charged		Primary NER
	Yes	No	2000
Likely to miss parity in 2005, but to achieve it by 2015			
Algeria[2]		X	98.3
Benin[1]	X		*70.3***
Cambodia[2]	X		85.4**
Chad[2]	X		58.2
Comoros[2]	X		56.2**
Congo[2]	X		n.a.
Cuba[2]		X	97.3
Ghana[2]	X		58.2
Lao People's Democratic Republic	X		81.4
Paraguay[2]	X		92.1**
Sudan[2]	X		49.5**
Syrian Arab Republic[2]		X	96.3**
Togo	X		91.2
Uganda		X	n.a.
At risk of not achieving parity in 2015			
Burkina Faso	X		35.5
Burundi	X		53.7
Côte d'Ivoire	X		62.2
Djibouti	X		32.6**
Estonia		X	97.6
Ethiopia	X		46.7
India		X	*85.7*
Iraq[1]		X	*92.9*
Kyrgyzstan[2]	X		82.5
Macao, China	n.a.	n.a.	84.8
Madagascar[2]	X		67.7
Mongolia[2]	X		88.8
Mozambique	X		54.4
Niger[2]	X		30.4
Papua New Guinea[1]	X		*83.8***
Saint Lucia	X		99.7
Sierra Leone	X		*65.2*
South Africa	X		88.9**
Swaziland	X		92.8**
Thailand		X	85.4**
Turkey[2]	X		n.a.
Total countries (excluding Macao, China)	26	8	

Notes:
1. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.
2. Countries with legal guarantee of free education.
** UIS estimate
Sources: Tables 2.25, 3.3, and Statistical annex, Table 5.

from schooling, investments in the quality of schooling will pay off. Further, for girls to reap the (pecuniary) benefits of their education over the long run, measures need to be taken to reduce labour market segmentation (where males and females typically do different sorts of work) as well as wage discrimination. Regulatory measures to stop such practices are difficult to enforce in rural economies. Thus, social mobilization, education and the organization of women are more likely to bring about an equalization of these differences than legislation per se. Measures to encourage increased participation of women in the labour market will also increase their say in household decision-making and their control over resources. As such, women appear to spend more resources on children than do men. This may be expected to further encourage the education of the next generation of children. The new role models implied by these changes would also be likely to lead to the impact on girls being larger than on boys.

Measures to encourage increased participation of women in the labour market will also increase their say in the household.

Policies can also be designed specifically to provide parents with incentives to send their children to school. Financial incentives such as cash transfers to cover the forgone 'wage' of the child are often relevant even where household poverty is not compelling. In such cases, these transfers can be made conditional on school attendance, as has happened in a number of successful schemes discussed in Chapter 4 of this report. Scholarship programmes, and – under closely managed circumstances – school feeding programmes can both provide targeted support to secure higher school attendance of girls.

Finally, one major problem in assessing the degree to which policy change is required is that the extent of domestic child labour is largely unknown. Because much of this work remains hidden, a priority is to increase the availability of data and knowledge about its extent and characteristics. This aspect of child labour demands urgent attention, as the nature and extent of exploitation involved is difficult to assess and combat. The vast majority of children affected are girls.

Ensuring gender-aware curricula and school facilities

Schools should be places where gender stereotypes are undermined. However, everyday classroom practices often reinforce traditional gender differences. Teacher training rarely focuses on gender awareness. Thus, ideas that girls are less intelligent and less likely to do well than boys are not uncommonly held by teachers. Sexism in textbooks, with girls being portrayed only in traditional caring roles, remains common. Such expectations – held by teachers and implied by teaching materials – confirm rather than undermine the status quo. Curricula need to be audited from a gender perspective and, where necessary, redesigned in a gender-aware fashion. Gender training for teachers should be an essential prerequisite for their appointment. Measures to ensure a gender balance in the teaching profession, and within individual schools, will help to provide positive role models for both girls and boys.

Particularly in the poorest countries, classroom equipment and school availability can make attendance more difficult for girls. The absence of private sanitary facilities, of desks and chairs, even of nearby running water, all help to dissuade girls from attending. The distance from home to school is a greater barrier for safety-conscious parents. Thus the prevalence of distant schools with poor facilities are additional constraints acting to reduce the participation of girls in school, and their performance once enrolled. School mapping, and the provision of school facilities and equipment, in the context of an acceptable class size, should be conscious of explicit gender perspectives and criteria. A different set of biases affects girls suffering from disability. They appear to be less recognized than their male counterparts, they are less likely to be provided with medical support and, in many developing countries, their education is largely ignored.

Tackling crisis and shocks

There are important contextual factors that go beyond questions of norms, customs and incentives. These factors include the effects of HIV/AIDS, of armed conflict, and of a culture of violence in schools, each of which has serious implications for the education of girls and for their futures. They deeply affect whether or not many girls go to school at all and, if they do, whether they drop out early or underperform while attending.

HIV/AIDS

The impact of the HIV/AIDS pandemic affects adolescent girls much more than boys: they have higher rates of infection and they have greater

care and work responsibilities than boys when their families are affected by illness. It is a responsibility of schools to seek to empower learners to live sexually responsible and healthy lives. In that context, HIV/AIDS and sexual and reproductive health (SRH) education should be a professional subject area in its own right within the curriculum. Teacher training in these skills is a critical need as many teachers are reluctant to deal with sensitive and, in some cases, taboo topics. As part of such support, accurate and high-quality teaching and learning materials, and systems of back-up guidance need to be in place. Curriculum changes per se will remain weak in the absence of a fully professionalized response to integration of HIV/AIDS into school programmes.

Conflict

Armed conflict has also affected many of the poorest countries over the past decade. It has been particularly disruptive for the education of girls, who become more vulnerable to sexual violence and exploitation in such circumstances. The increased danger means that they are more likely to be kept at home. A majority of refugees are women and girls, whose risks, if anything, are enhanced in typical circumstances of displacement. This is a major problem for which there are emerging lessons of good practice, but no easy solutions. The general issue was covered in some detail in the *EFA Report 2002* (UNESCO, 2002, pp. 122–6, 157–62). The report concluded that solutions are best found within the affected communities. Locally established school or community education committees can be the vehicle for organizing labour to erect temporary facilities. They can help to identify and appoint experienced teachers, social workers, project managers and supervisors for projects and in schools supported by internal or external resources. However, gender considerations add to the complexities already faced by most conventional programmes of response. Children affected by crisis and conflict have special needs for good teaching to help them rebuild a sense of self-esteem. They need extra emotional support – particularly where they have lost close family members. They need opportunities for safe recreation, with teachers and leaders who do not represent additional sources of threat. Such children need care and support which go well beyond the expectations of school personnel operating in more 'normal' conditions. There is usually a major need for trained workers to help respond to the enhanced vulnerability of girls in these circumstances.

Preventing violence in schools

Schools are supposed to be places of learning, growth and empowerment, yet they can often be sites of intolerance, discrimination and violence, with girls being disproportionately the victims. Closing the gender gap requires confronting the sexual violence and harassment that leads to underachievement and high drop-out rates among girls. Gender-based violence in schools exists in all parts of the world. Much of the most innovative work to counter it has been initiated by NGOs, often in connection with HIV/AIDS education. This has often occurred outside the formal school setting – in part because ministries of education have been reluctant to address this issue. Where school authorities have failed to acknowledge its existence, it has often flourished and become institutionalized. Efforts are needed to empower girls and women and to sensitize men to the needs and rights of girls and women. Vigorous action is needed, bringing together students, parents, teachers and school administrators, to protect girl pupils from harassment, sexual assault and rape.

Closing the gender gap requires confronting sexual violence and harassment in schools.

National strategies for EFA

The role of the state is central if good-quality basic education is to become both a right and a reality for every citizen. EFA requires enforceable legislation, equitable long-term investments and well-managed, technically sound education strategies. Non-governmental and community provision and private-sector investment have their place in education but they cannot provide a long-term substitute for state action and responsibility.

What makes the difference?

There is no single recipe for achieving EFA. Patterns of poverty, of access to education and of educational quality differ enormously between and within countries. These different circumstances require diverse strategies tailored to need and local conditions. Very small states (forty-three countries have a population of below 500,000) are often constrained in the range of educational opportunities that they can provide, leading to hard choices about national versus international

provision. Those countries confronted by HIV/AIDS and by conflict are having to rethink traditional approaches to the provision of schooling, notwithstanding that their societies lack stability and, at worst, even hope for their future.

Nevertheless, in broad terms, this report suggests that there are some common factors among those countries making more rapid progress. Moves towards EFA appear to be stronger in more democratic states and in those with a stronger institutional base. Economic growth supports progress towards EFA, particularly where institutions are working well. Domestic educational expenditure is also found to support progress towards EFA in poorer and more democratic states. In these contexts, extra investment is likely to have greater impact than in richer countries, where access to good-quality education is already high. Increased aid also makes a difference if there are effective institutional structures. There are obviously exceptions to these generalizations. However, they serve to emphasize the importance of reform, investment and institutional development as means of securing rapid progress towards EFA.

Moves towards EFA appear to be stronger in more democratic states and in those with a stronger institutional base.

Movement towards reform

Targets can help with the process of reform. The evidence in this report suggests a growing commitment to the EFA goals and to the MDGs, allied to a willingness to undertake the types of institutional reform and the investment decisions that will be required over the next decade. Some large countries, such as Brazil and India, have already injected urgency into their determination to reach significant medium-term EFA targets, supported by new legislation and policy change. Targets help if they stimulate planning attention and if, via a public process, they heighten the accountability of government.

In this context, the place of civil society in support of education is receiving much more attention than hitherto, even in countries where there has been little tradition of public action or social movements outside formal political frameworks. However, its contributions to the articulation of policy and practice in education are mixed. This is partly because the transition from providing education through non-governmental channels to sitting at national and local policy tables is not easy, either for government or CSOs themselves.

Greater participation and accountability in education and the decentralization of education services are increasingly linked. It is estimated that 80% of developing and transition countries are experimenting with some form of decentralization. This takes many forms, but it commonly involves a shift in the locus of management responsibility from the centre towards schools and other education institutions. It is not yet clear whether decentralization, in whatever form, results in better learning outcomes. More evidence and analysis of this issue is needed.

Reference has already been made, earlier in this chapter, to the critical importance of making education – especially primary education – affordable for everyone. A significant number of governments have accepted that direct charges and fees should not be a barrier to education. How this breakthrough is to be put into practice requires some difficult judgements, particularly if the immediate expansion of enrolments is not to prejudice better quality. Nevertheless the acceptance that 'free' education is a central plank of government policy is an extremely important component of a national EFA strategy.

Meeting international commitments

The aid record during the 1990s was dismal, and aid to education reflected the overall trend – falling by up to one-fifth in real terms over the period 1990–2001. Even in very recent years the trend remained in place, with both bilateral and multilateral aid to education decreasing by about 15% between 1998/99 and 2000/01. On the other hand, it seems that commitments for basic education over the same period increased by about one-fifth, to about US$1.5 billion. This is to be welcomed, but it still falls far short of the likely additional aid requirements for basic education of around US$5.6 billion per year needed to reach universal enrolment in primary education with gender parity in schools of acceptable quality.[1]

Sub-Saharan Africa receives just over one-quarter of bilateral aid to education, whereas South and West Asia (having one-third of the world's out-of-school children) receives only about one-tenth of the total. Similar regional priorities characterize multilateral aid, although

1. This is the annual additional amount of aid required, as estimated by UNESCO (2002).

up to one-third of IDA funding for education goes to South Asia.

In general, education aid appears to be attracted by better-performing systems. An analysis of flows to 77 countries shows that the amount of aid per out-of-school child increases sharply with the level of net enrolment. Similarly, for 120 countries, those with higher literacy rates receive considerably more aid per illiterate adult than those with lower literacy, where the priority for aid ought to be higher. Thus, education aid is not sufficiently focused on the countries that need it most. It has been falling overall, and the efficiency of allocation, taking a global view of need, is low.

Attainment of the EFA goals requires a substantial increase in aid to basic education. However, aid alone will be insufficient. Increased financial transfers to countries which have poor policies, and a weak institutional environment, are unlikely to pay dividends for EFA. History also shows that the diffuse objectives of agencies, the different modalities under which aid is provided, and its poor co-ordination within developing countries, often undermine aid effectiveness. The recent inception and development of the Fast-Track Initiative (FTI), designed to help achieve UPE by 2015, has highlighted the difficulties of securing a more effective use of international resources, whether financial flows or technical assistance.

The FTI is a response to the sense of urgency created by the World Education Forum in 2000. By mid–2003, some US$207 million had been committed to the FTI. This is a very modest contribution in comparison with the annual additional aid required for EFA. Furthermore, it is not clear whether all these funds represent new, as distinct from repackaged, aid allocations to education. Why is this so? Why has there been unwillingness on the part of most funding agencies to give strong support to this global initiative?

The answer seems to derive partly from concern about whether a multilateral initiative is the best way of using scarce aid resources. Despite their stated support for the FTI, a number of influential bilateral agencies seem to retain strong doubts about the effectiveness of special multilateral initiatives, preferring more direct interventions within countries. Secondly, some agencies ask whether a separate, subsector initiative will be at odds with programmes of ongoing budgetary support or with Sector-Wide Approaches. Indeed, much of the discussion to develop a Framework for the Initiative has sought to ensure that parallel planning processes do not emerge, so that assistance from the FTI can clearly add value to existing sector plans and reforms. A third issue concerns the extent to which global initiatives concentrate power and influence at the international rather than the national level. The FTI should be seen to work in support of national planning and reform, backed by an international forum and resource, which genuinely support the process.

The FTI has reached a critical point in its development. Bilateral agencies need to decide whether their formal support can be translated into a significant commitment of resources. Otherwise this major post-Dakar initiative is in danger of failure, damaging trust and international co-operation more generally. If the current FTI model is judged unworkable, the question as to how funding agencies propose to allocate the resources required for EFA will need to be urgently addressed. The historical record strongly suggests that bilateral initiatives will be insufficient. If the FTI were to fail, it would probably need to be reinvented if the educational goals are to be reached.

Adopting a gender criterion is a very effective way of reaching the poorest households.

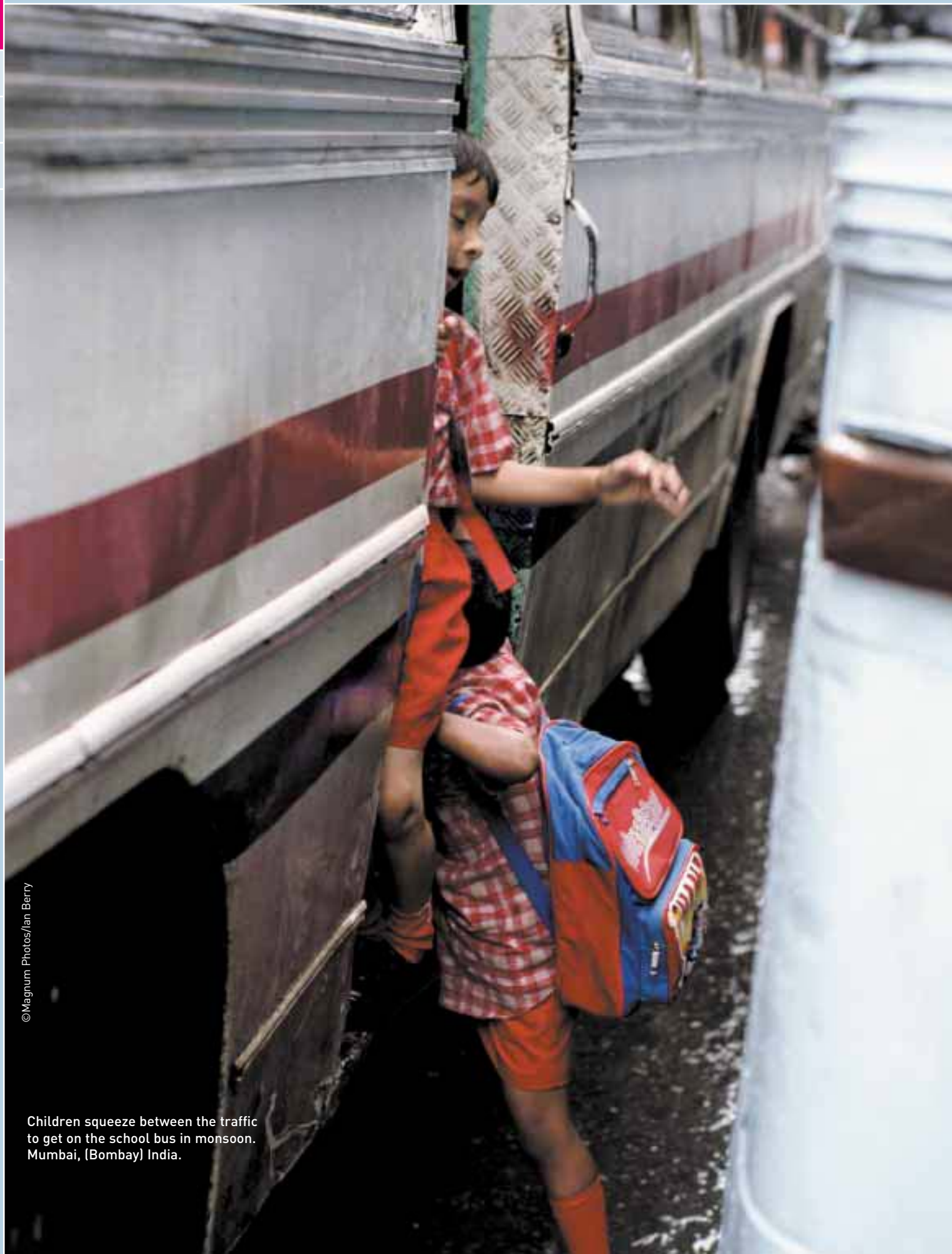
In any case, a major effort in international co-operation is needed to support the poorest group of countries that are furthest from EFA. Using gender as a leading edge for this support – in countries currently with low NERs and major gender disparity in school enrolments and literacy – would be a substantial contribution. As this report demonstrates, adopting a gender criterion is a very effective way of reaching the poorest households. An important component of this could be the elimination of school fees and other, more targeted, interventions.

It is difficult to separate an assessment of the FTI from the broader issues of co-ordination. This report separately examines aid flows, international initiatives, and EFA co-ordination, reflecting the responsibilities of different institutions. Ideally, they should be united. UNESCO has a major responsibility in this respect but continues to find it difficult to enhance its normative and representational functions in ways that would achieve more genuine international influence. The mechanisms

instituted post-Dakar – the Director-General's EFA High-Level Group and the Working Group on EFA – provide an opportunity to share information and experience, but their influence on levels of aid, enhanced political commitment and the better use of international resources has so far been limited. Such influence could, however, be gained if their objectives and linkages with the United Nations and other international institutions were strengthened. An early review of these mechanisms would be helpful.

Looking forward

The future development of a large number of countries depends crucially upon EFA becoming an accepted priority and, within that, upon the gender goals being met. The handicap to the realisation of gender equality in and through education is neither a lack of knowledge nor of policy options. The main requirement is to bring the necessary political commitment, expertise and resources together in order to respond to the urgency and centrality of the task. As this report demonstrates, this is happening in some countries, bringing benefits that are clear, and sometimes rapid. For the international community, the challenge remains – as in Dakar – to respond to the scale and urgency of the challenge of EFA in a truly cooperative way. Secretary General Kofi Annan characterised the World Education Forum as *a test for all of us who call ourselves the international community… a test we must pass*. Four years later, a significantly enhanced level of well-targeted resources and action are required to secure a genuine education for all, which closes the gender gap in education, and empowers girls and women today, and over future generations. ■



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Children squeeze between the traffic to get on the school bus in monsoon. Mumbai, (Bombay) India.

Annex

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Appendix 1

Rights to education and to gender equality specified by international treaties and declarations

Commitments	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) Adopted – 1966 Came into force – 1976	International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) Adopted – 1966 Came into force – 1976	Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) Adopted – 1979 Came into force – 1981	Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) Adopted – 1989 Came into force – 1990	
Principles					
Commitment to gender equality					
Non-discrimination based on sex	Article 2: States Parties to the present Covenant undertake to guarantee that the rights enunciated in the present Covenant will be exercised without discrimination of any kind as to race, colour, sex	Article 2.1: Each State Party ... undertakes to respect and to ensure to all individuals within its territory and subject to its jurisdiction the rights recognized in the present Covenant, without distinction of any kind, including gender	Article 1: The term 'discrimination against women' shall mean any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex	Article 2: States Parties shall respect and ensure the rights set forth in the present Convention to each child within their jurisdiction without discrimination of any kind, including gender	
Women's empowerment					
Rights to education					
Right to education and the elimination of gender discrimination at all levels (primary, secondary and higher education) and in vocational education			Article 10: States Parties shall eliminate discrimination against women in the field of education by: (a) same conditions in education for women and men; in all levels and types of education	Article 28.1: (b) Encourage different forms of secondary education, including vocational education (c) Make higher education accessible to all	
Literacy, continuing education, non-formal education and lifelong learning	To achieve Article 13.1, recognizing the right of everyone to education, follow through on Article 13.2(d): Fundamental education shall be encouraged for those who have not completed primary education		Article 10: States Parties shall eliminate discrimination against women in the field of education by: (e) equal access to continuing education and functional literacy programmes		
Sports education			Article 10: States Parties shall eliminate discrimination against women in the field of education by: (g) equal access to sports and physical education		
Rights to parental choice and non-state provisioning	Article 13.3: Respect liberty of parents to choose their children's schools other than those chosen by public authorities (e.g. religious reasons) / Article 13.4	Article 18: Parents right to provide moral/religious education for their children		Article 29.2: Liberty of individuals and bodies to establish and direct educational institutions	
Girl children, adolescents and young women					
Rights of disabled (children) to education					

	Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action – 1993	International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) – 1994	Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action – 1995	World Summit for Social Development – Copenhagen 1995
	Programme of Action II.36: Women should be able to fully and equally enjoy human rights	Objective 4.3(a): Achieve equality and equity between women and men		Commitment 5: We commit ourselves to promoting full respect for human dignity and to achieving equality and equity between women and men
	Programme of Action I.18: All forms of gender-discrimination must be eradicated	Principle 1: Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex		
		Principle 4 / Objective 4.1: The empowerment and autonomy of women and the improvement of their political, social, economic and health status is a highly important end in itself / Objective 4.2: Education is one of the most important means of empowering women		Principles and goals, 26(o): Recognize that empowering people, particularly women, to strengthen their own capacities is a main objective of development and its principal resource
	Programme of Action II.41: Women's right to accessible and adequate health care and the widest range of family planning services, as well as equal access to education at all levels	Principle 10 / Objective 11.5(a): To achieve universal access to quality education, with particular priority being given to primary and technical education and job training, to combat illiteracy and to eliminate gender disparities in access to, retention in, and support for, education / Objective 6.3 / Action 6.4 / Action 11.6 / Objective 4.16(c) / Action 4.18	Strategic objective B.1, 80(a): Advance goal of equal access to education by eliminating discrimination on the basis of gender / Strategic objective B.1, 80(b, c) / Strategic objective B.2, 81(b) / Strategic objective B.3, 82(a, c, d, i) / Strategic objective B.4, 83(j, s) / Strategic objective L.4, 279(a)	Commitment 6(d): Take appropriate and affirmative steps to enable all children and adolescents to attend and complete school and to close the gender gap in primary, secondary, vocational and higher education
	Programme of Action II.79: Eradicate illiteracy using human rights-informed education		Strategic objective B.2: Eradicate illiteracy among women / Strategic objective B.2, 81(a, c, f): Promote life skills and technological knowledge with literacy / Strategic objective B.3: Improve women's access to vocation training, science and technology, and continuing education / Strategic objective B.3, 82(b) / Strategic objective B.4, 83(r) / Strategic objective B.5, 87(c)	Commitment 6(b): Emphasize lifelong learning ... In this regard, women and girls should be considered a priority group
			Strategic objective B.4: Develop non-discriminatory education and training / Strategic objective B.4, 83(m): Gender-sensitive recreational and sports facilities / Strategic objective L.4, 280(d)	
		Objective 4.16(c) / Action 4.20: Countries should develop an integrated approach to the special nutritional, general and reproductive health, education and social needs of girls and young women / Objective 4.16(c) / Objective 6.7(b)	Strategic objective L.4: Eliminate discrimination against girls in education, skills development and training / Strategic objective L.4, 279(b) / Strategic Objective B.1: Ensure equal access to education / Strategic objective B.1, 80(e)	Commitment 5(f): Establish policies, objectives and goals that enhance the equality of status, welfare and opportunity of the girl child, especially in regard to health, nutrition, literacy and education
		Objective 6.29 / Action 6.30: Governments at all levels should consider the needs of persons with disabilities in terms of ethical and human rights dimensions / Action 6.31	Strategic objective L.4: Eliminate discrimination against girls in education, skills development and training / Strategic objective L.4, 280(c): Ensure access to appropriate education and skills-training for girl children with disabilities for their full participation in life	

(continued)

Commitments	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) Adopted – 1966 Came into force – 1976	International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) Adopted – 1966 Came into force – 1976	Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) Adopted – 1979 Came into force – 1981	Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) Adopted – 1989 Came into force – 1990	
Rural women, internally displaced persons, immigrants, refugees, and indigenous peoples' right to education			Article 14.2: Eliminate discrimination against rural women, ensure full participation in rural development / Article 14.2(d)		
Measures to promote					
Economic measures: free primary education and financial support	Article 14: If compulsory and free primary education is not achieved within two years, states need to create a plan of action towards that goal		Article 10(d): Equal opportunities for scholarships and other study grants	Article 28.1: States Parties recognize a child's right to education: (a) Make primary education compulsory and available free to all	
Delayed marriage and pregnancy					
Human rights education				Article 29.1: Education of the child shall be directed to: (b) development of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms	
Sex education and reproductive health information			Article 10(h): Access to education on family health and family planning	Article 24.2: Child's nutrition and health: (f) To develop preventive health care, guidance for parents and family planning education and services	
Combating HIV/AIDS					
Educational and other support to families	Article 10: Support to families, especially those who are responsible for children's care and education				
Preventing drop-out and improving retention			Article 10(f): Reduce female drop-out rates	Article 28.1: (e) Take measures to encourage regular attendance at schools and the reduction of drop-out rates	
Teacher support and training	To achieve Article 13.1, recognizing the right of everyone to education, follow through on Article 13.2(e): Development of a system of schools, with fellowship systems and good conditions for teachers				
Educational counselling				Article 28.1: (d) Make educational and vocational information and guidance available and accessible to all children	

Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action – 1993	International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) – 1994	Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action – 1995	World Summit for Social Development – Copenhagen 1995
	Objective 9.13 / Action 9.15: Governments are urged to promote the integration of migrants from rural areas into urban areas and to develop and improve their income-earning capability by facilitating their basic education and vocational training with special attention to the situation of women workers / Objective 9.20 / Action 9.22 / Objective 10.10 / Action 10.12 / Action 10.25	Strategic objective B.4, 83(q): Promote education for rural women with appropriate technologies, e.g. radio / Strategic objective B.4, 83(n): Right to education of indigenous women and girls / Strategic objective B.4, 83(o)	
	Objective 4.16(c) / Action 4.21: Governments should strictly enforce laws to ensure that marriage is entered into only with the free and full consent of the intending spouses. Governments should strictly enforce laws concerning the minimum legal age of consent and the minimum age at marriage / Objective 6.7 / Action 6.11 / Objective 7.44 (b) / Action 7.46 / Objective 8.20 / Action 8.24	Strategic objective B.1: Ensure equal access to education / Strategic objective B.1, 80(g): Support young mothers and pregnant adolescents in continuing their schooling	
Programme of Action I.33: States are duty-bound ... to ensure that education is aimed at strengthening respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms / Programme of Action II.36 / Programme of Action II.78		Strategic objective L.4, 279(c): Promote human rights education in educational programmes and include in human rights education the fact that the human rights of women and the girl child are an inalienable, integral and indivisible part of universal human rights	
		Strategic objective B.4, 83(k): Remove barriers to sexual reproductive health education in formal education / Strategic objective C.2, 107(a, e) / Strategic objective L.5, 281(c, e) / Strategic objective C.3, 108(k)	
	Objective 6.7 / Action 6.15: Youth should be actively involved in the planning, implementation and evaluation of development activities that have a direct impact on their daily lives. This is especially important with respect to ... the prevention of HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted diseases / Objective 7.29 / Action 7.32 / Action 8.31	Strategic objective B.4, 83(l): Increase, with parental support, reproductive and sexual health education to HIV/AIDS etc. / Strategic objective C.2, 107(g) / Strategic objective C.3: Undertake gender-sensitive initiatives that address ... HIV/AIDS	
	Objective 5.8 / Action 5.9: Governments should formulate family-sensitive policies in the field of housing, work, health, social security and education	Strategic objective B.2, 81(e): Family involvement in learning and literacy / Strategic objective B.6, 88(b): Support mothers to continue education through child care	
	Objective 11.5(a) ... to eliminate gender disparities in access to, retention in, and support for, education / Action 11.8	Strategic objective B.1, 80(f): Increase enrolment and retention of girls in education	
	Objective 4.16(c) / Action 4.19: Countries must recognize that, in addition to expanding education for girls, teachers' attitudes and practices, school curricula and facilities must also change to reflect a commitment to eliminate all gender bias, while recognizing the specific needs of the girl child / Action 11.25	Strategic objective B.4, 83(b): Training for teachers on role and contribution of women and men in family / Strategic objective B.4, 83(c): Training on self-awareness for teachers as beginning of gender-sensitive teaching / Strategic objective B.4, 83(d): Female teachers have equal opportunities and status with male colleagues; female teachers attract girl students / Strategic objective L.4, 279(e, f)	
		Strategic Objective B.1: Ensure equal access to education / Strategic objective B.1, 80(i): Gender-sensitive professional counselling and career education	

(continued)

Commitments	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) Adopted – 1966 Came into force – 1976	International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) Adopted – 1966 Came into force – 1976	Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) Adopted – 1979 Came into force – 1981	Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) Adopted – 1989 Came into force – 1990	
Gender-aware curriculum			Article 10(c): Elimination of stereotyping in education in curriculum	Article 29.1: Education of the child shall be directed to: (d) prepare for responsible life in understanding peace, equality of sexes, and friendship among all peoples	
School discipline and control of violence				Article 28.2: School discipline that does not violate human dignity	
Rights through education					
Education for personal development and/or women's full participation in society					
Education to combat gender discrimination and promote diversity					
Peace and conflict resolution					
Equal wages/ employment				Article 32.1: Right of child to be protected from economic exploitation, including work that might interfere with education / Article 32.2	
State obligations					
State support for the advancement of women and the provision of gender equality before the law		Article 26: All persons are equal before the law and are entitled without any discrimination to the equal protection of the law	Article 3 / Article 5 / Article 2(a, b, c, f, g) / Article 15.1: Women's equality with men before the law		
Policies, programmes and special measures (e.g. affirmative action)			Article 4.1: Adopt special measures to equalize women and men, once this achieved, measures to be discontinued		
International cooperation and national action to provide resources for education					

Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action – 1993	International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) – 1994	Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action – 1995	World Summit for Social Development – Copenhagen 1995
Programme of Action II.79: Human rights education should be incorporated into all formal and non-formal curricula	Objective 11.5(c): To introduce and improve the content of the curriculum so as to promote greater responsibility and awareness on the interrelationships between population and sustainable development; health issues, including reproductive and sexual health, and gender equity / Objective 11.9 / Objective 4.16(c) / Action 4.19	Strategic objective B.1, 80(d) / Strategic objective B.3, 82(g): Gender-sensitive and gender-relevant curriculum and teaching in non-traditional areas (e.g. sciences) / Strategic objective B.4, 83(a, g) / Strategic objective L.5, 281(f)	
Programme of Action I.18: Gender-based violence can be combated through national policies and cooperation in education, economic and other sectors	Objective 7.36 / Action 7.39: Active and open discussion of the need to protect women, youth and children from any abuse, including sexual abuse, exploitation, trafficking and violence, must be encouraged and supported by educational programmes at both national and community levels	Strategic objective L.7: Eradicate violence against the girl child. Strategic objective L.7, 283(a): Eliminate sexual harassment of girls in educational and other institutions / Strategic objective L.7, 283(b): Protect girls from violence in the household with educational, legislative and other measures	Commitment 6(y): Intensify and coordinate international support for education and health programmes based on respect for human dignity and focused on the protection of all women and children
	Objective 4.3 / Action 4.4(b): Promoting the fulfilment of women's potential through education, skill development and employment, giving paramount importance to the elimination of poverty, illiteracy and ill health among women	Strategic objective B.1, 80(h): Improve quality of education and equal opportunities to ensure women's full participation in all spheres of life / Strategic objective B.3, 82(f) / Strategic objective B.4, 83(h) / Strategic objective L.4, 280(b) /	
	Objective 4.25 / Action 4.26 / Action 4.27: Shared roles of men and women, especially through education of children from earliest ages / Action 4.29 / Objective 7.44 / Action 7.47	Strategic objective B.4: Develop non-discriminatory education and training / Strategic objective B.4, 83(i) / Strategic objective L.9, 285(c)	
		E.140: Education to foster a culture of peace that upholds justice and tolerance for all nations / Strategic objective E.4, 146(a, d)	
	Objective 5.2 / Action 5.3 / Action 5.4: When formulating socio-economic development policies, special consideration should be given to increasing the earning power of all adult members of economically deprived families, including the elderly and women who work in the home	Strategic objective B.3, 82(k): Access to quality education to enhance employability for marginalized women / Strategic objective L.4 / Strategic objective L.6: Eliminate the economic exploitation of child labour and protect young girls at work / Strategic objective L.6, 282(a, c.iv)	Commitment 5(j): Formulate or strengthen policies and practices to ensure that women are enabled to participate fully in paid work and in employment through such measures as ... education
Programme of Action II.37: The equal status of women and the human rights of women should be integrated into the mainstream of United Nations system-wide activity			Commitment 1: We commit ourselves to creating a ... legal environment that will enable people to achieve social development / Commitment 1(a) / Commitment 5(k)
Programme of Action II.81: States (to) develop specific programmes and strategies for ensuring the widest human rights education ... taking particular account of the human rights needs of women	Objective 4.3(b): Ensure women's full participation in making policies and programmes in spheres such as health, education, culture, sports, etc.	Strategic objective B.4: Develop non-discriminatory education and training / Strategic objective B.4, 83(f): Increase access for women to decision-making and policy roles	Commitment 6 (h): Develop specific educational policies, with gender perspective
Programme of Action I.34: Governments, the United Nations and multilaterals are encouraged to channel resources to support human rights awareness through education, training, etc.	Objective 3.16 / Action 3.17: Investment in human resource development, including education, skills development etc. / Objective 11.5(a) / Action 11.7 / Objective 3.16 / Action 3.18	Strategic objective B.5: Allocate sufficient resources for and monitor the implementation of educational reforms / Strategic objective L.4, 279(d)	

Appendix 2

The Education for All Development Index (EDI) and prospects for gender parity

As explained in Chapter 2, if an Education for All Development Index is to measure overall progress towards EFA, its constituents should ideally reflect all six Dakar goals. In practice, however, this is difficult, since not all the goals have a clear definition or target. For example, Goal 3 – learning and life skills programmes – is not yet conducive to quantitative measurement. For rather different reasons, early childhood care and education (Goal 1) cannot easily be incorporated at present because the data are insufficiently standardized across countries, and they are, in any case, available for only a small minority of states. Accordingly, for the time being, the EFA Development Index (EDI) only incorporates indicators for the four goals of universal primary education, adult literacy, gender parity and the quality of education.

One indicator is included as a proxy measure for each of these four EDI components.[1] This is in accordance with the principle of considering each goal to be equally important and, thus, of giving the same weight to each of the index constituents. The EDI value for a particular country is the arithmetical mean of the observed values for each of its different constituents. As each of its constituents is a percentage, its 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 nearer the country is to the goal and the greater the extent of its EFA achievement.

The following are the EDI constituents and related indicators:

- *Universal primary education*: net enrolment ratio in primary education.
- *Adult literacy*: literacy rate of the age group 15 years and over.
- *Quality of education*: survival rate to Grade 5 of primary education.
- *Gender*: gender-related EFA index; this is the simple average value of the GPIs in primary education, in secondary education and in adult literacy.

1. However, as explained below, the gender component of the EDI is itself a composite index comprising measures of gender parity in primary education, secondary education and adult literacy.

Choice of indicators as proxy measures of EDI constituents

In selecting indicators, the issue of data availability must be taken into account. On the other hand, this should not be at the expense of the relevance of the indicator as a measure of the index component. A balance between these considerations is needed. Thus, among a range of indicators which might be used to proxy the different aspects of a given component such as educational quality, both the most relevant and that for which the data coverage is acceptable should be chosen.

Universal primary education (UPE)

The indicator selected for UPE is the net enrolment ratio (NER), which reflects the percentage of school-age children who are enrolled in school. The value varies from 0% to 100%. An NER of 100% means that all eligible children are enrolled in school. Additionally, if a country maintains that level over time, it implies that all the children enrolled are also completing their studies.

Adult literacy

The adult literacy rate is used as a proxy to measure progress against EFA Goal 4. As discussed in Chapter 2, the existing data on literacy are not entirely satisfactory. Efforts to provide a new data series will, however, take some years to materialise, and the literacy estimates used are presently the best available on an international basis. As regards relevance, it should be noted that the indicator for adult literacy is a statement about the stock of human capital. As such it is slow to change, and it could be argued that it is not a good 'leading indicator' of progress towards improvement in literacy levels on a year-by-year basis.

Quality of education

There is considerable debate about the concept of quality and how it should be measured. Several proxies are generally used to measure quality that are all far from satisfactory. They include the pupil/teacher ratio – although its impact on students' performance is ambiguous, and its distribution is as important as the

national average value; the repetition rate, which can be a reasonable proxy of quality but policies of automatic promotion undermine its value as an indicator in a number of countries; the percentage of trained teachers, which is problematic because national definitions vary considerably and data availability is limited; public current expenditure variables, which also suffer from limited data coverage and provide only a rough proxy of quality; learning outcome measures, which would constitute the most appropriate proxy of the quality of education, but again the lack of comparable data across countries makes their inclusion impossible at present.

Among these and other 'candidates' for proxy measures of quality, the survival rate to Grade 5 was selected. This is linked to UPE as a rough proxy of completion, and it has much higher data coverage compared with the other candidates. There is a strong link between survival within the primary cycle and educational achievement. The survival rate to Grade 5 – often taken as the threshold for acquisition of literacy – also captures aspects of grade repetition, promotion policy and early drop-out.

Gender

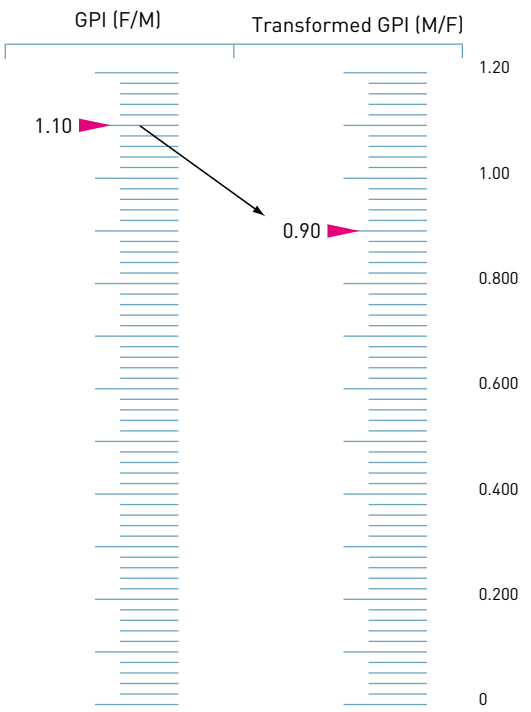
This fourth EDI component is measured by a composite index, the gender-related EFA index (GEI). Ideally, the GEI should reflect the whole spirit of the gender-related EFA goal that calls for 'eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality'. Two sub-goals are distinguished: **gender parity** (achieving equal participation of girls and boys in primary and secondary education) and **gender equality** (ensuring educational equality between boys and girls).

The first sub-goal is measured by the GPI of gross enrolments at primary and secondary levels separately. Measuring and monitoring the broader aspects of equality in education is difficult, as Chapters 2 to 4 demonstrate. Essentially, outcome measures disaggregated by sex are needed for a range of educational levels. These are not available on an internationally comparable basis. As a step in that direction, the GEI includes the gender parity of adult literacy. Thus, it is calculated as a simple average value of GPIs in primary education, secondary education and adult literacy. For this reason, the second aspect of the EFA gender goal is not fully reflected in the GEI. However, this is a priority area and a challenge for future reports.

Calculating the GEI

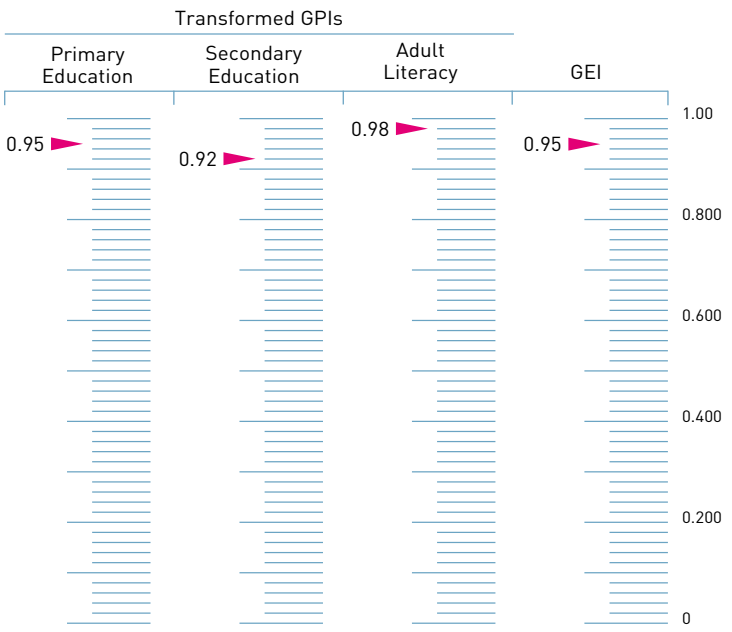
As indicated above, the gender-related EFA index assesses a country's relative achievement in gender parity in participation in primary and secondary education, as well as gender parity in adult literacy. Note that the range for GPI, when expressed as the female/male enrolment ratio or literacy rate, can exceed unity when more girls are enrolled than boys. For purposes of the index, however, in those cases where the GPI is higher than 1, the usual F/M formula has been inverted to M/F. This solves mathematically the problem of the inclusion of the gender-specific EFA index in EDI (where all components have a theoretical limit of 1, or 100%), while keeping the indicator's capacity to show gender disparity. Figure A2.1 shows how the 'transformed GPI' has been created in order to highlight gender disparities neutrally – whether to the disadvantage of females or males.

Figure A2.1. Calculating the transformed GPIs



Once all three GPI values have been converted into the 'transformed' GPI (from 0 to 1), the composite gender-related index is calculated as a simple average of the GPIs in primary education, in secondary education, and in adult literacy, each being equally weighted.

Figure A2.2. Calculating the GEI



To illustrate the calculation we will use data for South Africa in 2000, where the GPIs in primary, secondary and adult literacy were 0.95, 1.09 and 0.98 respectively.

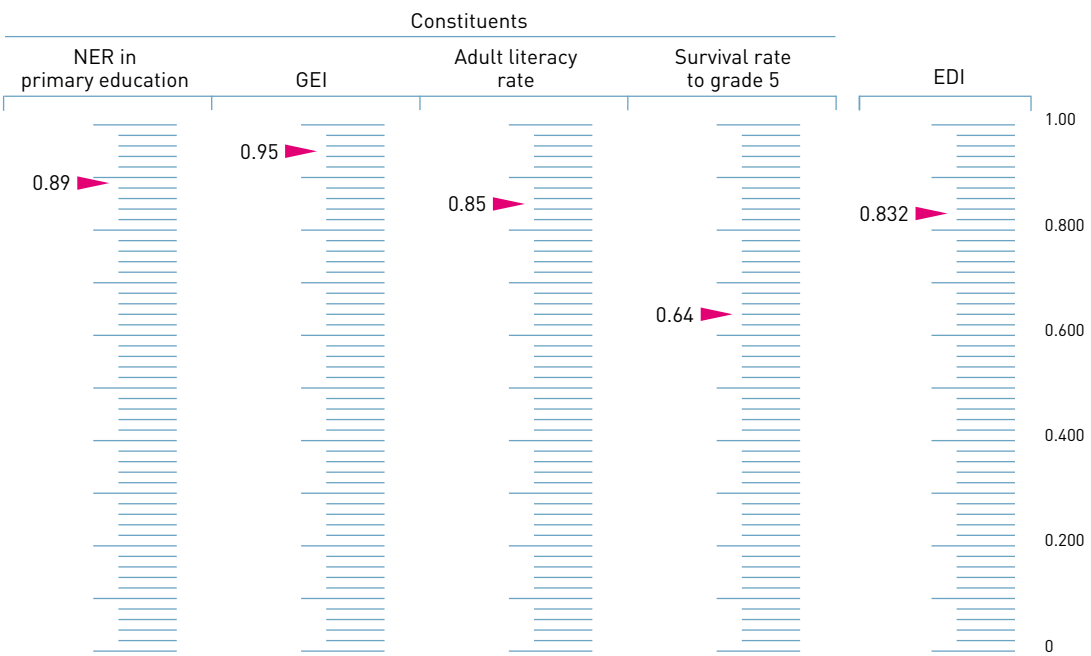
$$GEI = \frac{1}{3}(\text{GPI in primary}) + \frac{1}{3}(\text{transformed GPI in secondary}) + \frac{1}{3}(\text{GPI in literacy})$$

$$GEI = \frac{1}{3}(0.95) + \frac{1}{3}(0.92) + \frac{1}{3}(0.98) = 0.95$$

Calculating the EDI

Once the gender-related EFA index (GEI) has been calculated, determining the EDI is straightforward. It is the arithmetical mean value of its four constituents – NER, adult literacy rate, GEI and survival rate to Grade 5. The EDI value varies from 0 to 1. The closer to 1, the nearer a country is to EFA achievement. A country with an index of 0.5 may be considered as being halfway towards its goals. As a simple average the EDI may, of course, hide important variations between its constituents. In other words, by giving the same weight to each EFA constituent some of those which are more advanced may be outweighed by less-developed ones, as shown in

Figure A2.3. Calculating the EDI



Box A2.1. On the other hand, if all the EFA goals are equally important, a country would not have achieved EFA if only some of its aspects had been concentrated upon. The objective of a synthetic indicator such as the EDI is to inform the policy debate on the prominence of all EFA goals, and to highlight the synergy between them.

To illustrate the EDI's calculation, South Africa is again taken as an example. For the remaining EDI components – NER, adult literacy rate and survival rate to grade 5 – values for this country in 2000 were 0.89, 0.85 and 0.64 respectively.

$$\text{GEI} = \frac{1}{4}(\text{NER}) + \frac{1}{4}(\text{GEI}) + \frac{1}{4}(\text{Adult literacy rate}) + \frac{1}{4}(\text{Survival to grade 5 rate})$$

$$\text{GEI} = \frac{1}{4}(0.89) + \frac{1}{4}(0.95) + \frac{1}{4}(0.85) + \frac{1}{4}(0.64) = 0.832$$

Data sources

Almost all the data used to calculate the EDI for both 1990 and 2000 are drawn from the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) database, with the exception of some survival rates to Grade 5, which were missing for some countries. These were obtained from the *Education for All 2000 Assessment* country reports. Only those countries with a complete set of indicators required to calculate the EDI are included in this analysis. This means that only ninety-four countries are currently included, and that a comprehensive global overview and monitoring of progress towards the EFA goals cannot yet be given.

Gender parity prospects: methodology

Chapter 2, Table 2.25 indicates the extent to which the gender goals would be achieved around the world based on an extrapolation of past trends. Achievement of the gender goal is defined as having a GPI value of between 0.97 and 1.03. This tolerance of up to 3% of inequality between the reported enrolment ratios of boys and girls is to allow for measurement error in international statistical series, and does not imply a judgement about the acceptability of any particular level of disparity.

The results reported in Table 2.25 have been derived by applying a linear extrapolation of the change in GPI at primary and secondary levels in the period 1990 to 2000. This method is simple, but is subject to a number of limitations. First, as the GPI is a ratio between the separate enrolment rates for girls and boys, it would have been best to calculate, and extrapolate, its constituent elements. Owing to the introduction of ISCED 1997, however, and to consequent changes in the defined length of each branch of schooling over the 1990–2000 decade, this

Box A2.1. Balance between access and progression

This is an example of a situation where the index hides important variations between its constituents, as a consequence of unbalanced education policies. Consider the following case. It is simple but extreme, for illustrative purposes.

		Grade								Progress	
	Cohort Population	1	2	3	4	5	6	NIR (%)	NER (%)	to G5 (%)	EDI element
A	100	50	50	50	50	50	50	50%	50%	100%	0.38
B	100	100	80	70	60	50	40	100%	67%	50%	0.29
C	100	100	90	80	75	70	65	100%	80%	70%	0.38

In all three countries – or in the same country at different times – there is a six-grade primary system, the population for each single age cohort is 100, all pupils, except in the case of country A, attend in the first year of official schooling and there is no grade repetition. In country A there is low intake and low participation but high retention, with 100% of the intake progressing to Grade 5. The contribution to the proposed EDI is 0.38 (out of a possible 0.50) for the two relevant indicators.

In country B, access to the first grade is widened to the whole population, but there is significant drop-out. The same number of children progress to Grade 5 as in country A, though this now represents only 50% of the intake. The NER is higher than for country A, but the decrease in the progression to Grade 5 is much greater, so the EDI element for these two indicators falls to 0.29. The conceptual underpinning for this is that the increase in access in country B is outweighed by its decrease in educational quality suggested by the reduced retention to Grade 5.

For a country with 100% intake to achieve A's EDI element of 0.38, it would need to retain 70% of entrants to Grade 5 – see country C. On the other hand, C may be seen as being closer to achieving EFA than country A, especially as its increased access would be more likely to reach the poor, ethnic minorities and (if disadvantaged in primary education) girls. Yet not all children who have access to school are able to complete their education because of early drop-outs, which generally affect the poorest. In this sense, although more children may be involved in primary schooling in country C, its educational quality may well be lower than that of country A.

Source: EFA Global Monitoring Team.

Table A2.1. EFA Development Index (EDI) and its constituents (2000)

Ranking according to level of EDI	Countries	EDI	NER in primary (%)	Adult literacy rate (%)	Gender-related EFA index (GEI)	Survival rate to grade 5
High EDI						
1	Italy	0.990	0.998	0.984	0.985	0.992
2	Poland	0.989	0.977	0.997	0.988	0.993
3	Estonia	0.987	0.976	0.998	0.982	0.992
4	Republic of Korea	0.986	0.995	0.978	0.988	0.985
5	Belarus	0.983	0.994	0.997	0.984	0.956
6	Maldives	0.980	0.990	0.969	0.977	0.983
7	Cyprus	0.975	0.949	0.971	0.986	0.994
8	Guyana	0.974	0.979	0.985	0.983	0.948
9	Malta	0.970	0.979	0.920	0.986	0.995
10	Cuba	0.966	0.973	0.967	0.971	0.953
11	Trinidad and Tobago	0.964	0.924	0.983	0.967	0.982
12	Argentina	0.961	0.997	0.968	0.977	0.903
13	Chile	0.957	0.888	0.958	0.983	0.999
14	Bulgaria	0.954	0.943	0.984	0.979	0.909
15	Tajikistan	0.953	0.962	0.992	0.916	0.940
16	Panama	0.951	0.999	0.919	0.969	0.919
Medium EDI						
17	Bahrain	0.942	0.959	0.875	0.946	0.989
18	Jordan	0.941	0.936	0.898	0.952	0.977
19	Mexico	0.939	0.994	0.912	0.966	0.885
20	Samoa	0.936	0.969	0.986	0.961	0.826
21	Mauritius	0.935	0.947	0.845	0.954	0.996
22	Mongolia	0.935	0.888	0.984	0.928	0.940
23	Uruguay	0.935	0.904	0.976	0.951	0.908
24	Macao	0.931	0.848	0.938	0.943	0.994
25	Peru	0.928	0.999	0.899	0.940	0.874
26	Thailand	0.927	0.854	0.955	0.958	0.941
27	Belize	0.924	0.982	0.932	0.965	0.815
28	Indonesia	0.923	0.922	0.868	0.950	0.951
29	Viet Nam	0.918	0.954	0.925	0.937	0.857
30	Ecuador	0.917	0.993	0.916	0.981	0.778
31	Jamaica	0.916	0.949	0.869	0.956	0.889
32	Venezuela	0.912	0.880	0.925	0.935	0.908
33	Armenia	0.910	0.692	0.984	0.967	0.998
34	Costa Rica	0.908	0.911	0.956	0.963	0.802
35	China	0.907	0.927	0.852	0.867	0.982
36	Lebanon	0.902	0.865	0.860	0.915	0.969
37	Qatar	0.902	0.953	0.812	0.969	0.875
38	Paraguay	0.901	0.921	0.933	0.969	0.781
39	Bolivia	0.897	0.969	0.854	0.935	0.830
40	Kuwait	0.893	0.831	0.819	0.966	0.957
41	United Arab Emirates	0.889	0.866	0.762	0.945	0.981
42	Cape Verde	0.888	0.998	0.738	0.912	0.905
43	Philippines	0.885	0.927	0.949	0.969	0.694
44	Swaziland	0.885	0.928	0.796	0.972	0.842
45	Tunisia	0.879	0.992	0.710	0.883	0.931
46	Namibia	0.877	0.816	0.820	0.951	0.922
47	Algeria	0.872	0.983	0.667	0.866	0.972
48	Syrian Arab Republic	0.866	0.963	0.744	0.836	0.921
49	Botswana	0.860	0.843	0.772	0.959	0.866
50	Colombia	0.859	0.885	0.916	0.968	0.666
51	Dominican Republic	0.859	0.925	0.837	0.922	0.751
52	Iran, Islamic Republic of	0.845	0.736	0.760	0.909	0.975
53	Zimbabwe	0.834	0.796	0.887	0.920	0.733
54	South Africa	0.834	0.889	0.852	0.948	0.645
55	Egypt	0.828	0.926	0.553	0.845	0.990
56	Oman	0.806	0.646	0.717	0.903	0.959
57	Lesotho	0.804	0.784	0.834	0.855	0.745

Table A2.1. (continued)

Ranking according to level of EDI	Countries	EDI	NER in primary (%)	Adult literacy rate (%)	Gender-related EFA index (GEI)	Survival rate to grade 5
Low EDI						
58	Myanmar	0.795	0.832	0.847	0.949	0.552
59	Saudi Arabia	0.792	0.579	0.762	0.891	0.937
60	Kenya	0.785	0.685	0.824	0.918	0.712
61	Zambia	0.777	0.655	0.782	0.866	0.806
62	Guatemala	0.742	0.843	0.685	0.880	0.560
63	Rwanda	0.741	0.973	0.668	0.932	0.391
64	U. R. of Tanzania	0.726	0.467	0.750	0.868	0.818
65	Nicaragua	0.725	0.807	0.665	0.944	0.484
66	Cambodia	0.721	0.854	0.680	0.722	0.628
67	Togo	0.709	0.912	0.571	0.613	0.738
68	Morocco	0.705	0.780	0.488	0.752	0.800
69	Ghana	0.700	0.582	0.716	0.838	0.663
70	Bangladesh	0.697	0.889	0.400	0.850	0.649
71	Madagascar	0.691	0.677	0.665	0.911	0.511
72	Sudan	0.689	0.495	0.577	0.817	0.868
73	Lao PRD	0.688	0.814	0.648	0.759	0.532
74	Comoros	0.678	0.562	0.559	0.820	0.771
75	Iraq	0.671	0.929	0.393	0.620	0.740
76	India	0.658	0.857	0.572	0.733	0.468
77	Côte d'Ivoire	0.633	0.622	0.486	0.647	0.777
78	Gambia	0.626	0.687	0.366	0.760	0.692
79	Benin	0.618	0.703	0.374	0.529	0.866
80	Mauritania	0.614	0.640	0.402	0.803	0.612
81	Senegal	0.610	0.631	0.374	0.711	0.723
82	Djibouti	0.609	0.326	0.646	0.698	0.767
83	Nepal	0.607	0.724	0.417	0.667	0.622
84	Equatorial Guinea	0.607	0.717	0.832	0.715	0.163
85	Burundi	0.591	0.537	0.480	0.764	0.584
86	Liberia	0.587	0.834	0.535	0.646	0.333
87	Eritrea	0.576	0.410	0.557	0.731	0.605
88	Ethiopia	0.541	0.467	0.391	0.668	0.638
89	Pakistan	0.528	0.601	0.432	0.580	0.497
90	Chad	0.518	0.582	0.426	0.525	0.539
91	Mozambique	0.510	0.544	0.440	0.628	0.427
92	Burkina Faso	0.469	0.355	0.239	0.590	0.691
93	Guinea-Bissau	0.462	0.535	0.384	0.549	0.381
94	Niger	0.439	0.304	0.160	0.554	0.740

Note: Data in blue indicate that gender disparities are at the expense of boys and men.
Sources: Statistical annex, Tables 2, 5, 6 and 7; *Education for All 2000 Assessment* country reports.

method proved not to be possible. Accordingly, the more approximate method of projecting the GPI itself has been used.

Secondly, there are well-known pitfalls in interpreting the results of point-to-point projections. In particular, they are unable to take account of non-linear rates of expansion or contraction that may have held between the two chosen years. However, in the absence of an international series of GPI data for the intervening years, a more sophisticated extrapolation method could not be used.

In cases where the extrapolated value of GPI, calculated as above, falls outside the range 0.97–1.03 in 2005 or 2015, the country is classified as being at risk of not achieving gender parity in those years. This includes all those countries that moved away from the goal over the decade 1990–2000. These comprise thirteen countries at primary level and twenty-eight countries at secondary level. If they were moving away from the goal over that period, any method for extrapolating the past would clearly indicate that they were at risk of not achieving the goal in the future. On the other hand, this implies that there are a number of countries in the 'at risk'

Table A2.2. Countries ranked according to value of EDI and constituents (2000)

Countries	EDI	NER in primary (%)	Adult literacy rate (%)	Gender-related EFA index (GEI)	Survival rate to grade 5	Countries	EDI	NER in primary (%)	Adult literacy rate (%)	Gender-related EFA index (GEI)	Survival rate to grade 5
Italy	1	4	8	5	8	Syrian Arab Republic	48	22	58	68	33
Poland	2	16	2	2	7	Botswana	49	57	53	28	45
Estonia	3	17	1	9	9	Colombia	50	48	29	20	72
Republic of Korea	4	6	12	1	12	Dominican Republic	51	37	44	48	61
Belarus	5	7	3	6	23	Iran, Islamic Republic of	52	67	56	55	18
Maldives	6	11	15	13	13	Zimbabwe	53	64	34	49	66
Cyprus	7	27	14	3	5	South Africa	54	44	40	37	75
Guyana	8	14	6	8	26	Egypt	55	36	76	66	10
Malta	9	15	27	4	4	Oman	56	76	60	56	21
Cuba	10	19	17	15	24	Lesotho	57	65	45	64	62
Trinidad and Tobago	11	38	11	21	14	Myanmar	58	59	42	36	83
Argentina	12	5	16	12	39	Saudi Arabia	59	83	54	57	30
Chile	13	46	18	7	1	Kenya	60	73	47	50	68
Bulgaria	14	30	10	11	35	Zambia	61	75	52	63	53
Tajikistan	15	23	4	51	28	Guatemala	62	56	63	59	82
Panama	16	1	28	19	34	Rwanda	63	18	65	46	91
Bahrain	17	24	35	38	11	U. R. of Tanzania	64	90	57	60	51
Jordan	18	31	33	32	17	Nicaragua	65	63	68	40	88
Mexico	19	8	31	24	41	Cambodia	66	54	64	78	77
Samoa	20	21	5	27	50	Togo	67	41	73	88	65
Mauritius	21	29	43	31	3	Morocco	68	66	78	75	55
Mongolia	22	47	7	47	29	Ghana	69	81	61	67	73
Uruguay	23	43	13	33	37	Bangladesh	70	45	86	65	74
Macao	24	55	22	41	6	Madagascar	71	74	67	54	86
Peru	25	2	32	42	43	Sudan	72	88	71	70	44
Thailand	26	53	20	29	27	Lao PDR	73	62	69	74	85
Belize	27	13	24	25	52	Comoros	74	84	74	69	59
Indonesia	28	39	37	35	25	Iraq	75	32	87	87	63
Viet Nam	29	25	26	43	47	India	76	52	72	76	89
Ecuador	30	9	30	10	57	Côte d'Ivoire	77	79	79	84	58
Jamaica	31	28	36	30	40	Gambia	78	72	92	73	70
Venezuela	32	49	25	44	36	Benin	79	70	90	93	46
Armenia	33	71	9	22	2	Mauritania	80	77	85	71	79
Costa Rica	34	42	19	26	54	Senegal	81	78	91	80	67
China	35	35	41	61	15	Djibouti	82	93	70	81	60
Lebanon	36	51	38	52	20	Nepal	83	68	84	83	78
Qatar	37	26	50	18	42	Equatorial Guinea	84	69	46	79	94
Paraguay	38	40	23	17	56	Burundi	85	86	80	72	81
Bolivia	39	20	39	45	49	Liberia	86	58	77	85	93
Kuwait	40	60	49	23	22	Eritrea	87	91	75	77	80
United Arab Emirates	41	50	55	39	16	Ethiopia	88	89	88	82	76
Cape Verde	42	3	59	53	38	Pakistan	89	80	82	90	87
Philippines	43	34	21	16	69	Chad	90	82	83	94	84
Swaziland	44	33	51	14	48	Mozambique	91	85	81	86	90
Tunisia	45	10	62	58	31	Burkina Faso	92	92	93	89	71
Namibia	46	61	48	34	32	Guinea-Bissau	93	87	89	92	92
Algeria	47	12	66	62	19	Niger	94	94	94	91	64

Sources: Statistical annex, Tables 2, 5, 6 and 7; *Education for All 2000 Assessment* country reports.

group that were very close to goal-achievement in 2000, but where their past rates of growth were either negative or so insignificant that parity would not be delivered were such experience to be continued. The nine such cases are mentioned in chapter 2.

In cases where a simple extrapolation of past rates of growth would cause the goal to be exceeded (i.e. where previous inequality in favour of boys would thus become an inequality in favour of girls, or vice versa), it is assumed that no 'overshooting' will occur and that parity will be maintained. In practice, however, it should be noted that there have been a number of countries where such crossovers have occurred – particularly at secondary level – and where a male bias in enrolments has been replaced by a female bias.

Table A2.3 summarizes the methods used in dealing with each possible pairing of values for GPI at primary and secondary levels in 1990 and 2000. Table A2.4 compares the outcomes of this methodology – for primary education – with the outcomes that would result if the methodology used in the *EFA Report 2002* had been used. The columns show the 2002 quadrant framework categories, while the rows show the categories used by the new methodology.

It can be seen that there is no difference between the two methods in the number of countries considered to have already achieved parity, because each uses the same definition for goal achievement. For all the remaining countries the new methodology gives more precision about the likelihood of different countries achieving the goals. There are sixteen countries in Quadrant I (close and moving towards the goal), all of which would have been considered to have high chances of achieving the goal. However, the new methodology shows that nine of them are likely to achieve it by 2005 and five by 2015. Additionally, it also suggests that two countries with a very low rate of progress would not be able to reach the goal. With the exception of Cuba and Paraguay, all the countries considered at risk in one methodology are also shown to be at risk in the other. Finally, some countries that the quadrant framework would have classified as having low chances of achieving the goal (Quadrant III), would achieve it according to the present method (three of them by 2005 and seven by 2015)

Thus, the results from using each of these methods are reasonably consistent. Most differences between the *EFA Report 2002* and this report in the extrapolated likelihood of particular countries reaching the gender goals are caused by changes in data and, more particularly, by the incorporation of secondary-level parity in the treatment of the gender goal for this report.

Table A2.3. Criteria for assessing gender parity prospects

Case	GPI in 1990	GPI in 2000	Movement between 1990 and 2000	Assumed value in 2005	Assumed value in 2015	Classification	Countries in primary education	Countries in secondary education
I		Achieved	Not applicable	Value in 2000	Value in 2000	Achieved	81	43
II	Below 0.98	Below 0.98	Moving towards goal	Projected value, or 1 when projection is above 1	Projected value, or 1 when projection is above 1	Likely to achieve by 2005, or by 2015, or at risk of not achieving	33	36
III	Above 1.02	Above 1.02	Moving towards goal	Projected value, or 1 when projection is below 1	Projected value, or 1 when projection is below 1	Likely to achieve by 2005, or by 2015, or at risk of not achieving	1	21
IV	Below 0.98	Below 0.98	Moving away from goal	Value in 2000	Value in 2000	At risk of not achieving	7	6
V	Above 1.02	Above 1.02	Moving away from goal	Value in 2000	Value in 2000	At risk of not achieving	0	12
VI	Achieved	Above 1.02	Moving away from goal	Value in 2000	Value in 2000	At risk of not achieving	1	3
VII	Achieved	Below 0.98	Moving away from goal	Value in 2000	Value in 2000	At risk of not achieving	5	2
VIII	Below 0.98	Above 1.02	Moving away from goal	Value in 2000	Value in 2000	At risk of not achieving	0	5
IX	Above 1.02	Below 0.98	Moving away from goal	Value in 2000	Value in 2000	At risk of not achieving	0	0
							128	128

Source: EFA Global Monitoring Team.

Table A2.4. Comparison of methodologies evaluating national prospects for achieving gender parity

		Gender parity in primary education (Current data-base with *EFA Report 2002* methodology)					
		Achieved	High chances of achieving (close but moving towards)	At risk of not achieving (close but moving away)	Low chance of achieving (far but moving towards)	Serious risk of not achieving (far but moving away)	Number of countries
Gender parity in primary education (*EFA Report 2003*)	**Achieved in 2000**	Albania, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belgium, Belize, Bolivia, Botswana, Bulgaria, Canada, Cape Verde, Chile, China, Colombia, Costa Rica, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Ecuador, Finland, France, Georgia, Germany, Greece, Guyana, Hungary, Iceland, Indonesia, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Kuwait, Latvia, Lithuania, Malawi, Malaysia, Malta, Mauritius, Mexico, Myanmar, Namibia, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Norway, Panama, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Republic of Korea, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Rwanda, Samoa, Serbia and Montenegro, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Suriname, Sweden, Switzerland, Macedonia, Trinidad and Tobago, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, United Republic of Tanzania, United States, Vanuatu, Venezuela, Zimbabwe 81	None 0	None 0	None 0	None 0	81
	Likely to be achieved in 2005	None 0	Brunei Darussalam, Egypt, Gambia, Islamic Republic of Iran, Lesotho, Mauritania, Oman, Saudi Arabia, Tunisia 9	None 0	Morocco, Nepal, Senegal 3	None 0	12
	Likely to be achieved in 2015	None 0	Algeria, Congo, Ghana, Syrian Arab Republic, Uganda 5	Cuba, Paraguay 2	Benin, Cambodia, Chad, Comoros, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Sudan, Togo 7	None 0	14
	At risk of not achieving goal by 2015	None 0	Saint Lucia, Thailand 2	Estonia, Kyrgyzstan, Macao, Madagascar, Mongolia, Papua New Guinea, South Africa, Swaziland, Turkey 9	Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Ethiopia, India, Mozambique, Niger, Sierra Leone 8	Burundi, Iraq 2	21
	Number of countries	81	16	11	18	2	128

Source: Statistical annex, Table 5.

Appendix 3

Matching the CRS and DAC databases

The CRS (Creditor Reporting System) database is a comprehensive list of individual transactions by year and by country. It provides more detailed information than the DAC (OECD Development Assistance Committee) database. Its project-by-project information allows exploration of areas where DAC proves to be rather rigid. This includes the following:

- analysis of the different subsectors such as 'unspecified' education;
- identification of education components within other sectors (i.e. medical training);
- analysis of the regional distribution of bilateral education aid.

The CRS has not been used in other major studies on aid flows to education. This is because it formerly covered only a small proportion of the aid included in the DAC database (Bentall et al., 2001; UNESCO, 2002). In 1990, only 24% of bilateral education commitments were included in the CRS. However, coverage has been increasing since the beginning of the 1990s, thereby making the use of CRS data increasingly feasible. For example, its coverage amounted to 80% of all education aid in 2000 (as reported by DAC) and 77% in 2001 (Table A3.1).

The table also shows that many of the differences between the CRS and DAC databases arise from a small number of countries. Some countries with very small programmes of aid to education and low CRS coverage (e.g. Greece) have little impact on the final coverage levels in the CRS database, whereas large providers, such as Japan and France, have a very significant impact. The low coverage of these two countries can be entirely explained by their lack of reporting technical cooperation data to the CRS. In the case of Japan, this can be remedied by adding in the education technical cooperation which it reports separately to DAC. This results in CRS coverage for Japan of 100% in 2000 and 83% in 2001. By consequence, the overall coverage for DAC countries was 97% in 2000 and 89% in 2001. Although when the adjustment is made CRS and DAC databases do not perfectly match, an average of 93% for the biennium 2000–01 is adequate enough to consider the CRS database as a valuable source for aid analysis.

Table A3.1. CRS percentage coverage of bilateral aid to education as reflected in DAC database

Country	Coverage (CRS figure/DAC figure)	
	2000	2001
Australia	100	100
Austria	100	100
Belgium	100	100
Canada	67	59
Denmark	100	100
Finland	100	100
France	74	77
Germany	98	100
Greece	0	0
Ireland	72	84
Italy	100	100
Japan	18	24
Luxembourg	0	n.a.
Netherlands	100	100
New Zealand	0	0
Norway	100	100
Portugal	99	72
Spain	100	92
Sweden	100	94
Switzerland	100	100
United Kingdom	100	100
United States	100	100
DAC countries	80	77
Japan (including technical cooperation)	100	83
DAC countries (including Japanese technical cooperation)	97	89

Sources: DAC online database, Table 5; and for Japan, Table 5a. CRS online database (OECD-DAC, 2003a).

Statistical annex

Introduction

The data on pupils, students, teachers and education expenditure presented in these annex tables are based on survey results reported to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) for the school year 2000/01 up until the end of May 2003. Data received after this date will be used in the next EFA report. This school year includes countries with a calendar school year of 2000, and those with a school year stretching from 2000 into 2001. The statistics refer to all formal schools, including public and private institutions, by levels 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 and the World Bank.

Most member states report their data to UIS using standard questionnaires issued by the Institute. However, for some countries, education data are collected via surveys carried out under the auspices of the World Education Indicators (WEI) project funded by World Bank, or are provided by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) or Eurostat (for East European countries that are part of the Trakai group). As an aid to the reader, symbols are used in the tables to distinguish countries in these two categories from the other member states: o for OECD countries; w for WEI countries.

The indicators on access and participation have been calculated using the population estimates of the United Nations Population Division within the framework of the 2000 revision. The results may differ from those published by individual countries or by other organizations such as OECD or in the framework of projects like WEI, because of the difference between national population estimates and those of the United Nations.

Education data reported to UIS for more recent years, including the 2000/01 data, are in conformity with the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) revised in 1997. Note that this is not the case with the 1990/91 data that are in accordance with the previous ISCED (ISCED 1976). Consequently, indicators for 1990/91 and 2000/01 may not be comparable for some countries, as noted in some of the tables.

Both actual and estimated data are presented throughout the annex tables. For some countries, 1999/2000 data are given when information for the 2000/01 school year was not available. In that case, a footnote has been inserted and data italicized.

Footnotes to the tables, and the glossary that follows the references, provide additional guides to help the reader to interpret the data and information.

Symbols used in the tables

*	National estimate
**	UNESCO Institute for Statistics estimate
...	Missing data
o	OECD countries
w	World Education Indicators (WEI) project countries
–	Magnitude nil, or no calculation
.	Category not applicable
./.	Data included elsewhere under another category

Composition of regions

World classification

- *Countries in transition*: Central and Eastern Europe (minus Turkey); Central Asia (minus Mongolia).
- *Developed countries*: North America and Western Europe; Australia, Japan and New Zealand.

- *Developing countries*: Arab States; East Asia and the Pacific (minus Australia, Japan and New Zealand); Latin America and the Caribbean; South and West Asia; sub-Saharan Africa.

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, China, Cook Islands, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Federated States of Micronesia, Fiji, Indonesia, Japan, Kiribati, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Macao (China), Malaysia, Marshall Islands, 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.

- 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.

- North America and Western Europe
  (26 countries)
  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)*
  Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Central African Republic, Chad, Comoros, Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Democratic Republic 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, South Africa, Swaziland, Togo, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

Table 1
Country background statistics

Country or territory	DEMOGRAPHY[1] Total population (000) 2000	Average annual growth rate (%) 1990-2000	Life expectancy at birth (years) 1995-2000 Total	Life expectancy at birth (years) 1995-2000 Female	Total fertility rate (children per woman) 1995-2000	Infant mortality rate (‰) 1995-2000	HIV/AIDS[2] HIV prevalence rate (%) among 15-49 age group 2001 Total	HIV/AIDS[2] HIV prevalence rate (%) among 15-49 age group 2001 Male	HIV/AIDS[2] HIV prevalence rate (%) among 15-49 age group 2001 Female	Number of children orphaned by AIDS (000) 2001	GNP[3] Average annual growth rate (%) 1990-2000	GNP per capita Current US$ 2000	GNP per capita Purchasing power parity US$ 2000	AID AND POVERTY[4] Net aid per capita, current US$ 2000	AID AND POVERTY[4] Population living on less than $2 per day (%) 1983-2000	EXTERNAL DEBT[4] Total debt, current US$ (millions) 2000	EXTERNAL DEBT[4] Total debt service, current US$ (millions) 2000	EXTERNAL DEBT[4] Total debt as % of GNP 2000	EXTERNAL DEBT[4] Public debt service as % of government current revenue 2000	EXTERNAL DEBT[4] Total debt service as % of exports 2000	Country or territory
Arab States																					**Arab States**
Algeria	30291	2.0	69	70	3.2	50	0.1	…	…	…	-1.7	1580	5040	5.4	15.1	25002	4467	8.8	…	19.6	Algeria
Bahrain	640	2.7	73	75	2.6	16	0.3	…	…	…	7.9	…	…	76.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	Bahrain
Djibouti	632	2.3	45	47	6.1	117	…	…	…	…	…	880	…	112.9	…	262	14	2.4	…	5.5	Djibouti
Egypt[w]	67884	1.9	66	68	3.4	51	<0.10	…	…	…	…	1490	3670	19.6	52.7	…	…	1.8	…	8.4	Egypt[w]
Iraq	22946	2.8	59	60	5.2	92	<0.10	…	…	…	…	…	…	4.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	Iraq
Jordan[w]	4913	4.1	70	71	4.7	27	<0.10	…	…	…	8.1	1710	3950	112.4	7.4	8226	669	8.0	26.7	11.4	Jordan[w]
Kuwait	1914	-1.1	76	78	2.9	12	…	…	…	…	5.7	18030	18690	1.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	Kuwait
Lebanon	3496	2.5	73	74	2.3	20	…	…	…	…	17.5	4010	4550	56.2	…	10311	1821	10.5	…	…	Lebanon
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	5290	2.0	71	72	3.8	28	0.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	2.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
Mauritania	2665	2.9	51	52	6.0	106	…	…	…	…	-1.7	370	1630	79.5	68.7	2500	100	11.0	…	25.9	Mauritania
Morocco	29878	1.9	67	69	3.4	52	0.1	…	…	…	2.7	1180	3450	14.0	7.5	17944	3333	10.3	…	25.9	Morocco
Oman	2538	3.5	71	72	5.8	27	0.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	18.0	…	6267	864	…	8.2	7.3	Oman
Palestinian Autonomous Territories	3191	3.9	71	73	6.0	24	…	…	…	…	…	1660	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Palestinian Autonomous Territories
Qatar	565	5.5	69	71	3.7	14	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	Qatar
Saudi Arabia	20346	2.8	71	72	6.2	25	…	…	…	…	4.4	7230	11390	1.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	Saudi Arabia
Sudan	31095	2.2	55	56	4.9	86	2.6	1.5	4.2	62	-2.6	310	1520	7.2	…	15741	61	0.6	…	3.2	Sudan
Syrian Arab Republic	16189	2.7	71	72	4.0	27	…	…	…	…	2.9	940	3340	9.8	…	21657	344	2.2	…	4.8	Syrian Arab Republic
Tunisia[w]	9459	1.5	70	71	2.3	30	…	…	…	…	4.6	2100	6070	23.5	10.0	10610	1900	10.2	31.5	20.2	Tunisia[w]
United Arab Emirates	2606	2.6	75	78	3.2	12	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	1.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	United Arab Emirates
Yemen	18349	4.5	59	60	7.6	74	0.1	…	…	…	…	370	770	14.4	45.2	…	…	3.0	…	3.8	Yemen
Central and Eastern Europe																					**Central and Eastern Europe**
Albania[o]	3134	-0.5	73	76	2.6	28	…	…	…	…	6.3	1120	3600	101.6	…	784	27	0.7	…	2.0	Albania[o]
Belarus	10187	-0.1	69	74	1.3	12	0.3	0.8	0.3	…	-1.6	2870	7550	3.9	…	851	232	0.8	5.5	2.9	Belarus
Bosnia and Herzegovina[o]	3977	-0.8	73	…	1.4	15	<0.10	…	…	…	…	1230	…	185.0	…	2828	334	7.2	…	…	Bosnia and Herzegovina[o]
Bulgaria[o]	7949	-0.9	71	75	1.1	15	<0.10	…	…	…	-4.8	1520	5560	39.1	…	10026	1189	10.2	15.8	16.2	Bulgaria[o]
Croatia	4654	0.3	74	78	1.7	10	<0.10	0.0	0.0	…	…	4620	7960	14.1	…	12120	2437	13.0	16.9	25.5	Croatia
Czech Republic[o]	10272	0.0	74	78	1.2	6	<0.10	0.0	0.0	…	…	5250	13780	42.7	…	21299	4773	9.5	15.6	12.7	Czech Republic[o]
Estonia[o]	1393	-1.2	71	76	1.2	11	1.0	3.2	0.8	…	-3.8	3580	9340	45.8	…	3280	428	9.3	2.4	8.7	Estonia[o]
Hungary[o]	9968	-0.4	71	76	1.4	10	0.1	0.1	0.0	…	3.4	4710	11990	25.3	…	29415	7946	18.0	20.4	24.4	Hungary[o]
Latvia[o]	2421	-1.0	70	76	1.1	16	0.4	1.1	0.3	…	-5.4	2920	7070	37.6	…	3379	562	7.8	6.4	15.8	Latvia[o]
Lithuania[o]	3696	-0.1	72	77	1.4	11	0.1	0.2	0.1	…	-1.7	2930	6980	26.8	…	4855	906	8.1	16.0	17.1	Lithuania[o]
Poland[o]	38605	0.1	73	78	1.5	10	0.1	0.1	0.1	…	10.9	4190	9000	36.2	…	63561	10290	6.6	6.9	20.9	Poland[o]
Republic of Moldova	4295	-0.2	67	70	1.6	20	0.2	…	…	…	-18.6	400	2230	28.5	…	1233	135	10.0	20.7	16.7	Republic of Moldova
Romania[o]	22438	-0.3	70	73	1.3	22	<0.10	…	…	…	-0.6	1670	6360	19.3	…	10224	2341	6.4	…	18.8	Romania[o]
Russian Federation[w]	145491	-0.2	66	73	1.2	17	0.9	2.2	0.8	…	-8.4	1660	8010	10.8	…	160300	11671	4.9	7.8	10.1	Russian Federation[w]
Serbia and Montenegro	10552	0.4	72	…	1.8	15	0.2	…	…	…	…	940	…	…	…	…	…	2.1	…	…	Serbia and Montenegro
Slovakia	5399	0.3	73	77	1.4	9	<0.10	0.0	0.0	…	…	3700	11040	20.9	…	…	…	13.8	11.8	18.0	Slovakia
Slovenia[o]	1988	0.4	75	79	1.2	6	<0.10	0.0	0.0	…	…	10050	17310	30.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	Slovenia[o]
The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia[o]	2034	0.6	73	75	1.9	18	<0.10	…	…	…	…	1820	5020	123.8	…	…	…	4.6	…	9.3	The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia[o]
Turkey[o]	66668	1.7	70	72	2.7	46	<0.10	…	…	…	2.8	3100	7030	4.9	18.0	116209	21136	10.5	18.0	36.1	Turkey[o]
Ukraine	49568	-0.5	68	74	1.3	15	1.0	2.5	1.1	…	-10.5	700	3700	10.9	…	12166	3661	11.9	21.0	18.6	Ukraine
Central Asia																					**Central Asia**
Armenia	3787	0.7	72	75	1.4	17	0.2	0.3	0.1	…	-7.0	520	2580	57.0	…	898	43	2.2	…	7.6	Armenia
Azerbaijan	8041	1.1	71	75	1.9	32	<0.10	0.1	0.0	…	-6.7	600	2740	17.3	…	1184	181	3.7	…	8.0	Azerbaijan
Georgia	5262	-0.4	73	77	1.6	19	<0.10	0.1	0.0	…	-12.9	630	2680	32.2	…	1633	117	3.8	25.8	9.5	Georgia
Kazakhstan	16172	-0.3	64	70	2.1	45	0.1	…	…	…	…	1260	5490	11.7	…	…	…	10.8	20.1	16.8	Kazakhstan
Kyrgyzstan	4921	1.1	67	71	2.9	43	<0.10	0.0	0.0	…	…	270	2540	43.7	…	…	…	14.2	20.4	29.3	Kyrgyzstan
Mongolia	2533	1.3	63	66	2.7	62	<0.10	…	…	…	…	390	1760	85.8	50.0	859	29	3.1	7.7	4.7	Mongolia
Tajikistan	6087	1.4	67	70	3.7	57	<0.10	0.0	0.0	…	-14.2	180	1090	23.4	…	1170	88	9.3	24.3	10.9	Tajikistan
Turkmenistan	4737	2.5	65	69	3.6	55	<0.10	0.0	0.0	…	-6.3	750	3800	6.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan	24881	1.9	68	71	2.8	41	<0.10	0.0	0.0	…	…	360	2360	7.5	…	4340	899	12.1	…	26.4	Uzbekistan
East Asia and the Pacific																					**East Asia and the Pacific**
Australia[o]	19138	1.2	78	81	1.8	5	0.1	0.1	0.0	…	2.6	20240	24970	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Australia[o]
Brunei Darussalam	328	2.4	75	78	2.8	10	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	1.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	13104	3.1	56	59	5.2	83	2.7	1.2	3.0	55	11.0	260	1440	30.4	…	2357	31	1.0	…	2.0	Cambodia

1. United Nations Population Division statistics.
2. Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS).
3. World Bank statistics.
4. *Human Development Report 2002.*

Table 1 (continued)

Country or territory	DEMOGRAPHY[1] Total population (000) 2000	Average annual growth rate (%) 1990-2000	Life expectancy at birth (years) 1995-2000 Total	Life expectancy at birth (years) 1995-2000 Female	Total fertility rate (children per woman) 1995-2000	Infant mortality rate (‰) 1995-2000	HIV/AIDS[2] HIV prevalence rate (%) among 15-49 age group 2001 Total	HIV prevalence rate (%) among 15-49 age group 2001 Male	HIV prevalence rate (%) among 15-49 age group 2001 Female	Number of children orphaned by AIDS (000) 2001	GNP[3] Average annual growth rate (%) 1990-2000	GNP per capita Current US$ 2000	GNP per capita Purchasing power parity US$ 2000	AID AND POVERTY[4] Net aid per capita, current US$ 2000	Population living on less than $2 per day (%) 1983-2000	EXTERNAL DEBT[4] Total debt, current US$ (millions) 2000	Total debt service, current US$ (millions) 2000	Total debt as % of GNP 2000	Public debt service as % of government current revenue 2000	Total debt service as % of exports 2000	Country or territory
China[w]	1 275 133	1.0	70	70	1.8	41	0.1	0.2	0.1	76	11.6	840	3 920	1.4	52.6	149 800	21 728	2.0	…	7.4	China[w]
Cook Islands	20	1.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Cook Islands
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	22 268	1.1	63	66	2.1	45	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Democratic People's Republic of Korea
Fiji	814	1.2	69	70	3.2	20	0.1	…	…	…	0.6	1 820	4 480	35.8	…	136	30	2.1	…	2.5	Fiji
Indonesia[w]	212 092	1.5	66	67	2.6	48	0.1	0.1	0.1	18	2.7	570	2 830	8.2	55.3	141 803	18 772	13.2	…	25.3	Indonesia[w]
Japan[o]	127 096	0.3	81	84	1.4	4	<0.10	0.0	0.0	2.0	4.8	35 620	27 080	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Japan[o]
Kiribati	83	1.4	…	…	…	52	…	…	…	…	3.9	950	…	197.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	Kiribati
Lao People's Democratic Republic	5 279	2.4	54	54	5.3	97	<0.10	0.1	0.0	…	…	290	1 540	53.3	73.2	…	…	2.5	…	8.1	Lao People's Democratic Republic
Macao, China	444	1.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	6.7	14 580	18 190	2.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	Macao, China
Malaysia[w]	22 218	2.2	73	75	3.3	12	0.4	0.8	0.1	14	6.9	3 380	8 330	2.0	…	41 797	5 967	7.2	…	5.3	Malaysia[w]
Marshall Islands	51	1.5	…	…	…	55	…	…	…	…	2.7	1 970	…	1 101.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	Marshall Islands
Micronesia (Federated States of)	118	…	…	…	4.3	20	…	…	…	…	4.3	2 110	…	860.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	Micronesia (Federated States of)
Myanmar	47 749	1.6	56	58	3.3	92	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	2.2	…	6 046	87	…	…	4.7	Myanmar
Nauru	12	2.9	…	…	…	25	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Nauru
New Zealand[o]	3 778	1.2	78	80	2.0	7	0.1	0.1	0.0	…	1.3	12 990	18 530	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	New Zealand[o]
Niue	2	0.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Niue
Palau	19	…	…	…	…	24	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	2 059.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	Palau
Papua New Guinea	4 809	2.4	57	58	4.6	69	0.7	0.5	0.5	4.2	1.7	700	2 180	57.3	…	2 604	305	8.3	…	13.5	Papua New Guinea
Philippines[w]	75 653	2.1	69	71	3.6	34	<0.10	0.0	0.0	4.1	6.0	1 040	4 220	7.6	…	50 063	6 737	8.5	36.9	13.6	Philippines[w]
Republic of Korea[o]	46 740	0.9	75	78	1.5	8	<0.10	0.0	0.0	1.0	…	8 910	17 300	-4.2	<2	…	…	5.1	…	10.9	Republic of Korea[o]
Samoa	159	-0.1	…	…	4.5	30	…	…	…	…	3.7	1 450	5 050	172.5	…	197	9	3.6	…	10.8	Samoa
Singapore	4 018	2.8	77	79	1.6	5	0.2	0.2	0.2	…	10.1	24 740	24 910	0.3	…	…	…	…	…	…	Singapore
Solomon Islands	447	3.4	68	69	5.6	24	…	…	…	…	3.2	620	1 710	152.9	…	155	9	3.2	…	6.7	Solomon Islands
Thailand[w]	62 806	1.3	70	73	2.1	25	1.8	1.3	2.0	290	3.6	2 000	6 320	10.2	28.2	79 675	14 016	11.6	23.5	16.3	Thailand[w]
Timor-Leste	737	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Timor-Leste
Tokelau	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Tokelau
Tonga	99	0.3	…	…	…	17	…	…	…	…	2.8	1 660	…	188.0	…	58	4	2.6	…	11.6	Tonga
Tuvalu	10	1.1	…	…	…	38	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Tuvalu
Vanuatu	197	2.7	68	70	4.6	32	…	…	…	…	…	1 150	2 960	232.7	…	…	…	1.0	…	1.4	Vanuatu
Viet Nam	78 137	1.7	68	70	2.5	40	0.3	0.4	0.2	22	…	390	2 000	21.8	…	…	…	4.2	22.0	7.5	Viet Nam
Latin America and the Caribbean																					**Latin America and the Caribbean**
Anguilla	11	3.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Anguilla
Antigua and Barbuda	65	0.3	74	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	6.6	9 440	10 000	151.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	Antigua and Barbuda
Argentina[w]	37 032	1.3	73	77	2.6	22	0.7	1.0	0.4	25	7.5	7 460	12 050	2.1	…	146 172	27 345	9.9	41.1	71.3	Argentina[w]
Aruba	101	4.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	114.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	Aruba
Bahamas	304	1.8	69	74	2.4	19	3.5	3.6	4.1	2.9	…	14 960	16 400	18.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	Bahamas
Barbados	267	0.4	76	79	1.5	12	1.2	…	…	…	4.0	9 250	15 020	0.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	Barbados
Belize	226	2.0	74	75	3.4	32	2.0	1.3	2.4	0.95	6.8	3 110	5 240	64.8	…	499	66	8.6	…	16.1	Belize
Bermuda	63	0.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	1.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	Bermuda
Bolivia	8 329	2.4	61	64	4.4	66	0.1	0.2	0.1	1.0	5.7	990	2 360	57.2	34.3	5 762	662	8.2	18.8	39.1	Bolivia
Brazil[w]	170 406	1.4	67	71	2.3	42	0.7	0.8	0.6	130	2.3	3 580	7 300	1.9	26.5	237 953	62 788	11.0	…	90.7	Brazil[w]
British Virgin Islands	24	3.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	British Virgin Islands
Cayman Islands	38	3.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	-103.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	Cayman Islands
Chile[w]	15 211	1.5	75	78	2.4	13	0.3	0.5	0.2	4.1	9.1	4 590	9 100	3.2	8.7	36 978	6 163	9.0	6.7	26.0	Chile[w]
Colombia	42 105	1.9	70	74	2.8	30	0.4	1.2	0.3	21	7.5	2 020	6 060	4.4	36.0	34 081	5 171	6.6	…	28.6	Colombia
Costa Rica	4 024	2.8	76	79	2.8	12	0.6	0.8	0.4	3.0	10.4	3 810	7 980	2.9	26.0	4 466	650	4.4	16.9	8.2	Costa Rica
Cuba	11 199	0.5	76	78	1.6	8	<0.10	0.1	0.1	1.0	…	…	…	3.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	Cuba
Dominica	71	0.0	73	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	4.0	…	…	219.4	…	108	10	4.3	…	7.1	Dominica
Dominican Republic	8 373	1.7	67	70	2.9	41	2.5	2.5	3.3	33	10.7	2 130	5 710	7.5	16.0	4 598	521	2.8	…	4.8	Dominican Republic
Ecuador	12 646	2.1	70	73	3.1	46	0.3	0.4	0.2	7.2	2.4	1 210	2 910	11.6	52.3	13 281	1 276	10.3	…	17.3	Ecuador
El Salvador	6 278	2.0	69	73	3.2	32	0.6	1.0	0.5	13	10.6	2 000	4 410	28.7	44.5	4 023	374	2.9	12.5	6.7	El Salvador
Grenada	94	0.3	65	…	…	21	…	…	…	…	6.1	3 770	6 960	176.6	…	207	12	3.2	…	5.0	Grenada
Guatemala	11 385	2.6	64	67	4.9	46	1.0	1.2	1.1	32	9.6	1 680	3 770	23.2	33.8	4 622	438	2.3	…	9.4	Guatemala
Guyana	761	0.4	64	68	2.4	56	2.7	4.4	5.4	4.2	9.1	860	3 670	142.4	…	1 455	116	17.5	…	…	Guyana
Haiti	8 142	1.6	52	55	4.4	68	6.1	5.5	6.7	200	3.2	510	1 470	25.6	…	1 169	42	1.0	11.3	8.0	Haiti
Honduras	6 417	2.7	66	69	4.3	37	1.6	1.4	1.8	14	7.4	860	2 400	70.0	45.1	5 487	578	10.0	…	19.3	Honduras
Jamaica[w]	2 576	0.8	75	77	2.5	22	1.2	1.0	1.0	5.1	6.5	2 610	3 440	3.9	25.2	4 287	643	9.2	19.5	14.1	Jamaica[w]
Mexico[o]	98 872	1.7	72	76	2.8	31	0.3	0.5	0.1	27	8.2	5 070	8 790	-0.5	37.7	150 288	58 259	10.4	…	30.2	Mexico[o]

1. United Nations Population Division statistics.
2. Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS).
3. World Bank statistics.
4. *Human Development Report 2002.*

Table 1 (continued)

Country or territory	DEMOGRAPHY[1] Total population (000) 2000	Average annual growth rate (%) 1990-2000	Life expectancy at birth (years) 1995-2000 Total	Life expectancy at birth (years) 1995-2000 Female	Total fertility rate (children per woman) 1995-2000	Infant mortality rate (‰) 1995-2000	HIV/AIDS[2] HIV prevalence rate (%) among 15-49 age group 2001 Total	HIV/AIDS[2] 2001 Male	HIV/AIDS[2] 2001 Female	Number of children orphaned by AIDS (000) 2001	GNP[3] Average annual growth rate (%) 1990-2000	GNP per capita Current US$ 2000	GNP per capita Purchasing power parity US$ 2000	AID AND POVERTY[4] Net aid per capita, current US$ 2000	AID AND POVERTY[4] Population living on less than $2 per day (%) 1983-2000	EXTERNAL DEBT[4] Total debt, current US$ (millions) 2000	EXTERNAL DEBT[4] Total debt service, current US$ (millions) 2000	EXTERNAL DEBT[4] Total debt as % of GNP 2000	EXTERNAL DEBT[4] Public debt service as % of government current revenue 2000	EXTERNAL DEBT[4] Total debt service as % of exports 2000	Country or territory
Montserrat	4	-0.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Montserrat
Netherlands Antilles	215	1.4	75	78	…	14	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	823.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	Netherlands Antilles
Nicaragua	5071	2.8	68	70	4.3	39	0.2	0.3	0.1	2.0	7.9	400	2080	110.8	…	7019	300	14.2	22.6	23.0	Nicaragua
Panama	2856	1.7	74	76	2.6	21	1.5	2.4	1.6	8.1	6.4	3260	5680	5.8	29.0	7056	928	9.9	…	10.0	Panama
Paraguay[w]	5496	2.6	70	72	4.2	39	…	0.2	…	…	3.4	1440	4450	14.9	49.3	3091	330	4.4	…	10.4	Paraguay[w]
Peru[w]	25662	1.7	68	71	3.0	45	0.4	0.5	0.2	17	7.4	2080	4660	15.6	41.4	28560	4305	8.3	24.0	42.8	Peru[w]
Saint Kitts and Nevis	38	-0.9	70	…	…	21	…	…	…	…	5.9	6570	10960	101.6	…	140	20	7.1	…	12.5	Saint Kitts and Nevis
Saint Lucia	148	1.2	73	76	2.7	14	…	…	…	…	6.1	4120	5400	74.3	…	237	40	6.0	…	11.0	Saint Lucia
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	113	0.6	70	…	…	21	…	…	…	…	5.2	2720	5210	54.8	…	192	15	4.9	12.7	8.5	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines
Suriname	417	0.4	70	73	2.2	29	1.2	1.6	2.1	1.7	9.6	1890	3480	82.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	Suriname
Trinidad and Tobago	1294	0.6	74	76	1.6	14	2.5	3.3	4.4	3.6	3.7	4930	8220	-1.2	39.0	2467	500	7.5	…	10.3	Trinidad and Tobago
Turks and Caicos Islands	17	3.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Turks and Caicos Islands
Uruguay[w]	3337	0.7	74	79	2.4	18	0.3	0.6	0.2	3.1	8.0	6000	8880	5.2	6.6	8196	1313	6.8	18.5	29.2	Uruguay[w]
Venezuela	24170	2.2	73	76	3.0	21	0.5	0.7	…	…	…	4310	5740	3.2	47.0	…	…	4.9	18.2	15.7	Venezuela
North America and Western Europe																					**North America and Western Europe**
Andorra	86	4.5	…	…	…	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Andorra
Austria[o]	8080	0.4	78	81	1.4	5	0.2	0.3	0.1	…	1.4	25220	26330	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Austria[o]
Belgium[o]	10249	0.3	78	82	1.6	4	0.2	0.1	0.1	…	1.6	24540	27470	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Belgium[o]
Canada[o]	30757	1.0	79	81	1.6	6	0.3	0.3	0.2	…	2.0	21130	27170	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Canada[o]
Cyprus[o]	784	1.4	78	80	2.0	8	0.3	…	…	…	4.3	12370	20780	69.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	Cyprus[o]
Denmark[o]	5320	0.3	76	79	1.7	6	0.2	0.2	0.1	…	2.2	32280	27250	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Denmark[o]
Finland[o]	5172	0.4	78	81	1.7	4	<0.10	0.0	0.0	…	-1.1	25130	24570	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Finland[o]
France[o]	59238	0.4	78	82	1.7	6	0.3	0.3	0.2	…	0.7	24090	24420	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	France[o]
Germany[o]	82017	0.3	77	80	1.3	5	0.1	0.1	0.1	…	0.9	25120	24920	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Germany[o]
Greece[o]	10610	0.4	78	81	1.3	7	0.2	0.2	0.1	…	2.9	11960	16860	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Greece[o]
Iceland[o]	279	0.9	79	82	2.0	5	0.2	…	…	…	3.1	30390	28710	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Iceland[o]
Ireland[o]	3803	0.8	77	79	1.9	7	0.1	0.1	0.1	…	6.3	22660	25520	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Ireland[o]
Israel[o]	6040	3.0	79	81	2.9	6	0.1	…	…	…	7.5	16710	19330	132.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	Israel[o]
Italy[o]	57530	0.1	79	82	1.2	6	0.4	0.3	0.3	…	-0.2	20160	23470	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Italy[o]
Luxembourg[o]	437	1.3	77	80	1.7	7	0.2	…	…	…	2.8	42060	45470	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Luxembourg[o]
Malta[o]	390	0.8	78	81	1.9	8	0.1	…	…	…	3.2	9120	16530	54.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	Malta[o]
Monaco	33	0.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Monaco
Netherlands[o]	15864	0.6	78	81	1.5	5	0.2	0.2	0.1	…	2.1	24970	25850	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Netherlands[o]
Norway[o]	4469	0.5	79	82	1.8	5	0.1	0.1	0.1	…	3.6	34530	29630	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Norway[o]
Portugal[o]	10016	0.1	76	79	1.5	7	0.5	0.5	0.2	…	3.9	11120	16990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Portugal[o]
San Marino	27	1.6	…	…	…	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	San Marino
Spain[o]	39910	0.2	78	82	1.2	6	0.5	0.6	0.3	…	0.8	15080	19260	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Spain[o]
Sweden[o]	8842	0.3	80	82	1.5	4	0.1	0.1	0.1	…	-0.2	27140	23970	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Sweden[o]
Switzerland[o]	7170	0.5	79	82	1.5	5	0.5	0.6	0.5	…	0.6	38140	30450	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Switzerland[o]
United Kingdom[o]	59415	0.3	77	80	1.7	6	0.1	0.1	0.1	…	3.8	24430	23550	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	United Kingdom[o]
United States[o]	283230	1.1	77	79	2.0	8	0.6	0.6	0.3	…	5.5	34100	34100	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	United States[o]
South and West Asia																					**South and West Asia**
Afghanistan	21765	4.6	43	43	6.9	165	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	5.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	Afghanistan
Bangladesh	137439	2.2	58	58	3.8	79	<0.10	0.0	0.0	2.1	4.6	370	1590	8.5	77.8	15609	790	1.7	…	9.1	Bangladesh
Bhutan	2085	2.1	61	62	5.5	63	<0.10	…	…	…	5.7	590	1440	25.5	…	198	7	1.3	6.4	4.2	Bhutan
India[w]	1008937	1.8	62	63	3.3	73	0.8	0.5	1.0	…	3.8	450	2340	1.5	86.2	99062	9694	2.1	13.6	12.5	India[w]
Iran, Islamic Republic of	70330	1.8	68	69	3.2	44	<0.10	…	…	…	…	1680	5910	1.9	…	…	…	3.3	4.4	11.4	Iran, Islamic Republic of
Maldives	291	3.0	65	64	5.8	46	0.1	…	…	…	15.5	1960	4240	66.2	…	207	20	3.8	9.7	4.3	Maldives
Nepal	23043	2.4	57	57	4.8	83	0.5	0.4	0.4	13	4.4	240	1370	16.9	82.5	2823	100	1.8	16.3	6.5	Nepal
Pakistan	141256	2.5	59	59	5.5	95	0.1	0.1	0.1	25	4.3	440	1860	5.0	84.6	32091	2857	4.8	18.0	26.8	Pakistan
Sri Lanka[w]	18924	1.1	72	75	2.1	23	<0.10	0.0	0.0	2.0	7.4	850	3460	14.6	45.4	9065	738	4.6	21.6	9.6	Sri Lanka[w]
Sub-Saharan Africa																					**Sub-Saharan Africa**
Angola	13134	3.1	45	46	7.2	126	5.5	2.9	7.3	100	-5.3	290	1180	23.3	…	10146	1204	25.4	…	15.1	Angola
Benin	6272	3.0	54	55	6.1	88	3.6	1.4	4.5	34	1.8	370	980	38.0	…	1598	77	3.6	…	12.6	Benin
Botswana	1541	2.2	44	45	4.4	74	38.8	19.3	45.0	69	3.7	3300	7170	19.9	61.4	413	68	1.3	…	1.8	Botswana
Burkina Faso	11535	2.5	45	46	6.9	99	6.5	4.8	11.7	270	-2.4	210	970	29.1	85.8	1332	55	2.5	…	17.3	Burkina Faso

1. United Nations Population Division statistics.
2. Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS).
3. World Bank statistics.
4. *Human Development Report 2002.*

Table 1 (continued)

Country or territory	DEMOGRAPHY[1] Total population (000) 2000	Average annual growth rate (%) 1990-2000	Life expectancy at birth (years) 1995-2000 Total	Life expectancy at birth (years) 1995-2000 Female	Total fertility rate (children per woman) 1995-2000	Infant mortality rate (‰) 1995-2000	HIV/AIDS[2] HIV prevalence rate (%) among 15-49 age group 2001 Total	HIV/AIDS[2] 2001 Male	HIV/AIDS[2] 2001 Female	Number of children orphaned by AIDS (000) 2001	GNP[3] Average annual growth rate (%) 1990-2000	GNP per capita Current US$ 2000	GNP per capita Purchasing power parity US$ 2000	AID AND POVERTY[4] Net aid per capita, current US$ 2000	AID AND POVERTY[4] Population living on less than $2 per day (%) 1983-2000	EXTERNAL DEBT[4] Total debt, current US$ (millions) 2000	EXTERNAL DEBT[4] Total debt service, current US$ (millions) 2000	EXTERNAL DEBT[4] Total debt as % of GNP 2000	EXTERNAL DEBT[4] Public debt service as % of government current revenue 2000	EXTERNAL DEBT[4] Total debt service as % of exports 2000	Country or territory
Burundi	6 356	1.2	41	41	6.8	120	8.3	6.3	14.1	240	-4.9	110	580	14.6	…	1 100	21	3.2	…	37.2	Burundi
Cameroon	14 876	2.5	50	51	5.1	87	11.8	6.6	15.3	210	-2.5	580	1 590	25.5	64.4	9 241	562	6.8	…	20.5	Cameroon
Cape Verde	427	2.2	69	71	3.6	56	…	…	…	…	4.8	1 330	4 760	220.3	…	327	16	2.9	…	7.5	Cape Verde
Central African Republic	3 717	2.3	44	46	5.3	101	12.9	7.0	16.3	110	-4.2	280	1 160	20.4	84.0	872	14	1.5	…	12.9	Central African Republic
Chad	7 885	3.0	45	46	6.6	123	3.6	3.2	5.8	72	-2.1	200	870	16.6	…	1 116	26	1.9	…	9.3	Chad
Comoros	706	2.9	59	60	5.4	76	…	…	…	…	-2.1	380	1 590	26.4	…	232	3	1.3	…	5.0	Comoros
Congo	3 018	3.0	51	53	6.3	72	7.2	4.4	10.5	78	…	570	570	10.8	…	…	…	1.9	1.4	1.6	Congo
Côte d'Ivoire	16 013	2.4	48	48	5.1	89	9.7	…	…	…	…	600	1 500	22.0	49.4	…	…	11.8	…	22.4	Côte d'Ivoire
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	50 948	3.2	51	52	6.7	91	4.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	3.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	Democratic Rep. of the Congo
Equatorial Guinea	457	2.6	50	52	5.9	108	3.4	1.9	3.7	…	15.0	800	5 600	46.6	…	248	5	1.1	…	0.2	Equatorial Guinea
Eritrea	3 659	1.6	52	53	5.7	89	2.8	3.6	5.5	24	…	170	960	48.1	…	311	3	0.5	…	1.1	Eritrea
Ethiopia	62 908	2.8	44	45	6.8	115	6.4	…	…	990	-0.7	100	660	11.0	76.4	5 481	139	2.2	…	13.9	Ethiopia
Gabon	1 230	2.7	52	54	5.4	88	…	…	…	…	-2.3	3 190	5 360	9.6	…	3 995	468	11.0	…	15.0	Gabon
Gambia	1 303	3.4	45	47	5.2	125	1.6	0.7	1.8	5.3	…	340	1 620	37.7	82.9	…	…	4.5	…	7.0	Gambia
Ghana	19 306	2.4	56	58	4.6	69	3.0	1.8	3.9	200	-1.4	340	1 910	31.6	78.5	6 657	472	9.4	…	19.3	Ghana
Guinea	8 154	2.8	46	47	6.3	124	…	…	…	…	1.0	450	1 930	18.7	…	3 388	133	4.5	…	15.3	Guinea
Guinea-Bissau	1 199	2.4	44	45	6.0	131	2.8	1.4	4.0	4.3	-1.4	180	710	67.1	…	942	6	3.1	…	8.6	Guinea-Bissau
Kenya	30 669	2.6	52	53	4.6	65	15.0	7.2	18.7	890	2.4	350	1 010	16.7	62.3	6 295	481	4.7	…	17.3	Kenya
Lesotho	2 035	1.9	52	53	4.8	108	31.0	23.5	51.4	73	1.2	580	2 590	20.4	65.7	716	66	5.7	…	12.1	Lesotho
Liberia	2 913	3.0	48	49	6.8	111	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	22.0	…	2 032	1	…	…	…	Liberia
Madagascar	15 970	2.9	52	53	6.1	100	0.3	0.1	0.3	6.3	2.6	250	820	20.2	83.3	4 701	93	2.4	17.3	7.7	Madagascar
Malawi	11 308	1.8	41	41	6.8	140	15.0	7.6	17.9	470	-1.0	170	600	39.4	…	2 716	59	3.5	…	11.7	Malawi
Mali	11 351	2.6	52	52	7.0	130	1.7	1.8	2.8	70	-0.6	240	780	31.7	90.6	2 956	97	4.3	…	12.1	Mali
Mauritius	1 161	0.9	71	75	2.0	19	0.1	…	…	…	5.1	3 750	9 940	17.6	…	2 374	553	12.7	45.7	20.8	Mauritius
Mozambique	18 292	2.9	41	42	6.3	137	13.0	7.8	18.8	420	4.3	210	800	47.9	78.4	7 135	88	2.5	…	11.4	Mozambique
Namibia	1 757	2.4	45	45	5.3	78	22.5	13.3	29.2	47	3.1	2 030	6 410	86.3	55.8	…	…	…	…	…	Namibia
Niger	10 832	3.4	44	44	8.0	136	…	…	…	…	-2.9	180	740	19.5	85.3	1 638	28	1.6	…	9.4	Niger
Nigeria	113 862	2.8	51	51	5.9	88	5.8	3.6	7.0	1 000	3.7	260	800	1.6	90.8	34 134	1 009	2.7	…	4.3	Nigeria
Rwanda	7 609	1.2	39	40	6.2	122	8.9	5.9	13.4	260	-3.6	230	930	42.3	84.6	1 271	35	2.0	…	24.7	Rwanda
Sao Tome and Principe	138	1.8	65	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	-1.9	290	…	253.9	…	316	4	10.1	…	31.7	Sao Tome and Principe
Senegal	9 421	2.5	52	54	5.6	62	0.5	0.2	0.7	15	-2.5	490	1 480	45.0	67.8	3 372	228	5.3	…	14.4	Senegal
Seychelles	80	1.3	73	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	5.0	7 050	…	227.3	…	163	17	3.0	5.6	3.4	Seychelles
Sierra Leone	4 405	0.8	37	39	6.5	165	7.0	3.4	10.2	42	-2.2	130	480	41.4	74.5	1 273	43	6.9	…	48.0	Sierra Leone
Somalia	8 778	2.0	47	48	7.2	122	1.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	12.0	…	2 561	…	…	…	…	Somalia
South Africa	43 309	1.7	53	60	3.1	58	20.1	12.8	30.8	660	1.3	3 020	9 160	11.3	35.8	24 861	3 860	3.1	6.3	10.0	South Africa
Swaziland	925	1.8	51	52	4.8	87	33.4	18.3	47.4	35	5.5	1 390	4 600	14.3	…	262	24	1.6	5.1	2.3	Swaziland
Togo	4 527	2.7	51	53	5.8	83	6.0	2.5	7.1	63	-2.9	290	1 410	15.4	…	1 435	30	2.5	…	6.1	Togo
Uganda	23 300	3.0	42	43	7.1	106	5.0	2.4	5.6	880	3.8	300	1 210	35.2	…	3 408	159	2.6	15.6	23.7	Uganda
United Republic of Tanzania	35 119	3.3	51	52	5.5	81	7.8	4.3	9.7	810	…	270	520	29.7	59.6	…	…	2.4	…	16.2	United Republic of Tanzania
Zambia	10 421	2.6	41	40	6.0	94	21.5	9.7	25.2	570	-0.7	300	750	76.3	87.4	5 730	186	6.7	…	18.7	Zambia
Zimbabwe[w]	12 627	2.1	43	43	5.0	65	33.7	14.9	39.6	780	-1.7	460	2 550	14.1	64.2	4 002	471	6.6	…	22.1	Zimbabwe[w]
	Total	Weighted average					Weighted average			Total	Weighted average			Weighted average		Weighted average					
World	6 041 386	1.4	65	67	2.8	60	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	7.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	World
Countries in transition	481 110	0.6	69	71	2.0	29	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	18.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	Countries in transition
Developed countries	859 780	0.6	75	79	1.6	8	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Developed countries
Developing countries	4 700 496	1.7	63	64	3.1	65	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	6.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	Developing countries
Arab States	274 887	2.4	67	68	4.4	45	…	…	…	…	…	2 090	5 270	15.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	Arab States
Central and Eastern Europe	404 689	0.1	71	75	1.5	16	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia	76 421	1.0	68	71	2.5	42	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific	2 022 240	1.1	68	71	3.4	35	…	…	…	…	…	1 060	4 130	4.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	East Asia and the Pacific
Latin America and the Caribbean	513 858	1.6	70	73	2.7	29	…	…	…	…	…	3 670	7 080	7.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	Latin America and the Caribbean
North America and Western Europe	709 768	0.7	78	81	1.7	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	North America and Western Europe
South and West Asia	1 424 070	1.8	61	62	4.5	75	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	3.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa	615 453	2.6	49	50	5.8	95	…	…	…	…	…	470	1 600	19.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	Sub-Saharan Africa

1. United Nations Population Division statistics.
2. Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS).
3. World Bank statistics.
4. *Human Development Report 2002.*

Table 2
Adult and youth literacy[1]

Country or territory	ADULT LITERACY RATE (15 and over) (%)									ADULT ILLITERATES (15 and over)						Country or territory
	1990			2000			2015			1990		2000		2015		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	
Arab States																**Arab States**
Algeria	52.9	64.3	41.3	66.7	76.3	57.0	80.7	87.3	74.0	6804	62.0	6571	64.1	5378	66.7	Algeria
Bahrain	82.1	86.8	74.6	87.5	90.9	82.6	93.5	95.0	91.6	60	55.2	57	55.9	41	54.9	Bahrain
Djibouti	53.0	66.8	39.7	64.6	75.6	54.4	79.2	86.0	72.8	136	72.1	127	71.5	85	70.6	Djibouti
Egypt[w]	47.1	60.4	33.6	55.3	66.6	43.8	65.9	74.0	57.7	17866	62.2	19613	62.5	21041	61.7	Egypt[w]
Iraq	35.7	51.3	19.7	39.3	54.9	23.3	44.6	59.7	29.1	6198	61.7	8125	62.4	11779	63.2	Iraq
Jordan[w]	81.5	90.0	72.1	89.8	94.9	84.3	96.0	98.2	93.8	320	71.6	300	73.2	182	76.0	Jordan[w]
Kuwait	76.7	79.3	72.6	81.9	83.9	79.6	87.8	88.4	87.2	317	46.6	238	43.3	250	43.8	Kuwait
Lebanon	80.3	88.3	73.1	86.0	92.1	80.3	92.1	95.9	88.5	347	71.9	337	73.0	253	74.8	Lebanon
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	68.1	82.8	51.1	79.9	90.8	68.1	89.9	96.8	82.6	775	71.3	701	76.1	498	83.9	Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
Mauritania	34.8	46.3	23.9	40.2	50.7	30.1	47.3	55.6	39.2	715	59.8	890	59.6	1222	58.4	Mauritania
Morocco	38.7	52.7	24.9	48.8	61.8	36.1	61.9	71.9	51.9	9090	61.9	9988	62.9	10324	63.2	Morocco
Oman	54.7	67.3	38.3	71.7	80.1	61.6	87.1	91.6	82.1	433	59.2	402	61.4	310	65.4	Oman
Palestinian Autonomous Territories	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Palestinian Autonomous Territories
Qatar	77.0	77.4	76.0	81.2	80.4	83.1	87.3	85.3	91.0	74	28.3	78	27.2	68	25.6	Qatar
Saudi Arabia	66.2	76.2	50.2	76.2	83.0	66.9	87.1	90.5	83.0	2968	62.0	2760	62.4	2510	62.2	Saudi Arabia
Sudan	45.8	60.0	31.5	57.7	69.2	46.2	72.4	79.6	65.2	7792	63.5	7881	63.7	7563	62.9	Sudan
Syrian Arab Republic	64.8	81.8	47.5	74.4	88.3	60.4	84.1	93.7	74.5	2273	73.9	2449	76.7	2422	79.5	Syrian Arab Republic
Tunisia[w]	59.1	71.6	46.5	71.0	81.4	60.6	83.9	91.6	76.1	2081	65.1	1928	67.8	1363	73.8	Tunisia[w]
United Arab Emirates	71.0	71.2	70.6	76.2	74.8	79.1	83.0	80.1	87.9	410	27.5	459	25.4	432	24.1	United Arab Emirates
Yemen	32.7	55.2	12.9	46.4	67.5	25.3	66.3	81.2	51.1	3994	68.9	4914	71.7	5703	72.7	Yemen
Central and Eastern Europe																**Central and Eastern Europe**
Albania[o]	77.0	86.8	66.7	84.7	92.1	77.0	92.7	96.9	88.5	509	70.8	336	73.8	194	78.0	Albania[o]
Belarus	99.5	99.7	99.3	99.7	99.8	99.6	99.8	99.8	99.8	42	76.2	29	69.8	17	56.3	Belarus
Bosnia and Herzegovina[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Bosnia and Herzegovina[o]
Bulgaria[o]	97.2	98.3	96.2	98.4	99.0	97.9	99.3	99.5	99.1	195	69.7	106	68.6	43	66.5	Bulgaria[o]
Croatia	96.9	99.0	94.9	98.3	99.3	97.3	99.4	99.6	99.2	113	84.8	66	81.8	22	69.5	Croatia
Czech Republic[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Czech Republic[o]
Estonia[o]	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.7	99.8	3	52.7	2	51.4	2	49.9	Estonia[o]
Hungary[o]	99.1	99.3	98.9	99.3	99.5	99.2	99.6	99.7	99.5	78	63.1	56	63.4	34	62.8	Hungary[o]
Latvia[o]	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	4	56.2	4	55.9	4	54.4	Latvia[o]
Lithuania[o]	99.3	99.5	99.1	99.6	99.7	99.5	99.7	99.8	99.7	20	67.4	13	63.2	8	55.2	Lithuania[o]
Poland[o]	99.6	99.6	99.5	99.7	99.7	99.7	99.8	99.8	99.8	119	59.5	84	54.6	65	51.8	Poland[o]
Republic of Moldova	97.5	99.1	96.1	98.9	99.5	98.3	99.7	99.8	99.7	80	83.0	38	81.3	10	63.0	Republic of Moldova
Romania[o]	97.1	98.6	95.6	98.1	99.0	97.3	99.2	99.4	99.0	519	76.8	342	75.0	146	64.6	Romania[o]
Russian Federation[w]	99.2	99.6	98.9	99.6	99.7	99.4	99.8	99.8	99.7	857	76.4	535	70.3	277	58.6	Russian Federation[w]
Serbia and Montenegro	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Serbia and Montenegro
Slovakia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Slovakia
Slovenia[o]	99.6	99.6	99.5	99.6	99.7	99.6	99.7	99.7	99.7	7	57.9	6	56.7	5	54.4	Slovenia[o]
The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia[o]
Turkey[o]	77.9	89.2	66.4	85.0	93.4	76.5	91.9	97.1	86.6	8077	75.5	6993	78.0	4883	82.1	Turkey[o]
Ukraine	99.4	99.7	99.2	99.6	99.7	99.5	99.8	99.8	99.8	237	76.7	160	71.0	84	60.5	Ukraine
Central Asia																**Central Asia**
Armenia	97.5	98.9	96.1	98.4	99.3	97.6	99.3	99.6	99.0	63	79.8	46	78.3	23	73.5	Armenia
Azerbaijan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Azerbaijan
Georgia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Georgia
Kazakhstan	98.8	99.5	98.2	99.4	99.7	99.1	99.8	99.8	99.7	136	78.7	72	73.1	29	56.5	Kazakhstan
Kyrgyzstan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Kyrgyzstan
Mongolia	97.8	98.5	97.1	98.4	98.6	98.3	99.0	98.8	99.1	29	65.8	26	55.7	23	42.9	Mongolia
Tajikistan	98.2	99.2	97.2	99.2	99.6	98.8	99.7	99.8	99.6	55	77.5	30	74.2	15	62.4	Tajikistan
Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan	98.7	99.5	97.9	99.2	99.6	98.8	99.6	99.7	99.5	164	80.5	126	74.9	94	63.5	Uzbekistan
East Asia and the Pacific																**East Asia and the Pacific**
Australia[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Australia[o]
Brunei Darussalam	85.5	91.0	79.4	91.5	94.6	88.1	95.8	97.2	94.2	24	66.2	19	65.6	14	64.9	Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	62.0	77.7	48.8	68.0	80.2	57.2	77.2	84.2	70.7	2025	73.2	2352	70.5	2602	66.4	Cambodia
China[w]	78.3	87.2	68.9	85.2	92.1	77.9	92.9	96.8	88.9	181331	69.7	141903	72.9	80460	77.1	China[w]
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Cook Islands
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Democratic People's Republic of Korea
Fiji	88.6	91.6	85.5	92.9	94.9	90.8	96.7	97.6	95.7	51	63.1	39	63.8	22	62.8	Fiji

Country or territory	YOUTH LITERACY RATE (15-24) (%)									YOUNG ILLITERATES (15-24)						Country or territory
	1990			2000			2015			1990		2000		2015		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	
Arab States																**Arab States**
Algeria	77.3	86.1	68.1	88.5	93.2	83.6	96.3	97.9	94.7	1161	68.7	758	69.9	251	70.4	Algeria
Bahrain	95.6	96.2	95.0	98.4	98.2	98.6	99.5	99.2	99.8	3	54.2	2	42.5	1	19.2	Bahrain
Djibouti	73.2	82.2	64.2	84.0	88.7	79.4	93.4	94.4	92.3	23	70.1	20	64.8	11	57.8	Djibouti
Egypt[w]	61.3	70.9	51.0	69.7	76.4	62.6	80.3	83.2	77.3	3996	61.0	4178	59.8	3072	56.4	Egypt[w]
Iraq	41.0	56.4	24.9	44.6	59.3	29.1	50.4	64.2	36.1	2059	62.3	2554	62.4	3221	63.1	Iraq
Jordan[w]	96.7	97.9	95.3	99.2	99.1	99.3	99.8	99.8	99.8	23	66.0	8	41.4	3	48.5	Jordan[w]
Kuwait	87.5	87.9	87.2	92.4	91.7	93.2	96.3	95.2	97.4	46	50.6	34	43.2	13	34.4	Kuwait
Lebanon	92.1	95.5	88.6	95.2	97.2	93.0	97.9	98.9	96.8	48	71.2	32	71.3	15	73.0	Lebanon
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	91.0	98.9	82.7	96.5	99.8	93.0	98.9	99.8	98.0	78	94.0	44	97.2	13	90.5	Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
Mauritania	45.8	55.5	36.1	48.9	57.1	40.6	54.9	59.7	50.1	205	58.8	268	57.9	355	55.3	Mauritania
Morocco	55.3	68.0	42.0	67.3	76.0	58.2	82.3	85.4	79.1	2254	63.6	2015	62.8	1209	58.2	Morocco
Oman	85.6	95.4	75.4	97.9	99.5	96.2	99.8	99.8	99.8	44	83.8	10	89.3	2	49.1	Oman
Palestinian Autonomous Territories	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Palestinian Autonomous Territories
Qatar	90.3	88.3	93.0	94.8	92.6	97.1	97.7	96.1	99.3	5	31.8	4	27.0	2	14.7	Qatar
Saudi Arabia	85.4	91.2	78.6	92.7	94.9	90.3	97.2	97.3	97.1	368	70.8	287	65.0	170	51.5	Saudi Arabia
Sudan	65.0	75.6	54.0	77.2	82.8	71.5	89.3	90.2	88.4	1742	64.9	1400	61.5	894	53.3	Sudan
Syrian Arab Republic	79.9	92.2	66.9	87.2	95.4	78.8	94.1	97.9	90.2	500	80.2	461	81.6	254	81.4	Syrian Arab Republic
Tunisia[w]	84.1	92.8	75.2	93.3	97.4	89.1	98.3	99.8	96.6	262	77.2	133	79.7	30	94.1	Tunisia[w]
United Arab Emirates	84.7	81.7	88.6	90.6	87.4	94.4	95.2	92.6	98.0	40	28.5	37	26.1	21	19.9	United Arab Emirates
Yemen	50.0	73.5	25.0	65.0	82.9	46.2	85.1	92.0	77.8	1193	72.8	1165	75.0	1009	72.7	Yemen
Central and Eastern Europe																**Central and Eastern Europe**
Albania[o]	94.8	97.4	91.9	97.8	99.1	96.4	99.3	99.8	98.8	34	74.6	12	78.9	4	84.7	Albania[o]
Belarus	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	3	50.1	3	49.7	2	48.8	Belarus
Bosnia and Herzegovina[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Bosnia and Herzegovina[o]
Bulgaria[o]	99.4	99.5	99.3	99.7	99.8	99.5	99.8	99.8	99.7	7	59.2	4	68.4	2	58.0	Bulgaria[o]
Croatia	99.6	99.7	99.6	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	2	52.3	1	43.5	1	48.9	Croatia
Czech Republic[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Czech Republic[o]
Estonia[o]	99.8	99.7	99.8	99.7	99.7	99.8	99.7	99.7	99.7	0.5	41.8	1	43.2	0.4	45.0	Estonia[o]
Hungary[o]	99.7	99.8	99.7	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	4	56.4	3	48.9	2	48.8	Hungary[o]
Latvia[o]	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	1	48.5	1	49.3	0.5	48.9	Latvia[o]
Lithuania[o]	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	1	46.0	1	49.3	1	48.8	Lithuania[o]
Poland[o]	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	11	48.8	13	49.0	9	48.8	Poland[o]
Republic of Moldova	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	1	47.8	2	49.4	1	48.9	Republic of Moldova
Romania[o]	99.3	99.3	99.2	99.6	99.5	99.7	99.8	99.8	99.8	28	53.7	14	38.6	5	43.8	Romania[o]
Russian Federation[w]	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	42	46.6	46	49.4	29	49.0	Russian Federation[w]
Serbia and Montenegro	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Serbia and Montenegro
Slovakia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Slovakia
Slovenia[o]	99.8	99.7	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	1	44.5	1	48.1	0.4	48.8	Slovenia[o]
The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia[o]
Turkey[o]	92.7	97.1	88.3	96.5	98.8	94.0	99.1	99.8	98.5	816	79.5	473	82.9	120	88.2	Turkey[o]
Ukraine	99.8	99.8	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9	100.0	11	42.7	9	35.5	4	25.0	Ukraine
Central Asia																**Central Asia**
Armenia	99.5	99.7	99.4	99.7	99.8	99.7	99.9	99.9	99.9	3	62.9	2	58.1	1	50.4	Armenia
Azerbaijan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Azerbaijan
Georgia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Georgia
Kazakhstan	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	6	44.3	6	49.7	5	49.3	Kazakhstan
Kyrgyzstan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Kyrgyzstan
Mongolia	98.9	98.7	99.1	99.0	98.7	99.3	99.5	99.2	99.8	5	42.2	5	33.8	3	19.0	Mongolia
Tajikistan	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	2	54.8	2	49.5	3	49.4	Tajikistan
Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan	99.6	99.7	99.6	99.7	99.7	99.6	99.7	99.7	99.6	14	56.5	17	58.4	19	58.0	Uzbekistan
East Asia and the Pacific																**East Asia and the Pacific**
Australia[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Australia[o]
Brunei Darussalam	97.9	97.6	98.1	99.4	99.0	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	1	42.6	0.3	16.2	0.1	48.6	Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	73.5	81.5	65.6	79.1	83.9	74.3	86.4	88.1	84.7	477	65.3	510	61.0	524	55.7	Cambodia
China[w]	95.3	97.5	93.1	97.7	98.7	96.7	99.4	99.8	98.9	11709	72.3	4486	70.7	1251	83.0	China[w]
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Cook Islands
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Democratic People's Republic of Korea
Fiji	97.8	98.1	97.6	99.1	99.1	99.1	99.8	99.8	99.8	3	54.2	2	50.0	0.3	48.4	Fiji

1. UIS estimates.

Table 2 (continued)

Country or territory	ADULT LITERACY RATE (15 and over) (%)									ADULT ILLITERATES (15 and over)					
	1990			2000			2015			1990		2000		2015	
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F
Indonesia[w]	79.5	86.7	72.5	86.8	91.8	81.9	93.6	96.1	91.1	23 927	67.4	19 377	68.7	12 101	69.6
Japan[o]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Kiribati	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Lao People's Democratic Republic	56.5	70.3	42.8	64.8	76.2	53.4	76.1	83.9	68.2	1 010	67.3	1 064	67.3	1 099	66.8
Macao, China	90.5	94.6	86.8	93.8	96.8	91.0	96.6	98.5	94.8	26	73.2	21	75.4	15	78.5
Malaysia[w]	80.7	86.9	74.4	87.4	91.4	83.4	93.8	95.5	92.1	2 190	65.7	1 846	65.6	1 266	63.7
Marshall Islands	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Micronesia (Federated States of)	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Myanmar	80.7	87.4	74.2	84.7	88.9	80.5	88.6	90.6	86.6	4 913	67.6	4 897	64.6	4 715	59.9
Nauru	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
New Zealand[o]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Niue	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Palau	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Papua New Guinea	56.6	64.4	48.2	63.9	70.6	56.8	73.6	78.3	68.6	949	57.2	1 040	57.1	1 125	57.3
Philippines[w]	91.7	92.2	91.2	94.9	95.1	94.8	97.5	97.5	97.5	2 986	53.2	2 395	51.5	1 671	49.6
Republic of Korea[o]	95.9	98.4	93.4	97.8	99.1	96.4	99.3	99.6	98.9	1 307	80.5	831	80.9	312	76.5
Samoa	98.0	98.5	97.4	98.6	98.9	98.3	99.2	99.3	99.1	2	61.5	1	57.8	1	51.3
Singapore	88.8	94.4	83.2	92.3	96.2	88.3	96.5	98.1	94.9	265	75.2	243	75.6	142	73.2
Solomon Islands	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Thailand[w]	92.4	95.3	89.5	95.5	97.1	93.9	97.6	98.5	96.7	2 842	70.2	2 081	69.2	1 382	70.0
Timor-Leste	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Tokelau	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Tonga	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Tuvalu	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Vanuatu	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Viet Nam	90.4	94.0	87.1	92.5	94.5	90.7	94.7	95.3	94.2	3 897	68.0	3 901	63.1	3 722	55.4
Latin America and the Caribbean															
Anguilla	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Antigua and Barbuda	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Argentina[w]	95.7	95.9	95.6	96.8	96.8	96.8	97.9	97.7	98.0	964	53.6	849	51.8	704	48.9
Aruba	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Bahamas	94.4	93.6	95.2	95.4	94.5	96.3	96.6	95.7	97.4	10	43.7	10	41.3	9	39.2
Barbados	99.4	99.4	99.3	99.7	99.7	99.7	99.8	99.8	99.8	1	56.9	1	51.5	0.5	49.9
Belize	89.1	90.0	88.2	93.2	93.3	93.2	96.8	96.4	97.1	11	53.3	9	49.8	7	44.2
Bermuda	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Bolivia	78.1	86.8	69.8	85.4	91.9	79.2	92.7	96.4	89.1	846	70.6	733	72.9	543	75.7
Brazil[w]	82.0	82.9	81.2	86.9	87.0	86.8	91.8	91.2	92.4	17 358	53.2	15 885	51.6	12 488	48.1
British Virgin Islands	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Cayman Islands	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Chile[w]	94.0	94.4	93.6	95.8	95.9	95.6	97.7	97.7	97.6	550	54.8	461	53.2	321	51.4
Colombia	88.4	88.8	88.1	91.6	91.6	91.6	95.1	94.8	95.4	2 584	52.6	2 368	51.3	1 890	48.3
Costa Rica	93.9	93.9	93.8	95.6	95.5	95.6	97.4	97.2	97.5	119	50.2	121	48.7	101	46.4
Cuba	95.1	95.2	95.1	96.7	96.8	96.6	98.4	98.5	98.3	398	50.7	294	51.9	156	53.2
Dominica	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Dominican Republic	79.4	79.8	79.0	83.7	83.7	83.7	88.4	88.0	88.8	895	50.3	910	49.2	839	48.2
Ecuador	87.6	90.2	85.1	91.6	93.2	89.9	95.2	96.2	94.3	775	60.4	706	59.9	553	59.8
El Salvador	72.4	76.1	69.1	78.7	81.5	76.1	85.4	87.2	83.7	835	58.6	862	58.3	822	57.6
Grenada	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Guatemala	61.0	68.8	53.2	68.5	76.0	61.1	77.5	84.1	70.9	1 843	59.9	2 020	61.9	2 307	64.8
Guyana	97.2	98.0	96.4	98.5	98.9	98.1	99.4	99.5	99.4	13	67.0	8	66.5	3	59.3
Haiti	39.7	42.6	36.9	49.8	52.0	47.8	62.8	63.7	61.9	2 323	54.4	2 428	54.3	2 468	53.5
Honduras	68.1	68.9	67.3	75.0	74.9	75.0	82.9	82.1	83.8	851	51.3	934	50.0	985	47.7
Jamaica[w]	82.2	78.0	86.1	86.9	82.9	90.7	91.6	88.2	94.9	274	40.3	231	36.5	185	31.0
Mexico[o]	87.3	90.6	84.3	91.2	93.3	89.1	94.8	96.0	93.7	6 469	63.6	5 845	63.0	4 580	62.5
Montserrat	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Netherlands Antilles	95.6	95.6	95.7	96.5	96.5	96.6	97.5	97.4	97.6	6	52.5	6	52.3	5	50.9
Nicaragua	62.7	62.7	62.8	66.5	66.2	66.7	71.2	70.8	71.7	764	51.2	975	50.7	1 345	49.8
Panama	89.0	89.7	88.4	91.9	92.5	91.2	94.9	95.5	94.3	170	52.6	159	53.8	132	55.9
Paraguay[w]	90.3	92.4	88.3	93.3	94.4	92.2	96.0	96.4	95.7	237	60.5	224	58.1	203	54.7
Peru[w]	85.5	92.0	79.1	89.9	94.7	85.2	94.3	97.1	91.6	1 935	72.8	1 735	74.2	1 332	75.4
Saint Kitts and Nevis	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Saint Lucia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…

Country or territory	YOUTH LITERACY RATE (15-24) (%)									YOUNG ILLITERATES (15-24)						Country or territory
	1990			2000			2015			1990		2000		2015		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	
Indonesia[w]	95.0	96.6	93.4	97.7	98.3	97.1	99.5	99.6	99.4	1 879	65.2	963	62.1	219	57.8	Indonesia[w]
Japan[o]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Japan[o]
Kiribati	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Kiribati
Lao People's Democratic Republic	70.1	79.5	60.6	77.9	84.9	70.8	86.7	90.6	82.7	234	66.3	226	65.3	196	64.1	Lao People's Democratic Republic
Macao, China	97.2	99.2	95.8	98.9	99.8	97.9	99.7	99.8	99.7	2	87.4	1	90.7	0.2	61.5	Macao, China
Malaysia[w]	94.8	95.3	94.2	97.6	97.5	97.7	99.2	98.9	99.5	179	55.0	102	46.9	42	32.1	Malaysia[w]
Marshall Islands	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Marshall Islands
Micronesia (Federated States of)	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Micronesia (Federated States of)
Myanmar	88.2	90.1	86.2	90.9	91.4	90.5	93.9	93.0	94.8	969	58.1	863	52.2	633	42.4	Myanmar
Nauru	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Nauru
New Zealand[o]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	New Zealand[o]
Niue	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Niue
Palau	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Palau
Papua New Guinea	68.6	74.4	62.4	75.7	79.8	71.3	84.2	86.3	81.9	238	57.0	240	54.3	213	55.5	Papua New Guinea
Philippines[w]	97.3	97.1	97.4	98.7	98.5	98.9	99.8	99.7	99.8	342	46.0	196	40.9	45	41.0	Philippines[w]
Republic of Korea[o]	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	18	48.6	15	48.4	13	47.2	Republic of Korea[o]
Samoa	99.0	99.1	98.9	99.4	99.4	99.4	99.7	99.6	99.8	0.3	50.0	0.2	44.4	0.1	34.1	Samoa
Singapore	99.0	98.8	99.2	99.7	99.7	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	6	38.6	1	38.5	1	48.3	Singapore
Solomon Islands	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Solomon Islands
Thailand[w]	98.1	98.6	97.6	98.9	99.4	98.4	99.4	99.8	99.0	220	63.3	129	73.4	69	84.1	Thailand[w]
Timor-Leste	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Timor-Leste
Tokelau	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Tokelau
Tonga	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Tonga
Tuvalu	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Tuvalu
Vanuatu	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Vanuatu
Viet Nam	94.1	94.5	93.6	95.2	95.0	95.4	97.0	96.3	97.7	800	53.7	759	47.3	493	37.4	Viet Nam
Latin America and the Caribbean																**Latin America and the Caribbean**
Anguilla	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Anguilla
Antigua and Barbuda	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Antigua and Barbuda
Argentina[w]	98.2	98.0	98.4	98.6	98.3	98.8	99.0	98.8	99.3	97	44.2	96	41.3	67	37.2	Argentina[w]
Aruba	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Aruba
Bahamas	96.5	95.4	97.5	97.2	96.2	98.3	98.1	97.2	99.0	2	34.6	2	31.1	1	25.5	Bahamas
Barbados	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	0.1	49.5	0.1	49.5	0.1	49.2	Barbados
Belize	96.0	95.4	96.7	98.0	97.3	98.7	99.3	98.8	99.8	1	42.2	1	32.2	0.4	14.1	Belize
Bermuda	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Bermuda
Bolivia	92.6	96.2	89.0	95.8	98.0	93.6	98.7	99.4	97.9	97	74.4	68	75.9	29	76.8	Bolivia
Brazil[w]	91.8	90.5	93.1	95.3	94.0	96.7	97.5	96.2	98.9	2 367	42.0	1 585	34.8	786	22.0	Brazil[w]
British Virgin Islands	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	British Virgin Islands
Cayman Islands	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Cayman Islands
Chile[w]	98.1	97.9	98.3	98.9	98.7	99.0	99.7	99.6	99.7	48	43.9	28	42.2	10	45.4	Chile[w]
Colombia	94.9	94.3	95.5	96.9	96.2	97.5	98.9	98.2	99.6	369	43.6	250	39.0	104	19.8	Colombia
Costa Rica	97.4	97.1	97.7	98.3	98.0	98.6	99.3	99.0	99.5	15	43.5	13	40.1	7	30.7	Costa Rica
Cuba	99.3	99.3	99.2	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	17	51.1	3	48.9	3	48.8	Cuba
Dominica	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Dominica
Dominican Republic	87.5	86.8	88.2	91.1	90.4	91.9	94.7	94.0	95.5	184	45.9	148	44.5	93	41.9	Dominican Republic
Ecuador	95.5	96.0	94.9	97.2	97.5	96.9	98.9	99.1	98.8	95	55.6	72	54.5	30	57.8	Ecuador
El Salvador	83.8	85.1	82.6	88.2	89.0	87.3	92.9	93.2	92.6	172	55.0	158	53.0	105	51.4	El Salvador
Grenada	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Grenada
Guatemala	73.4	80.5	66.2	79.1	85.4	72.7	86.0	90.9	80.9	457	62.9	494	64.4	474	66.9	Guatemala
Guyana	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	0.3	51.0	0.3	49.9	0.3	49.5	Guyana
Haiti	54.8	55.8	53.8	64.4	64.3	64.5	76.5	75.2	78.0	580	51.2	628	49.6	477	46.5	Haiti
Honduras	79.7	78.5	80.8	85.1	83.5	86.6	90.9	89.2	92.6	201	46.5	200	44.0	166	39.8	Honduras
Jamaica[w]	91.2	87.1	95.2	94.0	90.7	97.5	96.8	94.4	99.4	42	27.7	31	21.2	16	9.4	Jamaica[w]
Mexico[o]	95.2	95.9	94.4	97.0	97.4	96.6	98.7	98.9	98.5	888	58.2	594	56.2	272	56.9	Mexico[o]
Montserrat	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Montserrat
Netherlands Antilles	97.5	97.3	97.7	98.2	98.0	98.4	98.9	98.8	99.1	1	46.0	1	44.9	0.4	43.1	Netherlands Antilles
Nicaragua	68.2	67.7	68.7	71.6	71.0	72.3	76.3	75.5	77.2	246	49.5	308	48.6	355	47.4	Nicaragua
Panama	95.3	95.7	94.8	96.7	97.1	96.3	98.4	98.7	98.0	23	54.2	17	55.4	9	58.5	Panama
Paraguay[w]	95.6	95.9	95.2	97.1	97.1	97.0	98.5	98.3	98.6	36	52.9	32	49.7	23	44.6	Paraguay[w]
Peru[w]	94.5	96.9	92.1	96.7	98.2	95.2	98.9	99.3	98.4	243	71.4	171	72.5	65	70.2	Peru[w]
Saint Kitts and Nevis	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Saint Kitts and Nevis
Saint Lucia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Saint Lucia

1. UIS estimates.

Table 2 (continued)

Country or territory	ADULT LITERACY RATE (15 and over) (%)									ADULT ILLITERATES (15 and over)					
	1990			2000			2015			1990		2000		2015	
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Suriname	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Trinidad and Tobago	96.8	98.1	95.6	98.3	98.9	97.7	99.3	99.5	99.1	26	69.7	17	69.4	8	64.6
Turks and Caicos Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uruguay[w]	96.5	96.0	97.0	97.6	97.1	98.0	98.6	98.2	98.9	80	45.6	61	43.1	41	39.5
Venezuela	88.9	90.1	87.7	92.5	93.0	92.0	96.1	96.0	96.2	1 340	55.3	1 189	53.4	875	48.9
North America and Western Europe															
Andorra	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Austria[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Belgium[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Canada[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cyprus[o]	94.3	97.7	91.0	97.1	98.7	95.4	99.1	99.4	98.7	29	80.3	18	78.9	7	68.9
Denmark[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Finland[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
France[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Germany[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Greece[o]	94.9	97.6	92.3	97.2	98.5	95.9	98.9	99.3	98.6	419	77.4	256	73.9	96	65.8
Iceland[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Ireland[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Israel[o]	91.4	94.9	88.0	94.8	97.0	92.7	97.9	98.7	97.1	267	70.9	225	72.1	124	69.8
Italy[o]	97.7	98.3	97.1	98.4	98.9	98.0	99.4	99.5	99.2	1 103	65.0	778	65.2	309	62.2
Luxembourg[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Malta[o]	88.4	87.9	88.9	92.0	91.3	92.7	95.7	94.6	96.8	32	49.1	25	46.6	15	38.2
Monaco	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Netherlands[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Norway[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Portugal[o]	87.2	90.9	83.8	92.2	94.7	89.9	97.2	98.1	96.3	1 013	66.4	654	67.8	242	68.4
San Marino	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Spain[o]	96.3	97.8	94.8	97.6	98.5	96.8	98.9	99.2	98.6	1 186	71.4	807	70.3	379	67.2
Sweden[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Switzerland[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
United Kingdom[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
United States[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South and West Asia															
Afghanistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bangladesh	34.2	44.3	23.7	40.0	49.4	30.2	47.2	55.7	38.3	41 908	55.6	50 558	56.3	64 941	56.9
Bhutan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
India[w]	49.3	61.9	35.9	57.2	68.4	45.4	67.9	76.5	58.9	272 388	61.2	286 951	61.9	288 372	62.5
Iran, Islamic Republic of	63.2	72.2	54.0	76.0	83.0	68.9	87.3	91.9	82.6	12 059	60.3	10 552	63.5	8 053	67.6
Maldives	94.8	95.0	94.6	96.9	97.0	96.8	98.6	98.6	98.6	6	50.2	5	49.9	4	48.9
Nepal	30.4	47.4	14.0	41.7	59.4	24.0	57.9	73.2	42.1	7 439	60.2	7 922	63.9	8 497	67.6
Pakistan	35.4	49.3	20.1	43.2	57.4	27.9	55.3	68.4	41.6	41 169	58.3	46 702	61.8	56 195	64.5
Sri Lanka[w]	88.7	92.9	84.7	91.6	94.4	89.0	94.6	96.0	93.3	1 302	64.5	1 167	63.9	893	61.7
Sub-Saharan Africa															
Angola	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Benin	26.4	38.1	15.5	37.4	52.1	23.6	53.8	69.9	38.3	1 773	59.1	2 106	62.8	2 499	68.0
Botswana	68.1	65.7	70.3	77.2	74.5	79.8	87.3	84.5	90.0	212	49.8	203	46.3	136	39.2
Burkina Faso	16.3	25.0	8.0	23.9	33.9	14.1	38.3	48.3	28.3	3 876	58.5	4 504	60.5	5 977	60.1
Burundi	37.0	48.4	26.6	48.0	56.1	40.4	64.0	66.4	61.8	1 949	60.9	1 734	60.4	1 945	54.3
Cameroon	57.9	68.7	47.5	71.3	79.1	63.7	85.8	89.5	82.0	2 683	63.5	2 432	63.9	1 743	63.2
Cape Verde	63.8	76.2	54.3	73.8	84.5	65.7	84.4	90.3	79.2	70	72.4	68	73.2	60	71.4
Central African Republic	33.2	47.1	20.7	46.7	59.7	34.9	66.3	75.0	58.3	1 112	62.5	1 129	63.7	977	63.9
Chad	27.7	37.0	18.8	42.6	51.6	34.0	65.2	71.2	59.4	2 297	57.6	2 423	58.7	2 308	59.2
Comoros	53.8	61.4	46.4	55.9	63.2	48.7	58.5	65.3	51.6	129	58.8	177	58.6	267	58.3
Congo	67.1	77.1	57.9	80.7	87.5	74.4	92.9	95.9	90.0	401	66.5	313	68.5	181	72.0
Côte d'Ivoire	38.5	50.5	25.7	48.6	59.5	37.2	62.4	70.6	54.0	4 141	57.1	4 761	58.7	4 983	59.6
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	47.5	61.4	34.4	61.4	73.1	50.2	79.2	86.2	72.3	10 256	64.4	10 078	65.8	9 093	67.0
Equatorial Guinea	73.3	85.8	61.1	83.2	92.5	74.4	93.2	97.2	89.4	54	74.9	43	78.2	26	79.8
Eritrea	46.4	58.5	34.8	55.7	67.3	44.5	69.0	78.6	59.5	930	61.8	908	63.6	1 058	65.8
Ethiopia	28.6	37.3	19.8	39.1	47.1	31.0	56.4	61.6	51.2	18 822	57.1	21 005	57.4	21 773	56.2

Country or territory	YOUTH LITERACY RATE (15-24) (%)									YOUNG ILLITERATES (15-24)					
	1990			2000			2015			1990		2000		2015	
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Suriname	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Trinidad and Tobago	99.6	99.7	99.6	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	1	51.3	1	49.6	0.4	49.4
Turks and Caicos Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uruguay[w]	98.7	98.3	99.1	99.1	98.8	99.4	99.5	99.3	99.7	6	34.1	5	32.7	3	31.7
Venezuela	96.0	95.4	96.6	98.0	97.3	98.6	99.3	98.9	99.8	153	41.8	95	32.9	37	14.4
North America and Western Europe															
Andorra	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Austria[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Belgium[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Canada[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cyprus[o]	99.7	99.5	99.8	99.8	99.7	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	0.3	29.3	0.3	40.6	0.2	48.4
Denmark[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Finland[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
France[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Germany[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Greece[o]	99.5	99.4	99.7	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	7	36.6	3	43.2	2	48.4
Iceland[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Ireland[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Israel[o]	98.7	99.0	98.4	99.4	99.5	99.3	99.8	99.8	99.8	10	60.6	6	59.5	2	48.7
Italy[o]	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	18	49.1	13	49.0	11	48.6
Luxembourg[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Malta[o]	97.5	96.0	99.1	98.6	97.4	99.8	99.3	98.9	99.8	1	18.5	1	6.7	0.3	14.8
Monaco	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Netherlands[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Norway[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Portugal[o]	99.5	99.5	99.6	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	8	44.0	3	49.2	2	48.7
San Marino	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Spain[o]	99.6	99.6	99.6	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.8	27	44.1	12	45.7	8	48.4
Sweden[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Switzerland[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
United Kingdom[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
United States[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South and West Asia															
Afghanistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bangladesh	42.0	50.7	33.2	48.4	56.7	39.7	58.1	65.1	50.8	13 098	55.4	14 441	56.6	14 781	57.2
Bhutan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
India[w]	64.3	73.4	54.2	72.6	79.7	64.8	82.7	86.7	78.4	58 575	61.1	52 125	61.6	38 771	60.2
Iran, Islamic Republic of	86.3	91.7	80.8	93.8	96.2	91.3	98.3	99.0	97.6	1 485	67.5	950	68.9	276	69.5
Maldives	98.1	98.1	98.1	99.1	99.0	99.1	99.8	99.8	99.8	1	48.3	1	46.6	0.2	46.4
Nepal	46.6	67.0	27.3	60.4	76.7	42.8	76.6	86.0	66.4	1 853	65.6	1 744	69.6	1 514	69.4
Pakistan	47.4	62.5	30.6	57.0	71.1	41.9	70.0	80.5	59.1	10 581	63.3	11 685	65.7	12 063	66.3
Sri Lanka[w]	95.1	95.9	94.2	96.8	97.0	96.6	98.4	98.1	98.7	159	57.1	116	52.5	50	40.1
Sub-Saharan Africa															
Angola	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Benin	40.4	56.6	24.7	53.1	70.5	36.0	70.1	85.1	55.1	497	64.0	596	68.6	576	75.2
Botswana	83.3	79.3	87.2	88.3	84.5	92.1	93.8	91.0	96.6	43	38.3	40	33.8	26	27.1
Burkina Faso	24.9	35.7	14.0	34.6	45.8	23.3	52.5	61.2	43.6	1 355	58.0	1 568	59.6	1 780	59.1
Burundi	51.6	58.4	44.8	63.9	65.9	62.1	78.6	75.2	81.9	517	57.2	469	53.0	417	42.3
Cameroon	81.1	86.4	75.9	90.0	92.0	88.0	96.2	96.4	96.1	412	63.9	308	59.8	160	51.7
Cape Verde	81.5	87.1	76.2	88.0	91.3	84.8	94.7	95.5	93.7	14	65.9	11	64.1	6	58.1
Central African Republic	52.1	65.6	39.4	67.3	76.0	59.0	84.3	86.6	82.1	249	65.3	241	63.9	163	57.6
Chad	48.0	58.4	37.7	66.6	73.4	59.9	86.5	88.1	84.8	568	60.4	503	60.3	331	55.9
Comoros	56.7	63.8	49.6	58.6	65.3	51.8	61.4	67.7	55.0	46	57.8	63	57.8	80	57.4
Congo	92.5	94.9	90.3	97.4	98.1	96.8	99.4	99.8	99.0	32	66.3	15	63.6	6	80.3
Côte d'Ivoire	52.6	64.9	40.3	61.5	70.6	52.3	75.6	80.4	70.7	1 059	62.2	1 325	61.7	1 057	59.8
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	68.9	80.3	57.6	81.7	88.4	74.9	92.8	95.1	90.6	2 162	68.3	1 769	68.4	1 231	65.8
Equatorial Guinea	92.7	96.6	88.8	96.9	98.5	95.4	99.3	99.7	98.9	5	77.4	3	75.4	1	77.7
Eritrea	60.9	72.5	49.3	70.2	80.1	60.4	81.6	88.3	74.9	236	64.9	209	66.7	216	68.2
Ethiopia	43.0	51.5	34.1	55.0	61.2	48.7	71.9	73.8	69.9	5 185	58.1	5 408	57.0	5 266	53.4

1. UIS estimates.

Table 2 (continued)

Country or territory	ADULT LITERACY RATE (15 and over) (%)									ADULT ILLITERATES (15 and over)					
	1990			2000			2015			1990		2000		2015	
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F
Gabon	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Gambia	25.6	31.7	19.7	36.6	43.7	29.7	54.7	61.8	47.8	401	55.0	494	56.5	511	58.7
Ghana	58.5	70.1	47.2	71.6	80.3	63.2	85.3	90.1	80.7	3 438	64.5	3 239	65.6	2 474	66.3
Guinea	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guinea-Bissau	27.2	42.3	12.9	38.4	54.1	23.5	58.1	70.8	45.8	397	61.3	417	63.6	409	65.8
Kenya	70.8	80.9	60.8	82.4	88.9	76.0	92.5	95.0	89.9	3 479	68.1	3 049	68.9	1 862	67.1
Lesotho	78.0	65.4	89.5	83.4	72.6	93.6	89.4	81.4	97.3	219	24.7	205	19.8	143	12.8
Liberia	39.2	55.4	22.8	53.5	70.2	36.7	68.0	82.5	53.5	640	63.0	776	67.6	880	72.4
Madagascar	58.0	66.4	49.8	66.5	73.6	59.7	78.0	82.4	73.8	2 773	60.4	2 957	60.8	3 072	60.2
Malawi	51.8	68.8	36.2	60.1	74.5	46.5	71.6	81.6	61.6	2 406	69.0	2 419	68.6	2 482	67.1
Mali	18.8	27.9	10.4	25.6	35.8	16.0	37.8	48.4	27.4	3 849	57.0	4 548	57.8	5 905	58.8
Mauritius	79.8	84.8	75.0	84.5	87.8	81.2	89.8	91.3	88.3	150	62.4	134	61.1	105	58.0
Mozambique	33.5	49.3	18.4	44.0	60.0	28.7	62.9	75.6	50.5	5 081	62.8	5 741	64.9	5 082	67.3
Namibia	74.9	77.4	72.4	82.0	82.8	81.2	90.7	89.9	91.5	196	57.3	178	53.7	132	45.6
Niger	11.4	18.0	5.1	16.0	23.8	8.5	25.3	34.6	16.2	3 420	54.0	4 564	54.4	6 948	55.5
Nigeria	48.7	59.4	38.4	64.0	72.2	56.1	81.4	85.9	77.1	23 709	60.4	22 510	60.9	18 003	61.0
Rwanda	53.3	62.9	44.0	66.8	73.6	60.4	81.6	84.4	78.9	1 671	61.1	1 405	60.7	1 105	57.8
Sao Tome and Principe	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Senegal	28.4	38.2	18.6	37.4	47.3	27.7	51.5	60.0	43.3	2 863	57.1	3 285	58.4	3 925	59.3
Seychelles	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sierra Leone	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Somalia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Africa	81.2	82.2	80.2	85.2	86.0	84.6	90.2	90.7	89.8	4 215	53.7	4 217	53.6	3 026	52.5
Swaziland	71.6	73.7	69.9	79.6	80.8	78.6	88.0	88.3	87.8	122	54.5	110	53.7	75	50.9
Togo	44.2	60.5	28.7	57.1	72.3	42.5	74.1	85.2	63.3	1 047	65.3	1 082	68.1	1 001	71.5
Uganda	56.1	69.3	43.5	67.0	77.5	56.8	79.2	85.8	72.8	3 924	65.3	3 902	65.9	4 076	65.7
United Republic of Tanzania	62.9	75.5	51.0	75.0	83.9	66.5	87.7	91.8	83.7	5 142	67.9	4 827	68.3	3 616	66.9
Zambia	68.2	78.6	58.7	78.2	85.2	71.5	87.9	91.2	84.6	1 384	65.7	1 215	65.3	999	62.6
Zimbabwe[w]	80.7	86.6	75.0	88.7	92.8	84.6	95.6	97.6	93.6	1 071	65.5	784	67.9	432	72.1
Weighted average										Total	% F	Total	% F	Total	% F
World	75.3	81.7	68.9	79.7	85.2	74.2	85.0	89.0	81.0	879 130	63.0	861 966	63.7	799 152	63.5
Developed countries and countries in transition	97.7	98.5	96.9	98.6	99.0	98.1	99.3	99.4	99.2	21 970	69.7	14 895	67.4	7 521	60.8
Developing countries	67.0	75.9	57.9	73.6	81.0	66.1	81.3	86.5	76.1	857 159	62.9	847 071	63.6	791 631	63.5
Arab States	50.2	63.8	35.8	60.1	71.7	47.8	71.7	80.1	62.9	62 400	63.0	67 473	64.0	70 803	64.3
Central and Eastern Europe	94.6	97.3	92.1	96.2	98.1	94.3	97.8	99.0	96.8	16 519	76.8	12 518	77.2	7 217	77.3
Central Asia	98.9	99.5	98.3	99.6	99.7	99.4	99.8	99.8	99.7	480	79.6	222	67.0	161	55.2
East Asia and the Pacific	80.3	88.1	72.2	86.6	92.5	80.6	93.3	96.5	90.1	232 904	69.2	186 404	71.4	114 123	73.3
Latin America and the Caribbean	85.1	86.8	83.4	88.9	89.9	87.9	92.9	93.2	92.5	41 932	56.5	39 254	55.6	33 055	53.8
North America and Western Europe	97.9	98.4	97.3	98.6	99.0	98.3	99.3	99.4	99.2	11 363	64.6	7 873	62.7	4 244	58.4
South and West Asia	47.5	59.7	34.5	55.3	66.4	43.6	65.6	74.5	56.3	382 151	60.2	412 242	61.3	436 704	62.1
Sub-Saharan Africa	49.2	59.3	39.5	60.3	68.9	52.0	73.9	79.7	68.2	131 380	60.7	135 980	61.3	132 844	61.2

Country or territory	YOUTH LITERACY RATE (15-24) (%)									YOUNG ILLITERATES (15-24)					
	1990			2000			2015			1990		2000		2015	
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F
Gabon	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Gambia	42.2	50.5	34.1	57.2	65.2	49.3	76.9	82.4	71.4	95	57.7	100	59.7	81	61.9
Ghana	81.8	88.2	75.4	91.1	93.6	88.6	97.1	97.3	96.8	533	67.5	368	63.7	153	54.1
Guinea	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guinea-Bissau	44.1	62.2	26.5	58.1	72.8	43.7	77.3	84.1	70.5	97	66.4	94	67.6	77	65.1
Kenya	89.8	92.9	86.7	95.1	96.0	94.2	98.5	98.3	98.8	471	65.4	338	59.5	126	40.3
Lesotho	87.2	77.2	97.1	90.5	82.7	98.5	94.2	89.0	99.6	41	11.3	38	7.9	29	3.4
Liberia	57.2	75.4	38.6	68.8	84.9	52.6	83.3	93.4	73.2	171	70.0	228	75.6	144	80.1
Madagascar	72.2	77.8	66.6	80.1	83.6	76.6	88.6	89.9	87.2	635	60.1	610	58.9	552	55.9
Malawi	63.2	75.7	51.2	71.1	81.0	61.0	80.6	86.9	74.2	650	67.6	653	66.8	652	65.6
Mali	27.6	38.3	17.1	36.1	47.3	25.1	50.8	60.8	40.7	1 266	57.5	1 425	58.6	1 691	59.8
Mauritius	91.1	91.2	91.1	93.8	93.3	94.3	96.8	95.8	97.9	18	49.3	13	45.5	6	32.3
Mozambique	48.8	66.1	31.7	60.6	75.1	46.2	76.4	84.8	68.0	1 340	67.0	1 422	68.3	1 221	68.1
Namibia	87.4	85.9	89.0	91.6	89.9	93.3	95.6	94.0	97.2	35	43.9	29	39.6	23	31.1
Niger	17.0	24.9	9.3	23.0	32.3	13.8	35.1	45.3	24.9	1 223	53.8	1 623	55.0	2 326	56.8
Nigeria	73.6	80.8	66.5	86.9	89.6	84.3	96.0	96.1	95.9	4 257	62.8	3 001	59.2	1 375	50.2
Rwanda	72.7	78.0	67.4	83.4	85.2	81.6	92.5	91.9	93.1	369	60.1	280	55.8	159	46.2
Sao Tome and Principe	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Senegal	40.1	50.0	30.2	50.7	59.5	41.9	66.6	72.2	60.8	832	58.1	926	58.8	917	58.2
Seychelles	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sierra Leone	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Somalia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Africa	88.5	88.6	88.4	91.3	91.3	91.3	94.4	94.3	94.5	877	50.7	777	50.4	535	49.1
Swaziland	85.1	84.7	85.5	90.4	89.6	91.2	95.3	94.5	96.1	23	49.3	18	46.1	11	41.8
Togo	63.5	79.4	47.7	75.5	87.2	63.8	88.0	93.9	82.1	242	71.8	226	73.8	162	74.5
Uganda	70.1	79.8	60.5	78.7	85.4	72.1	88.1	91.3	84.9	1 002	66.2	998	65.7	920	63.5
United Republic of Tanzania	83.1	89.2	77.2	90.5	93.2	87.9	96.4	96.5	96.2	883	68.7	684	64.2	382	51.5
Zambia	81.2	86.4	76.2	88.2	90.8	85.5	94.2	94.9	93.5	305	63.3	254	60.8	187	55.4
Zimbabwe[w]	93.9	96.6	91.3	97.2	98.7	95.7	99.4	99.8	99.0	125	71.7	78	76.2	24	83.9
Weighted average										Total	% F	Total	% F	Total	% F
World	84.2	88.2	80.0	86.8	89.9	83.4	90.5	92.5	88.3	157 396	61.7	140 585	61.2	112 894	59.6
Developed countries and countries in transition	99.6	99.6	99.5	99.7	99.7	99.7	99.8	99.8	99.8	767	55.7	497	53.6	360	50.8
Developing countries	80.8	85.7	75.7	84.2	88.0	80.1	89.0	91.4	86.6	156 629	61.7	140 088	61.2	112 533	59.7
Arab States	66.5	77.2	55.1	76.0	83.1	68.5	85.1	88.6	81.4	13 894	65.1	13 191	64.0	10 268	61.1
Central and Eastern Europe	98.4	99.2	97.5	99.1	99.6	98.6	99.6	99.8	99.4	976	75.5	592	76.4	189	74.2
Central Asia	99.7	99.7	99.7	99.7	99.7	99.7	99.7	99.7	99.7	40	51.0	41	51.5	39	51.4
East Asia and the Pacific	95.1	97.0	93.2	97.2	98.0	96.4	98.8	99.1	98.5	17 726	68.1	8 895	63.1	4 027	59.7
Latin America and the Caribbean	92.7	92.7	92.8	95.0	94.8	95.3	97.1	96.7	97.4	6 377	49.5	5 023	46.8	3 147	43.3
North America and Western Europe	99.5	99.6	99.4	99.7	99.7	99.6	99.8	99.8	99.7	506	57.0	301	55.3	225	50.9
South and West Asia	61.6	71.1	51.2	69.7	77.5	61.2	79.2	84.3	73.9	87 239	60.7	82 974	61.5	68 968	60.8
Sub-Saharan Africa	66.5	74.1	59.0	76.3	81.3	71.3	85.8	88.1	83.4	30 638	61.4	29 568	60.4	26 031	57.9

1. UIS estimates.

Table 3
Early childhood care and education (ECCE)

Country or territory	Age group	GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)								GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN ECCE[1] (%)				NEW ENTRANTS TO PRIMARY EDUCATION WITH ECCE EXPERIENCE (%)			Country or territory
		1990			GPI	2000			GPI	2000			GPI	2000			
	2000	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	
Arab States																	**Arab States**
Algeria	4-5	…	…	…	…	3.3	3.4	3.3	1.00	…	…	…	…	2.7	2.6	2.8	Algeria
Bahrain	3-5	27.1	26.9	27.4	1.02	39.2	40.4	38.0	0.94	41.4	42.7	40.1	0.94	…	…	…	Bahrain
Djibouti	3-5	0.7	0.6	0.9	1.46	0.4	0.3	0.4	1.44	.	.	.	.	2.5	2.0	3.2	Djibouti
Egypt[w]	4-5	6.1	6.1	6.1	1.00	12.5	12.8	12.2	0.95	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Egypt[w]
Iraq	4-5	7.9	8.1	7.7	0.96	*5.7*	*5.7*	*5.7*	*1.00*	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Iraq
Jordan[w, 2]	4-5	20.8	22.1	19.5	0.88	*30.6*	*32.0*	*29.2*	*0.91*	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Jordan[w, 2]
Kuwait	4-5	32.9	32.8	33.1	1.01	112.8	114.0	111.6	0.98	…	…	…	…	93.0	90.8	95.3	Kuwait
Lebanon	3-5	…	…	…	…	70.8	71.5	70.1	0.98	…	…	…	…	94.8	94.8	94.8	Lebanon
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	4-5	…	…	…	…	7.9	7.8	7.9	1.01	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
Mauritania	3-5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Mauritania
Morocco	4-5	60.6	82.7	37.7	0.46	53.4	67.8	38.5	0.57	55.0	69.5	39.9	0.57	…	…	…	Morocco
Oman	4-5	3.0	3.2	2.8	0.88	4.8	5.0	4.5	0.90	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Oman
Palestinian Autonomous Territories	4-5	…	…	…	…	33.8	34.9	32.7	0.94	…	…	…	…	76.4	81.0	71.6	Palestinian Autonomous Territories
Qatar	3-5	28.3	29.4	27.3	0.93	29.9	30.9	28.8	0.93	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Qatar
Saudi Arabia	3-5	7.2	7.7	6.7	0.88	5.0	5.1	4.8	0.93	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Saudi Arabia
Sudan	4-5	19.7	25.1	14.2	0.57	19.7**	19.6**	19.8**	1.01**	.	.	.	.	45.6	45.6	45.6	Sudan
Syrian Arab Republic	3-5	6.3	6.7	5.9	0.88	9.7	10.1	9.4	0.93	…	…	…	…	12.0	12.0	12.0	Syrian Arab Republic
Tunisia[w, 2]	5-5	7.8	…	…	…	*15.8*	*15.9*	*15.7*	*0.99*	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Tunisia[w, 2]
United Arab Emirates	4-5	51.1	51.0	51.1	1.00	84.3	84.1	84.5	1.00	…	…	…	…	41.6	42.3	40.9	United Arab Emirates
Yemen	3-5	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.94	0.4**	0.4**	0.3**	0.92**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Yemen
Central and Eastern Europe																	**Central and Eastern Europe**
Albania[o]	3-5	58.6	…	…	…	43.4	41.9	44.9	1.07	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Albania[o]
Belarus	3-5	84.0	…	…	…	85.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Belarus
Bosnia and Herzegovina[o]	3-5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Bosnia and Herzegovina[o]
Bulgaria[o]	3-6	91.6	91.3	91.9	1.01	67.9	68.3	67.4	0.99	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Bulgaria[o]
Croatia	3-6	28.3	28.5	28.1	0.98	40.0	40.8	39.3	0.96	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Croatia
Czech Republic[o]	3-5	95.0	96.3	93.6	0.97	91.9	91.9	91.9	1.00	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Czech Republic[o]
Estonia[o]	3-6	75.0	75.5	74.4	0.99	102.3	103.1	101.5	0.98	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Estonia[o]
Hungary[o]	3-6	113.4	115.4	111.4	0.97	79.5	80.2	78.7	0.98	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Hungary[o]
Latvia[o]	3-6	45.5	45.3	45.6	1.01	59.4	61.1	57.6	0.94	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Latvia[o]
Lithuania[o]	3-6	57.8	57.6	57.9	1.01	51.8	52.5	51.0	0.97	57.6	58.5	56.8	0.97	…	…	…	Lithuania[o]
Poland[o]	3-6	46.7	…	…	…	49.4	49.3	49.5	1.00	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Poland[o]
Republic of Moldova	3-6	72.7	74.3	71.0	0.96	34.9	34.8**	34.9**	1.00**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Republic of Moldova
Romania[o]	3-6	76.0	74.5	77.6	1.04	73.0	71.8	74.2	1.03	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Romania[o]
Russian Federation[w]	4-6	74.0	…	…	…	87.2	89.6**	84.7**	0.94**	…	…	…	…	70.0	70.0	70.0	Russian Federation[w]
Serbia and Montenegro	3-6	…	…	…	…	30.5	30.3	30.8	1.01	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Serbia and Montenegro
Slovakia	3-5	86.1	…	…	…	81.3	82.5	79.9	0.97	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Slovakia
Slovenia[o]	3-6	73.7	75.5	71.7	0.95	74.8	75.8	73.8	0.97	88.8	90.1	87.3	0.97	…	…	…	Slovenia[o]
The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia[o]	3-6	…	…	…	…	28.8	28.7	28.9	1.00	31.5	31.4	31.7	1.01	…	…	…	The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia[o]
Turkey[o]	3-5	4.6	4.7	4.4	0.94	5.7	5.9	5.5	0.94	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Turkey[o]
Ukraine	3-6	85.0	88.4	81.5	0.92	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Ukraine
Central Asia																	**Central Asia**
Armenia[3]	3-6	36.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Armenia[3]
Azerbaijan	3-5	19.5	21.3	17.7	0.83	24.1	23.9	24.2	1.01	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Azerbaijan
Georgia	3-5	58.9	…	…	…	38.9	39.1**	38.6**	0.99**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Georgia
Kazakhstan	3-6	72.3	…	…	…	12.9	13.1	12.7	0.96	…	…	…	…	46.0	46.3	45.7	Kazakhstan
Kyrgyzstan	3-5	33.5	33.2	33.9	1.02	14.2	14.5	14.0	0.96	14.6	14.9	14.3	0.96	5.5	5.7	5.4	Kyrgyzstan
Mongolia	3-7	39.1	35.0	43.3	1.24	28.7	27.2	30.2	1.11	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Mongolia
Tajikistan	3-6	15.8	…	…	…	8.7	9.4	7.9	0.84	…	…	…	…	0.4	0.4	0.3	Tajikistan
Turkmenistan	3-6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan	3-5	73.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Uzbekistan
East Asia and the Pacific																	**East Asia and the Pacific**
Australia[o]	4-4	71.3	71.3	71.3	1.00	98.0	98.0**	98.0**	1.00**	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Australia[o]
Brunei Darussalam	3-5	47.2	48.2	46.1	0.96	45.3	44.7	45.8	1.02	…	…	…	…	94.6	94.0	95.1	Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	3-5	4.0	4.2	3.8	0.91	6.6	6.3	6.8	1.07	…	…	…	…	8.4	8.1	8.8	Cambodia
China[w]	3-6	22.7	22.7	22.6	0.99	26.5	27.4	25.5	0.93	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	China[w]

1. GER in ECCE includes pre-primary education and other early childhood care and education programmes.
2. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.
3. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to inconsistencies between enrolment and United Nations population data.
4. National population data have been used to calculate enrolment ratios.
5. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.
6. Data include enrolment of pupils in 'katchi' programmes.

Table 3 (continued)

Country or territory	Age group	GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)							GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN ECCE[1] (%)				NEW ENTRANTS TO PRIMARY EDUCATION WITH ECCE EXPERIENCE (%)			Country or territory
		1990			GPI	2000			GPI	2000			GPI	2000			
	2000	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	
Cook Islands[4]	4-4	...	...	...	...	85.9**	86.4**	85.4**	0.99**	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Cook Islands[4]
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	4-5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Democratic People's Republic of Korea
Fiji	3-5	13.4	13.0	13.8	1.06	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Fiji
Indonesia[w]	5-6	18.1	...	...	...	18.8	18.5	19.2	1.04	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Indonesia[w]
Japan[o]	3-5	48.1	47.8	48.5	1.02	83.8	83.8**	83.9**	1.00**	96.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	Japan[o]
Kiribati	3-5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Kiribati
Lao People's Democratic Republic	3-5	7.3	7.8	6.8	0.87	7.8	7.5	8.2	1.09	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Lao People's Democratic Republic
Macao, China	3-5	88.8	89.7	88.0	0.98	90.3	93.6	86.8	0.93	...	...	...	...	96.9	97.0	96.8	Macao, China
Malaysia[w]	4-5	35.0	34.6	35.5	1.02	48.9	45.1	53.0	1.18	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Malaysia[w]
Marshall Islands	5-5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Marshall Islands
Micronesia (Federated States of)	3-5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Micronesia (Federated States of)
Myanmar[2]	3-4	...	...	...	...	*1.9***	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Myanmar[2]
Nauru	5-5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Nauru
New Zealand[o, 2]	3-4	74.5	74.5	74.5	1.00	*57.8*	*57.8*	*57.9*	*1.00*	.	.	.	.	...	...	...	New Zealand[o, 2]
Niue[2]	4-4	...	...	...	...	*153.7*	*159.1*	*147.4*	*0.93*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Niue[2]
Palau	3-5	...	...	...	...	57.5**	54.9**	60.3**	1.10**	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Palau
Papua New Guinea[2]	6-6	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.99	*18.3***	*18.9***	*17.7***	*0.94***	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Papua New Guinea[2]
Philippines[w]	5-5	11.7	...	...	...	30.2	29.5	30.9	1.05	...	...	...	...	23.8	22.6	25.2	Philippines[w]
Republic of Korea[o]	5-5	55.4	56.1	54.7	0.98	79.8	79.8	79.7	1.00	.	.	.	.	...	...	...	Republic of Korea[o]
Samoa	3-4	...	...	...	...	35.9**	34.3**	37.5**	1.09**	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Samoa
Singapore	3-5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Singapore
Solomon Islands	5-5	32.1	33.2	30.9	0.93	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Solomon Islands
Thailand[w]	3-5	42.9	43.0	42.8	1.00	83.3	84.1	82.4	0.98	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Thailand[w]
Timor-Leste	4-5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Timor-Leste
Tokelau	3-4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Tokelau
Tonga	3-4	...	...	...	...	30.6**	26.8**	34.9**	1.30**	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Tonga
Tuvalu	3-5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Tuvalu
Vanuatu	4-5	...	...	...	...	73.2**	70.0**	76.6**	1.09**	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Vanuatu
Viet Nam	3-5	28.5	...	...	...	43.2	44.9	41.4	0.92	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Viet Nam
Latin America and the Caribbean																	**Latin America and the Caribbean**
Anguilla[5]	3-4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	100.0	100.0	100.0	Anguilla[5]
Antigua and Barbuda	3-4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Antigua and Barbuda
Argentina[w]	3-5	...	...	...	...	60.4	59.8	60.9	1.02	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Argentina[w]
Aruba[4]	4-5	...	...	...	...	98.3	98.4	98.1	1.00	...	...	...	...	85.3	84.2	86.5	Aruba[4]
Bahamas[2]	3-4	...	...	...	...	*15.3*	*14.7***	*15.9***	*1.09***	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Bahamas[2]
Barbados	3-4	...	...	...	...	80.3	77.5	83.2	1.07	...	...	...	...	100.0	100.0	100.0	Barbados
Belize	3-4	23.3	21.9	24.7	1.13	31.2	30.2	32.2	1.06	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Belize
Bermuda[5]	4-4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	50.4	45.6	54.8	Bermuda[5]
Bolivia	4-5	32.0	31.9	32.0	1.00	46.4	46.2	46.6	1.01	.	.	.	.	56.2	56.3	56.1	Bolivia
Brazil[w]	4-6	48.3	...	...	...	63.0	63.0	63.0	1.00	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Brazil[w]
British Virgin Islands[5]	3-4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	British Virgin Islands[5]
Cayman Islands[5]	3-4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	93.8	93.5	94.2	Cayman Islands[5]
Chile[w]	4-5	82.4	82.0	82.8	1.01	77.5	77.5	77.4	1.00	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Chile[w]
Colombia	3-5	13.0	...	...	...	37.0	36.7	37.3	1.02	.	.	.	.	...	...	...	Colombia
Costa Rica	5-5	61.0	60.7	61.4	1.01	87.4	87.2	87.5	1.00	91.6	91.5	91.6	1.00	81.4	80.8	82.0	Costa Rica
Cuba	3-5	101.1	110.8	90.9	0.82	108.8	107.8	109.7	1.02	194.5	189.7	199.6	1.05	96.7	96.8	96.5	Cuba
Dominica[5]	3-4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	100.0	100.0	100.0	Dominica[5]
Dominican Republic	3-5	...	...	...	...	38.1**	37.8**	38.4**	1.01**	.	.	.	.	...	...	...	Dominican Republic
Ecuador	5-5	41.9	...	...	...	68.7	67.7	69.8	1.03	109.2	108.1	110.3	1.02	50.6	49.8	51.4	Ecuador
El Salvador	4-6	...	...	...	...	43.6	42.9	44.4	1.03	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	El Salvador
Grenada	3-4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Grenada
Guatemala	5-6	...	...	...	...	51.2	51.0	51.4	1.01	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Guatemala
Guyana[2]	4-5	73.6	72.5	74.7	1.03	*117.5*	*118.0*	*116.9*	*0.99*	...	...	...	...	97.5	...	...	Guyana[2]
Haiti	3-5	34.3	35.1	33.4	0.95	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Haiti
Honduras	4-6	...	...	...	...	21.4	20.8	21.9	1.05	32.3**	31.5**	33.1**	1.05**	...	...	...	Honduras
Jamaica[w]	3-5	78.1	77.0	79.2	1.03	82.5	81.6	83.4	1.02	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Jamaica[w]
Mexico[o]	4-5	64.5	63.5	65.4	1.03	77.0	76.0	78.0	1.03	.	.	.	.	...	...	...	Mexico[o]
Montserrat[5]	3-4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Montserrat[5]
Netherlands Antilles	4-5	...	...	...	...	89.3	88.8	89.8	1.01	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Netherlands Antilles

1. GER in ECCE includes pre-primary education and other early childhood care and education programmes.
2. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.
3. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to inconsistencies between enrolment and United Nations population data.
4. National population data have been used to calculate enrolment ratios.
5. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.
6. Data include enrolment of pupils in 'katchi' programmes.

Table 3 (continued)

Country or territory	Age group	GER in pre-primary education (%)								GER in ECCE[1] (%)				New entrants to primary education with ECCE experience (%)			Country or territory
		1990			GPI	2000			GPI	2000			GPI	2000			
	2000	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	
Nicaragua	3-6	12.1	11.6	12.6	1.09	26.8	26.4	27.3	1.04	…	…	…	…	47.0	45.0	49.2	Nicaragua
Panama	4-5	53.0	53.0	53.0	1.00	47.1	46.7	47.6	1.02	50.0	49.5	50.5	1.02	67.3	65.4	69.4	Panama
Paraguay[w, 2]	3-5	27.1	26.7	27.6	1.03	*83.0*	*81.9*	*84.1*	*1.03*	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Paraguay[w, 2]
Peru[w]	3-5	29.9	…	…	…	64.1	63.6	64.6	1.02	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Peru[w]
Saint Kitts and Nevis[5]	3-4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Saint Kitts and Nevis[5]
Saint Lucia	3-4	54.5	…	…	…	61.5	60.2	62.9	1.05	80.6	78.7	82.8	1.05	…	…	…	Saint Lucia
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines[5]	3-4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines[5]
Suriname	4-5	79.3	79.6	79.0	0.99	96.6	96.9	96.3	0.99	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Suriname
Trinidad and Tobago	3-4	8.8	8.7	8.9	1.02	62.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	77.0	75.2	78.9	Trinidad and Tobago
Turks and Caicos Islands[5]	4-5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	100.0	100.0	100.0	Turks and Caicos Islands[5]
Uruguay[w]	3-5	42.6	42.1	43.2	1.03	62.5	61.8	63.3	1.02	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Uruguay[w]
Venezuela	3-5	40.8	40.3	41.2	1.02	48.1**	47.7**	48.6**	1.02**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Venezuela
North America and Western Europe																	**North America and Western Europe**
Andorra	3-5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Andorra
Austria[o]	3-5	68.9	69.3	68.5	0.99	82.7	82.8	82.7	1.00	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Austria[o]
Belgium[o]	3-5	104.0	104.1	103.9	1.00	113.3	113.7	112.9	0.99	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Belgium[o]
Canada[o]	4-5	60.8	60.8	60.7	1.00	64.4	64.6	64.2	0.99	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Canada[o]
Cyprus[o]	3-5	47.9	48.3	47.6	0.99	59.7	59.8	59.6	1.00	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Cyprus[o]
Denmark[o]	3-6	99.0	99.3	98.8	1.00	89.9	89.8	90.1	1.00	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Denmark[o]
Finland[o]	3-6	33.6	…	…	…	53.8	54.0	53.7	1.00	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Finland[o]
France[o]	3-5	83.3	83.4	83.1	1.00	114.4	114.5	114.3	1.00	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	France[o]
Germany[o]	3-5	…	…	…	…	103.3	103.9	102.8	0.99	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Germany[o]
Greece[o]	4-5	56.7	56.6	56.9	1.00	71.8	70.7	73.0	1.03	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Greece[o]
Iceland[o]	3-5	…	…	…	…	109.3	109.6	108.9	0.99	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Iceland[o]
Ireland[o]	4-5	101.2	102.0	100.4	0.98	…	…	…	…	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Ireland[o]
Israel[o]	3-5	85.4	…	…	…	112.6	113.1	112.1	0.99	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Israel[o]
Italy[o]	3-5	93.9	93.4	94.4	1.01	96.3	97.0	95.6	0.99	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Italy[o]
Luxembourg[o]	4-5	92.1	…	…	…	119.1	…	…	…	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Luxembourg[o]
Malta[o]	3-4	102.8	106.2	99.1	0.93	100.3	101.2	99.3	0.98	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Malta[o]
Monaco	3-5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Monaco
Netherlands[o]	4-5	99.2	98.5	99.9	1.01	97.3	98.1	96.4	0.98	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Netherlands[o]
Norway[o]	3-5	88.4	…	…	…	79.3	77.1	81.7	1.06	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Norway[o]
Portugal[o]	3-5	52.7	52.9	52.5	0.99	69.7	68.7	70.8	1.03	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Portugal[o]
San Marino	3-5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	San Marino
Spain[o]	3-5	59.4	58.6	60.3	1.03	101.8	101.0	102.6	1.02	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Spain[o]
Sweden[o]	3-6	64.7	…	…	…	74.6	74.8	74.3	0.99	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Sweden[o]
Switzerland[o]	5-6	59.7	59.6	59.8	1.00	95.2	95.7	94.6	0.99	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Switzerland[o]
United Kingdom[o]	3-4	52.4	51.9	52.9	1.02	80.7	80.9	80.6	1.00	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	United Kingdom[o]
United States[o]	3-5	62.4	63.3	61.4	0.97	60.8	…	…	…	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	United States[o]
South and West Asia																	**South and West Asia**
Afghanistan	3-6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Afghanistan
Bangladesh	3-5	…	…	…	…	24.6	23.2	26.1	1.12	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Bangladesh
Bhutan[3]	4-5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Bhutan[3]
India[w, 2]	3-5	3.5	3.6	3.3	0.90	*25.8*	*25.4*	*26.2*	*1.03*	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	India[w, 2]
Iran, Islamic Republic of	5-5	11.5	11.8	11.1	0.94	17.0	16.4	17.6	1.07	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Iran, Islamic Republic of
Maldives	3-5	…	…	…	…	49.9	49.3	50.5	1.02	…	…	…	…	91.4	91.2	91.6	Maldives
Nepal	3-5	…	…	…	…	12.7	14.1	11.2	0.79	…	…	…	…	21.0	21.0	21.0	Nepal
Pakistan[6]	3-4	…	…	…	…	55.0*	63.1*	46.5*	0.74*	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Pakistan[6]
Sri Lanka[w]	4-4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Sri Lanka[w]
Sub-Saharan Africa																	**Sub-Saharan Africa**
Angola	3-5	52.0	68.7	35.4	0.51	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Angola
Benin	4-5	2.6	2.9	2.4	0.83	6.1	6.3	6.0	0.95	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Benin
Botswana	3-5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Botswana
Burkina Faso	4-6	0.7	0.7	0.7	1.01	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.07	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.07	4.1	3.7	4.7	Burkina Faso
Burundi	4-6	…	…	…	…	1.2	1.3	1.2	0.95	…	…	…	…	2.9	2.5	3.3	Burundi
Cameroon	4-5	12.4	12.3	12.4	1.01	14.0	13.9	14.1	1.01	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Cameroon
Cape Verde	3-5	…	…	…	…	56.4	54.8	57.9	1.06	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Cape Verde

1. GER in ECCE includes pre-primary education and other early childhood care and education programmes.
2. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.
3. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to inconsistencies between enrolment and United Nations population data.
4. National population data have been used to calculate enrolment ratios.
5. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.
6. Data include enrolment of pupils in 'katchi' programmes.

Table 3 (continued)

Country or territory	Age group	GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)								GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN ECCE[1] (%)				NEW ENTRANTS TO PRIMARY EDUCATION WITH ECCE EXPERIENCE (%)			Country or territory
		1990			GPI	2000			GPI	2000			GPI	2000			
	2000	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	
Central African Republic	4-5	5.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Central African Republic
Chad	3-5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Chad
Comoros[2]	3-5	…	…	…	…	*1.7*	*1.6***	*1.8***	*1.08***	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Comoros[2]
Congo	3-5	2.6	2.7	2.6	0.98	3.1	3.0	3.2	1.06	.	.	.	.	7.8	7.1	8.7	Congo
Côte d'Ivoire	3-5	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.94	3.1	3.1	3.1	0.98	.	.	.	.	11.2	10.4	12.2	Côte d'Ivoire
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	3-5	…	…	…	…	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.99	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Democratic Rep. of the Congo
Equatorial Guinea	3-6	…	…	…	…	29.2	…	…	…	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Equatorial Guinea
Eritrea	5-6	…	…	…	…	5.6	5.9	5.3	0.91	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Eritrea
Ethiopia	4-6	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.01	1.8	1.9	1.8	0.97	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Ethiopia
Gabon	3-5	…	…	…	…	14.4	14.4**	14.5**	1.01**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Gabon
Gambia[2]	4-6	…	…	…	…	*20.1***	*21.2***	*19.0***	*0.90***	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Gambia[2]
Ghana	4-5	…	…	…	…	59.3	59.6	59.1	0.99	59.9	60.2	59.6	0.99	…	…	…	Ghana
Guinea	3-6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Guinea
Guinea-Bissau[2]	4-6	…	…	…	…	*3.9*	*3.8*	*4.0*	*1.05*	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Guinea-Bissau[2]
Kenya	3-5	33.0	30.9	35.1	1.13	41.6	42.1	41.2	0.98	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Kenya
Lesotho	3-5	…	…	…	…	18.1	17.9	18.4	1.03	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Lesotho
Liberia[2]	3-5	…	…	…	…	*69.5*	*73.7*	*65.3*	*0.89*	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Liberia[2]
Madagascar	3-5	…	…	…	…	3.4	3.3	3.4	1.02	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Madagascar
Malawi	3-5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Malawi
Mali	4-6	…	…	…	…	1.4	1.4	1.4	0.99	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Mali
Mauritius	4-5	56.0	56.2	55.8	0.99	90.3	89.0	91.7	1.03	.	.	.	.	100.0	100.0	100.0	Mauritius
Mozambique	3-5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Mozambique
Namibia	3-5	14.4	13.5	15.3	1.14	21.4**	19.9**	22.9**	1.15**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Namibia
Niger	4-6	1.4	1.5	1.4	0.94	1.1	1.1	1.1	0.98	.	.	.	.	6.5	5.5	8.0	Niger
Nigeria	3-5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Nigeria
Rwanda	4-6	…	…	…	…	2.7	2.7	2.7	0.99	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Rwanda
Sao Tome and Principe[5]	6-6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Sao Tome and Principe[5]
Senegal	4-6	2.4	2.4	2.5	1.04	3.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Senegal
Seychelles[5]	4-5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	.	.	.	.	100.0	100.0	100.0	Seychelles[5]
Sierra Leone	3-5	…	…	…	…	4.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	2.2	2.2	2.2	Sierra Leone
Somalia	3-5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Somalia
South Africa	6-6	16.9	16.7	17.1	1.02	33.6	33.5	33.7	1.00	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	South Africa
Swaziland	3-5	16.9	11.9	21.9	1.83	…	…	…	…	.	.	.	.	…	…	…	Swaziland
Togo	3-5	3.2	3.2	3.2	0.98	2.4	2.4	2.4	1.00	.	.	.	.	1.9	1.7	2.1	Togo
Uganda	4-5	…	…	…	…	4.2	4.2	4.2	1.00	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Uganda
United Republic of Tanzania	5-6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	United Republic of Tanzania
Zambia	3-6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	11.1	10.6	11.7	Zambia
Zimbabwe[w]	3-5	…	…	…	…	36.3	35.8	36.8	1.03	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Zimbabwe[w]
World[7]	…	42.9	43.0	42.8	1.00	46.7	46.4	47.1	1.01	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	World[7]
Countries in transition	…	72.3	…	…	…	46.4	45.6	47.2	1.04	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Countries in transition
Developed countries	…	70.1	70.3	69.9	0.99	89.9	89.8	90.1	1.00	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Developed countries
Developing countries	…	…	…	…	…	30.9	31.1	30.7	0.99	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Developing countries
Arab States	…	7.9	8.1	7.7	0.96	15.8	15.9	15.7	0.99	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Arab States
Central and Eastern Europe	…	74.0	…	…	…	63.6	64.7	62.5	0.97	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia	…	37.9	…	…	…	19.1	19.2	19.1	0.99	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific	…	32.1	33.2	30.9	0.93	47.1	44.9	49.4	1.10	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	East Asia and the Pacific
Latin America and the Caribbean	…	42.6	42.1	43.2	1.03	62.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Latin America and the Caribbean
North America and Western Europe	…	68.9	66.3	65.0	1.00	92.5	92.7	92.4	1.00	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	North America and Western Europe
South and West Asia	…	…	…	…	…	25.2	24.3	26.2	1.08	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa	…	…	…	…	…	4.2	4.2	4.2	1.00	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Sub-Saharan Africa

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4. National population data have been used to calculate enrolment ratios.
5. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.
6. Data include enrolment of pupils in 'katchi' programmes.
7. All values shown are medians.

Table 4
Access to primary education

Country or territory	Compulsory education (age group)	New entrants (000) 2000	GROSS INTAKE RATE (GIR) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%) 1990 Total	1990 Male	1990 Female	GPI 1990 (F/M)	2000 Total	2000 Male	2000 Female	GPI 2000 (F/M)	NET INTAKE RATE (NIR) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%) 2000 Total	2000 Male	2000 Female	GPI 2000 (F/M)	SCHOOL LIFE EXPECTANCY (expected number of years of formal schooling) 1990 Total	1990 Male	1990 Female	2000 Total	2000 Male	2000 Female	Country or territory
Arab States																					**Arab States**
Algeria	6-16	609.7	101.8	106.5	97.0	0.91	87.4	88.4	86.3	0.98	80.7	81.9	79.6	0.97	6.6	...	...	...	...	...	Algeria
Bahrain	...	13.2**	107.9	106.6	109.3	1.03	98.9**	98.5**	99.3**	1.01**	83.1**	81.9**	84.4**	1.03**	7.5	7.4	7.7	...	...	...	Bahrain
Djibouti	6-13	7.9**	37.7	39.6	35.7	0.90	41.5**	46.1**	36.9**	0.80**	27.0**	30.0**	24.0**	0.80**	...	...	...	3.9**	4.6**	3.2**	Djibouti
Egypt[w]	6-14	1 503.0**	...	...	...	...	97.5**	98.8**	96.2**	0.97**	86.5**	87.6**	85.4**	0.97**	...	...	...	...	...	...	Egypt[w]
Iraq[1]	6-11	...	...	...	...	...	*116.3*	*123.2*	*109.2*	*0.89*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*9.1*	*10.3*	*7.7*	Iraq[1]
Jordan[w, 1]	6-16	...	101.9	101.3	102.6	1.01	*105.6*	*105.3*	*105.8*	*1.00*	*70.6*	*69.9*	*71.4*	*1.02*	12.2	12.0	12.4	...	...	...	Jordan[w, 1]
Kuwait	6-14	37.4	...	...	...	...	119.2	119.3	119.1	1.00	83.3	83.3	83.4	1.00	...	...	...	...	...	...	Kuwait
Lebanon	6-12	68.3	...	...	...	...	89.6	90.5	88.6	0.98	76.1	76.9	75.4	0.98	...	...	...	...	...	...	Lebanon
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	6-15	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	10.4	...	...	...	...	...	Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
Mauritania	...	73.1	54.4	61.6	47.1	0.76	92.5	94.3	90.6	0.96	27.8	28.3	27.3	0.97	3.4	3.9	2.8	6.7**	7.2**	6.2**	Mauritania
Morocco[1]	6-15	725.8	71.5	81.8	60.8	0.74	105.8	107.6	103.9	0.97	66.2	67.8	64.6	0.95	6.5	7.7	5.3	*8.2*	*8.9*	*7.4*	Morocco[1]
Oman	...	50.2	88.5	89.9	86.9	0.97	66.8	66.9	66.7	1.00	53.7	53.6	53.9	1.01	8.3	8.9	7.7	9.0	9.1	8.9	Oman
Palestinian Autonomous Territories	6-15	100.6	...	...	...	...	104.5	104.0	105.1	1.01	79.8	79.6	80.0	1.01	...	...	...	12.2	11.9	12.4	Palestinian Autonomous Territories
Qatar	...	...	55.9	55.4	56.6	1.02	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12.4	11.6	13.4	...	...	...	Qatar
Saudi Arabia	...	402.0**	75.5	77.2	73.7	0.96	67.6**	68.2**	66.9**	0.98**	44.0**	52.6**	35.0**	0.67**	8.4	9.0	7.7	...	...	...	Saudi Arabia
Sudan[1]	6-14	575.2	59.6	67.3	51.5	0.77	*53.7*	*59.0*	*48.1*	*0.82*	*28.0*	*29.5*	*26.4*	*0.89*	...	...	...	...	...	...	Sudan[1]
Syrian Arab Republic	6-12	501.2	102.9	105.8	99.8	0.94	121.4	123.0	119.6	0.97	61.9	62.7	61.0	0.97	10.3	11.3	9.3	...	...	...	Syrian Arab Republic
Tunisia[w]	6-16	193.4	101.2	103.0	99.3	0.96	104.6	103.5	105.7	1.02	88.9	84.2	93.9	1.12	7.3	7.8	6.8	13.7**	13.7**	13.7**	Tunisia[w]
United Arab Emirates	6-11	50.6	97.0	96.3	97.7	1.01	119.4	118.5	120.4	1.02	60.7	59.3	62.2	1.05	10.5	9.8	11.5	...	...	...	United Arab Emirates
Yemen	6-14	551.5**	...	...	...	...	85.4**	96.5**	73.8**	0.76**	28.4**	32.7**	23.9**	0.73**	...	...	...	...	...	...	Yemen
Central and Eastern Europe																					**Central and Eastern Europe**
Albania[o]	6-14	65.1	103.6	102.0	105.3	1.03	101.7	102.5	100.8	0.98	78.9**	79.1**	78.8**	1.00**	8.4	8.4	8.4	10.9**	10.7**	11.1**	Albania[o]
Belarus[1]	6-14	...	97.5	...	...	...	*99.5*	*98.6*	*100.3*	*1.02*	*81.2*	*81.8*	*80.6*	*0.99*	...	...	...	12.2**	11.8**	12.6**	Belarus[1]
Bosnia and Herzegovina[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Bosnia and Herzegovina[o]
Bulgaria[o]	7-15	85.5	95.6	94.6	96.6	1.02	101.1	101.8	100.3	0.99	...	...	...	...	10.5	10.1	10.9	12.7**	12.5**	12.9**	Bulgaria[o]
Croatia	7-15	47.0	...	...	...	...	87.5	87.8	87.1	0.99	63.8	64.9	62.7	0.97	8.0	...	...	11.9	11.7	12.1	Croatia
Czech Republic[o]	6-15	116.5**	104.8	...	...	...	101.7**	102.3**	101.1**	0.99**	50.0**	46.8**	53.5**	1.14**	...	...	...	14.0**	13.9**	14.1**	Czech Republic[o]
Estonia[o]	7-15	15.0	...	...	...	...	97.0	98.8	95.1	0.96	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	14.4**	13.9**	15.0	Estonia[o]
Hungary[o, 1]	7-16	116.6	98.6	94.4	102.9	1.09	98.7	99.4	97.9	0.98	62.4**	63.9**	60.8**	0.95**	9.0	8.7	9.3	*13.6*	*13.4*	*13.8*	Hungary[o, 1]
Latvia[o]	7-15	26.8	...	...	...	...	96.4	96.7	96.1	0.99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	14.1**	13.2**	15.0**	Latvia[o]
Lithuania[o]	7-16	47.8	...	...	...	...	98.1	98.7	97.4	0.99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	14.2**	13.7**	14.7**	Lithuania[o]
Poland[o]	7-18	483.5	100.1	99.0	101.3	1.02	97.6	97.8**	97.5**	1.00**	...	...	...	...	9.8	9.3	10.2	14.7	14.3	15.1	Poland[o]
Republic of Moldova	6-16	58.9	...	...	...	...	91.6	92.4**	90.8**	0.98**	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	9.7**	9.5**	10.0**	Republic of Moldova
Romania[o]	7-16	245.8	84.8	85.0	84.6	1.00	102.1	102.5	101.7	0.99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	11.7	11.6	11.9	Romania[o]
Russian Federation[w]	6-15	1 707.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Russian Federation[w]
Serbia and Montenegro	7-15	93.7	71.5	69.1	74.1	1.07	66.5	65.3	67.8	1.04	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	10.3	10.0	10.6	Serbia and Montenegro
Slovakia	6-16	69.3	...	...	...	...	99.7	99.7	99.6	1.00	52.6**	49.4**	55.9**	1.13**	...	...	...	13.1**	13.0**	13.2**	Slovakia
Slovenia[o]	7-15	21.5	...	...	...	...	106.1	106.3	105.9	1.00	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	15.1**	14.6**	15.5**	Slovenia[o]
The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia[o]	7-14	30.0	...	...	...	...	97.4	97.1	97.7	1.01	...	...	...	...	8.8	8.8	8.8	...	...	...	The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia[o]
Turkey[o]	6-14	...	93.0	96.2	89.6	0.93	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	7.8	...	...	...	...	...	Turkey[o]
Ukraine	7-15	...	100.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Ukraine
Central Asia																					**Central Asia**
Armenia[2]	7-15	52.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	8.5	8.1	8.8	Armenia[2]
Azerbaijan	6-17	166.4**	...	...	...	...	99.4**	100.5	98.2**	0.98**	87.0**	88.0**	86.0**	0.98**	...	...	...	...	...	...	Azerbaijan
Georgia	6-12	59.6	...	...	...	...	88.2	88.9	87.4	0.98	72.6	73.3	71.8	0.98	...	...	...	...	...	...	Georgia
Kazakhstan	7-17	298.0	...	...	...	...	105.7	105.9	105.5	1.00	68.4**	69.4**	67.3**	0.97**	...	...	...	11.7**	11.7**	11.7**	Kazakhstan
Kyrgyzstan	7-16	116.5	...	...	...	...	105.2	107.1	103.3	0.96	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Kyrgyzstan
Mongolia	8-16	62.1	...	...	...	...	103.0	102.8	103.3	1.01	71.0	71.3	70.6	0.99	...	...	...	9.5	8.6	10.5	Mongolia
Tajikistan	7-16	161.7	...	...	...	...	101.6	104.5**	98.7**	0.94**	94.7**	97.7**	91.8**	0.94**	...	...	...	9.9	10.7	9.1	Tajikistan
Turkmenistan	7-15	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan	7-15	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Uzbekistan
East Asia and the Pacific																					**East Asia and the Pacific**
Australia[o]	6-15	...	103.4	104.2	102.7	0.99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	13.2	13.0	13.4	16.8**	16.6**	17.0**	Australia[o]
Brunei Darussalam	...	7.4	...	...	...	...	100.5	100.0	101.0	1.01	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	...	533.2	...	...	...	...	138.1	142.4	133.6	0.94	68.1	69.6	66.6	0.96	5.5	...	...	7.3**	7.8**	6.7**	Cambodia
China[w]	6-14	19 503.2**	106.6	...	...	...	95.5**	...	...	...	56.1**	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	China[w]
Cook Islands[3]	5-15	0.6**	...	...	...	...	131.1**	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	10.2**	10.1**	10.2**	Cook Islands[3]

1. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.
2. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to inconsistencies between enrolment and United Nations population data.
3. National population data have been used to calculate enrolment ratios.
4. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.
5. Introduction of free primary education from 1999 in Lesotho, and from 2000 in Cameroon.

Table 4 (continued)

Country or territory	Compulsory education (age group)	New entrants (000)	GROSS INTAKE RATE (GIR) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)								NET INTAKE RATE (NIR) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)				SCHOOL LIFE EXPECTANCY (expected number of years of formal schooling)						Country or territory
			1990			GPI	2000			GPI	2000			GPI	1990			2000			
			Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	5-16	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Democratic People's Republic of Korea
Fiji	6-15	203.3**	…	…	…	…	111.4**	113.5**	109.1**	0.96**	…	…	…	…	8.4	…	…	…	…	…	Fiji
Indonesia[w]	7-15	4 818.2	109.7	…	…	…	111.3	114.3	108.2	0.95	44.4	45.0	43.9	0.98	9.4	…	…	…	…	…	Indonesia[w]
Japan[o]	6-15	…	102.3	102.1	102.5	1.00	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	12.6	17.8	7.2	14.3**	…	…	Japan[o]
Kiribati	6-11	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Kiribati
Lao People's Democratic Republic	6-14	184.6	…	…	…	…	121.6	129.5	113.4	0.88	59.2	60.2	58.2	0.97	…	…	…	8.3	9.2	7.4	Lao People's Democratic Republic
Macao, China	5-14	5.9	…	…	…	…	92.4	94.0	90.9	0.97	70.7	70.6	70.8	1.00	7.6	8.3	7.0	13.8	14.0	13.6	Macao, China
Malaysia[w]	…	533.6	94.6	94.6	94.6	1.00	96.3	96.0	96.6	1.01	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	12.1	11.8	12.4	Malaysia[w]
Marshall Islands	6-14	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Marshall Islands
Micronesia (Federated States of)	6-13	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Micronesia (Federated States of)
Myanmar	5-9	1 257.4	…	…	…	…	114.9	115.2	114.6	0.99	89.9	90.2	89.7	0.99	…	…	…	7.4**	7.3**	7.4**	Myanmar
Nauru	6-15	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Nauru
New Zealand[o, 1]	6-16	…	104.2	104.7	103.8	0.99	*98.5*	*98.6*	*98.4*	*1.00*	…	…	…	…	14.4	14.4	14.5	16.4**	15.7**	17.2**	New Zealand[o, 1]
Niue[1]	5-16	…	…	…	…	…	*104.7*	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*11.6*	…	…	Niue[1]
Palau	6-14	0.4**	…	…	…	…	114.8**	113.8**	115.8**	1.02**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Palau
Papua New Guinea	…	…	89.0	91.0	86.7	0.95	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Papua New Guinea
Philippines[w]	6-12	2 523.2	…	…	…	…	129.6	133.8	125.3	0.94	47.1	45.6	48.6	1.06	8.0	7.8	8.3	11.4**	…	…	Philippines[w]
Republic of Korea[o]	6-15	704.8	97.7	97.5	98.0	1.00	102.7	103.3	102.1	0.99	…	…	…	…	12.7	13.5	11.9	15.5	16.4	14.5	Republic of Korea[o]
Samoa[1]	5-14	5.1**	…	…	…	…	115.8**	118.0**	113.4**	0.96**	*84.3*	*83.6*	*85.0*	*1.02*	…	…	…	12.0**	11.8**	12.1**	Samoa[1]
Singapore	…	…	91.4	92.0	90.8	0.99	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	7.1	7.4	6.9	…	…	…	Singapore
Solomon Islands	…	…	86.9	86.1	87.8	1.02	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Solomon Islands
Thailand[w, 1]	6-12	1 012.8**	106.0	109.1	102.9	0.94	93.3**	96.3**	90.3**	0.94**	*54.0*	*56.0*	*52.0*	*0.93*	…	…	…	*10.8*	*10.7*	*10.8*	Thailand[w, 1]
Timor-Leste	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Timor-Leste
Tokelau	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Tokelau
Tonga[1]	6-14	2.7**	…	…	…	…	110.6**	110.8**	110.3**	1.00**	*51.7*	*51.9*	*51.4*	*0.99*	…	…	…	12.8**	12.7**	12.9**	Tonga[1]
Tuvalu	6-15	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Tuvalu
Vanuatu	…	6.6**	…	…	…	…	107.6**	107.3**	107.9**	1.01**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Vanuatu
Viet Nam	6-14	1 807.7	…	…	…	…	100.3	103.0**	97.7**	0.95**	78.1**	…	…	…	…	…	…	10.4	…	…	Viet Nam
Latin America and the Caribbean																					**Latin America and the Caribbean**
Anguilla[4]	5-17	0.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Anguilla[4]
Antigua and Barbuda	5-16	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Antigua and Barbuda
Argentina[w, 1]	6-15	761.6	…	…	…	…	110.8	110.7	110.8	1.00	*92.2***	*92.1***	*92.3***	*1.00***	…	…	…	*14.3**	*13.5**	*15.0**	Argentina[w, 1]
Aruba[3]	…	1.5	…	…	…	…	101.0	101.6	100.3	0.99	91.4**	92.8**	89.9**	0.97**	…	…	…	13.0	12.7	13.2	Aruba[3]
Bahamas[1]	5-16	…	103.0	…	…	…	*111.1***	*115.4***	*106.7***	*0.92***	*80.1***	*80.9***	*79.3***	*0.98***	…	…	…	…	…	…	Bahamas[1]
Barbados	5-16	3.7	…	…	…	…	107.4	107.8	107.0	0.99	85.2	85.5	84.9	0.99	…	…	…	13.1**	12.3**	13.9**	Barbados
Belize	5-14	7.1	152.5	155.2	149.7	0.96	119.0	118.5	119.6	1.01	77.3**	76.8**	77.7**	1.01**	…	…	…	…	…	…	Belize
Bermuda[4]	5-16	0.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Bermuda[4]
Bolivia	6-13	277.7	139.6	140.3	138.9	0.99	121.6	120.8	122.6	1.01	67.1	66.2	68.0	1.03	8.7	…	…	13.4**	…	…	Bolivia
Brazil[w]	7-14	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	9.2	9.5	9.0	13.4**	13.1**	13.6**	Brazil[w]
British Virgin Islands[4]	5-16	0.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	British Virgin Islands[4]
Cayman Islands[4]	5-16	0.7**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Cayman Islands[4]
Chile[w]	6-14	282.2	104.8	106.3	103.3	0.97	96.6	97.2	95.9	0.99	37.1**	36.8**	37.3**	1.01**	…	…	…	13.2**	13.3**	13.1**	Chile[w]
Colombia	5-15	1 286.4	125.4	118.0	133.2	1.13	134.6	137.6	131.5	0.96	58.7**	60.0**	57.3**	0.96**	…	…	…	11.1**	10.8**	11.3**	Colombia
Costa Rica	6-15	85.6	101.6	…	…	…	100.7	101.7	99.6	0.98	60.7	60.6	60.8	1.00	…	…	…	10.2	10.1	10.4	Costa Rica
Cuba	6-14	150.8	100.5	100.8	100.2	0.99	98.7	100.4	97.0	0.97	93.7**	94.5**	92.9**	0.98**	10.6	10.2	11.0	12.3	12.2	12.4	Cuba
Dominica[4]	5-16	1.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Dominica[4]
Dominican Republic	6-14	262.6**	…	…	…	…	144.5**	150.8**	138.0**	0.91**	62.9**	63.1**	62.7**	0.99**	…	…	…	…	…	…	Dominican Republic
Ecuador	6-14	394.2	…	…	…	…	136.6	137.2	135.9	0.99	81.5**	80.5**	82.6**	1.03**	8.1	…	…	…	…	…	Ecuador
El Salvador[1]	7-15	…	…	…	…	…	*128.2***	*130.5***	*125.7***	*0.96***	…	…	…	…	8.2	8.3	8.1	…	…	…	El Salvador[1]
Grenada	5-16	2.0**	…	…	…	…	93.8**	…	…	…	54.1**	…	…	…	…	…	…	9.7**	…	…	Grenada
Guatemala	6-15	423.5	…	…	…	…	127.6	129.5	125.5	0.97	60.7	62.0	59.2	0.95	…	…	…	…	…	…	Guatemala
Guyana[1]	6-15	…	90.8	91.6	90.0	0.98	*123.9*	*126.9*	*120.9*	*0.95*	*90.1*	*91.6*	*88.6*	*0.97*	…	…	…	…	…	…	Guyana[1]
Haiti	6-15	…	59.8	61.0	58.6	0.96	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Haiti
Honduras	6-13	251.7	…	…	…	…	138.6	138.6	138.6	1.00	48.5	48.5	48.6	1.00	7.0	7.0	7.0	…	…	…	Honduras
Jamaica[w]	6-12	55.6	95.3	96.6	93.8	0.97	100.7	100.6	100.8	1.00	82.2**	79.9**	84.6**	1.06**	…	…	…	11.0	10.7**	11.3**	Jamaica[w]
Mexico[o, 1]	6-15	2 500.9	120.2	…	…	…	113.2	113.0	113.3	1.00	84.3**	82.6**	85.9**	1.04**	10.4	13.4	7.4	*11.5***	*11.6***	*11.4***	Mexico[o, 1]
Montserrat[4]	5-13	0.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Montserrat[4]
Netherlands Antilles	6-15	3.7**	…	…	…	…	99.4**	100.3**	98.5**	0.98**	88.1**	88.7**	87.5**	0.99**	…	…	…	11.1**	11.1**	11.1**	Netherlands Antilles
Nicaragua	7-12	204.6	…	…	…	…	139.7	143.9	135.4	0.94	39.7	40.8	38.6	0.95	7.9	7.4	8.4	…	…	…	Nicaragua
Panama[1]	6-11	69.5	115.7	119.5	111.7	0.93	115.1	115.3	115.0	1.00	86.5**	85.9**	87.1**	1.01**	7.5	…	…	*12.4***	*11.9***	*12.9***	Panama[1]

1. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.
2. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to inconsistencies between enrolment and United Nations population data.
3. National population data have been used to calculate enrolment ratios.
4. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.
5. Introduction of free primary education from 1999 in Lesotho, and from 2000 in Cameroon.

Table 4 (continued)

Country or territory	Compulsory education (age group)	New entrants (000)	GROSS INTAKE RATE (GIR) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%) 1990 Total	1990 Male	1990 Female	GPI (F/M)	2000 Total	2000 Male	2000 Female	GPI (F/M)	NET INTAKE RATE (NIR) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%) 2000 Total	2000 Male	2000 Female	GPI (F/M)	SCHOOL LIFE EXPECTANCY (expected number of years of formal schooling) 1990 Total	1990 Male	1990 Female	2000 Total	2000 Male	2000 Female	Country or territory
Paraguay[w]	6-14	177.1**	119.6	121.8	117.2	0.96	119.8**	121.8**	117.7**	0.97**	71.2**	70.4**	71.9**	1.02**	6.7	6.9	6.6	11.4**	11.3**	11.4**	Paraguay[w]
Peru[w]	6-16	707.9	...	...	...	...	123.9	123.4	124.3	1.01	89.1**	88.9**	89.3**	1.00**	8.8	...	...	...	...	...	Peru[w]
Saint Kitts and Nevis[4]	5-16	1.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Saint Kitts and Nevis[4]
Saint Lucia	5-16	3.5	121.2	121.5	121.0	1.00	102.9	102.2	103.7	1.01	72.2	71.3	73.3	1.03	...	...	...	...	...	...	Saint Lucia
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines[4]	5-15	5.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines[4]
Suriname	7-12	9.6**	...	...	...	...	117.1**	131.9**	101.7**	0.77**	75.1**	79.1**	70.8**	0.89**	...	...	...	...	...	...	Suriname
Trinidad and Tobago	6-12	18.3	87.9	89.7	86.2	0.96	95.4	97.0	93.7	0.97	66.3**	65.8**	66.9**	1.02**	11.1	11.0	11.1	11.4	11.2	11.5	Trinidad and Tobago
Turks and Caicos Islands[4]	4-16	0.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Turks and Caicos Islands[4]
Uruguay[w]	6-15	58.0**	100.5	100.2	100.9	1.01	103.5**	103.0**	104.1**	1.01**	36.6**	35.3**	38.0**	1.08**	8.0	...	...	13.0**	12.2**	13.7**	Uruguay[w]
Venezuela	6-14	571.2**	114.5	116.9	112.0	0.96	103.5**	101.9**	105.2**	1.03**	63.8**	61.8**	65.9**	1.07**	10.1	...	...	10.6**	10.1**	10.9**	Venezuela
North America and Western Europe																					**North America and Western Europe**
Andorra	6-16	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Andorra
Austria[o]	6-15	100.5**	97.6	98.3	96.9	0.99	106.8**	108.1**	105.5**	0.98**	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	14.8**	14.8**	14.8**	Austria[o]
Belgium[o]	6-18	...	92.7	91.4	94.2	1.03	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	7.9	7.9	7.9	15.8**	15.6**	15.9**	Belgium[o]
Canada[o]	6-16	...	108.0	110.2	105.7	0.96	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	16.9	16.5	17.4	14.9**	14.5**	15.3**	Canada[o]
Cyprus[o]	6-15	10.5	87.7	88.6	86.7	0.98	99.8	99.6	99.9	1.00	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12.5	12.3	12.7	Cyprus[o]
Denmark[o, 1]	7-16	69.2	99.4	99.3	99.5	1.00	100.3	100.4	100.2	1.00	*86.9*	*85.5*	*88.2*	*1.03*	12.2	11.9	12.6	*15.5*	*15.1*	*15.9*	Denmark[o, 1]
Finland[o, 1]	7-16	64.7	102.0	102.1	101.9	1.00	98.2	98.4	98.0	1.00	93.5**	92.6**	94.3**	1.02**	13.3	12.8	13.8	*16.7*	*16.2*	*17.2*	Finland[o, 1]
France[o, 1]	6-16	...	100.6	94.1	107.5	1.14	*97.7*	*98.3***	*97.1***	*0.99***	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	15.4**	15.1**	15.7**	France[o, 1]
Germany[o]	6-18	812.2	...	...	...	...	100.3	100.7	99.9	0.99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Germany[o]
Greece[o]	6-15	...	97.3	97.6	97.0	0.99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12.5	12.3	12.7	14.9	14.7	15.1	Greece[o]
Iceland[o]	6-16	4.4	...	...	...	...	96.8	97.8	95.8	0.98	96.3	97.4	95.1	0.98	...	...	...	16.0	15.3	16.8	Iceland[o]
Ireland[o, 1]	6-15	52.3	98.1	98.5	97.6	0.99	101.1	101.4	100.8	0.99	...	...	...	...	12.3	12.3	12.4	*14.9*	*14.4*	*15.3*	Ireland[o, 1]
Israel[o]	5-15	...	102.2	100.6	103.9	1.03	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	9.6	9.5	9.8	14.8	14.3	15.2	Israel[o]
Italy[o]	6-15	529.0	99.3	99.8	98.7	0.99	95.3	95.9	94.7	0.99	93.5**	93.8**	93.2**	0.99**	...	...	...	14.9**	14.6**	15.3**	Italy[o]
Luxembourg[o]	6-15	5.7	...	...	...	...	99.5	97.7	101.3	1.04	86.3	84.0	88.8	1.06	...	...	...	13.1	12.8	13.3	Luxembourg[o]
Malta[o]	5-16	5.1	101.2	103.7	98.5	0.95	100.9	102.2	99.4	0.97	...	...	...	...	11.7	11.4	12.0	13.7**	13.5**	13.7**	Malta[o]
Monaco	6-16	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Monaco
Netherlands[o]	6-17	197.1	...	...	...	...	98.6	99.3	98.0	0.99	98.6**	99.3**	98.0**	0.99**	11.6	11.4	11.7	16.0**	16.1**	15.9**	Netherlands[o]
Norway[o]	6-16	...	98.4	99.1	97.7	0.99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12.4	12.0	12.8	16.9	16.2	17.7	Norway[o]
Portugal[o, 1]	6-15	...	217.1	217.1	217.1	1.00	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12.2	11.9	12.6	*15.2*	*14.7*	*15.7*	Portugal[o, 1]
San Marino	6-16	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	San Marino
Spain[o]	6-16	...	107.9	108.4	107.4	0.99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12.9	12.6	13.1	15.5**	15.2**	15.7**	Spain[o]
Sweden[o, 1]	7-16	...	98.3	98.7	97.9	0.99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	11.1	10.8	11.5	*15.9*	*15.0*	*16.8*	Sweden[o, 1]
Switzerland[o]	7-15	78.7	98.0	96.9	99.2	1.02	94.0	92.2	95.9	1.04	59.0**	58.9**	59.2**	1.00**	11.0	11.2	10.8	15.1	15.6	14.6	Switzerland[o]
United Kingdom[o]	5-16	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	13.1	13.0	13.2	16.3	15.8	16.7	United Kingdom[o]
United States[o]	6-16	...	105.1	106.2	103.9	0.98	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	15.4	15.0	15.8	15.3	14.8	15.8	United States[o]
South and West Asia																					**South and West Asia**
Afghanistan	7-12	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Afghanistan
Bangladesh	6-10	4078.8	111.4	119.2	103.0	0.86	113.3	115.0	111.5	0.97	85.2	85.8	84.6	0.99	...	...	...	8.4	8.4	8.4	Bangladesh
Bhutan[2]	...	13.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2.1**	2.3**	2.0**	Bhutan[2]
India[w, 1]	6-14	...	...	...	...	...	*131.3*	*142.5*	*119.4*	*0.84*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	India[w, 1]
Iran, Islamic Republic of	6-10	1372.7	104.0	105.7	102.1	0.97	78.6	78.6	78.5	1.00	38.1**	38.5**	37.7**	0.98**	...	...	...	...	...	...	Iran, Islamic Republic of
Maldives[1]	...	7.7	...	...	...	...	94.1	94.8	93.3	0.98	80.3	80.8	79.7	0.99	...	...	...	*11.7*	*11.7*	*11.8*	Maldives[1]
Nepal	...	741.9	...	...	...	...	114.8	120.7	108.6	0.90	...	...	...	...	6.3	7.8	4.6	...	...	...	Nepal
Pakistan	...	3891.0**	...	...	...	...	94.9**	108.5**	80.5**	0.74**	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Pakistan
Sri Lanka[w]	5-14	...	102.1	103.0	101.2	0.98	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Sri Lanka[w]
Sub-Saharan Africa																					**Sub-Saharan Africa**
Angola[1]	6-14	314.2**	...	...	...	...	73.9**	78.5**	69.2**	0.88**	*17.5***	*18.3***	*16.6***	*0.91***	3.8	...	...	...	...	...	Angola[1]
Benin[1]	6-11	215.1	76.9	104.3	49.7	0.48	109.8	125.1	94.3	0.75	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*7.0***	*8.8***	*5.2***	Benin[1]
Botswana	6-15	50.5	119.8	119.1	120.5	1.01	115.0	116.4	113.7	0.98	23.4	21.8	25.0	1.15	10.3	10.0	10.7	12.0**	11.9**	12.0**	Botswana
Burkina Faso	6-16	172.2	31.9	39.0	24.9	0.64	47.2	54.5	39.8	0.73	20.9	24.6	17.2	0.70	2.0	2.4	1.5	...	...	...	Burkina Faso
Burundi	...	151.4	67.3	72.0	62.6	0.87	76.5	84.1	68.8	0.82	30.6**	31.1**	30.2**	0.97**	4.5	5.0	4.0	...	...	...	Burundi
Cameroon[5]	6-12	546.9	82.9	87.9	77.8	0.89	125.3	134.4	116.0	0.86	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Cameroon[5]
Cape Verde	6-16	12.9	...	...	...	...	115.5	114.1	117.0	1.03	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Cape Verde
Central African Republic	6-15	...	59.0	68.2	50.1	0.74	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	4.0	5.0	3.1	...	...	...	Central African Republic
Chad[1]	6-14	202.2	58.3	73.2	43.4	0.59	81.9	93.9	69.9	0.75	27.6	31.7	23.5	0.74	...	...	...	*5.2*	*6.8*	*3.6*	Chad[1]
Comoros	6-14	15.7**	...	...	...	...	77.8**	83.5**	71.9**	0.86**	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Comoros

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3. National population data have been used to calculate enrolment ratios.
4. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.
5. Introduction of free primary education from 1999 in Lesotho, and from 2000 in Cameroon.

Table 4 (continued)

Country or territory	Compulsory education (age group)	New entrants (000)	GROSS INTAKE RATE (GIR) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%) 1990 Total	1990 Male	1990 Female	1990 GPI (F/M)	2000 Total	2000 Male	2000 Female	2000 GPI (F/M)	NET INTAKE RATE (NIR) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%) 2000 Total	2000 Male	2000 Female	2000 GPI (F/M)	SCHOOL LIFE EXPECTANCY (expected number of years of formal schooling) 1990 Total	1990 Male	1990 Female	2000 Total	2000 Male	2000 Female	Country or territory
Congo[1]	6-16	77.0	95.0	101.1	89.0	0.88	81.1	83.9	78.4	0.93	*42.8***	*45.3***	*40.4***	*0.89***	8.8	9.5	8.0	…	…	…	Congo[1]
Côte d'Ivoire	6-16	303.9	54.1	61.3	46.8	0.76	67.9	74.7	61.1	0.82	27.0**	29.8**	24.1**	0.81**	…	…	…	…	…	…	Côte d'Ivoire
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	6-15	…	70.3	77.0	63.7	0.83	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	4.6	…	…	…	…	…	Democratic Rep. of the Congo
Equatorial Guinea[1]	7-11	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	8.9	9.2	8.7	*8.9***	*10.0***	*7.5***	Equatorial Guinea[1]
Eritrea	7-13	67.8	27.3	…	…	…	63.8	69.4	58.2	0.84	26.2**	27.9**	24.5**	0.88**	…	…	…	5.0	5.7	4.2	Eritrea
Ethiopia	…	1 749.8	51.3	62.0	40.6	0.65	94.9	106.3	83.4	0.78	25.7	27.3	24.0	0.88	…	…	…	5.2**	6.2**	4.1**	Ethiopia
Gabon	6-16	33.2	…	…	…	…	99.6	100.4	98.7	0.98	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Gabon
Gambia[1]	…	…	…	…	…	…	*92.8***	*95.3***	*90.2***	*0.95***	*44.6***	*45.6***	*43.6***	*0.96***	…	…	…	…	…	…	Gambia[1]
Ghana	6-14	461.9	81.7	86.7	76.7	0.88	86.5	88.1	84.8	0.96	29.3**	29.3**	29.3**	1.00**	…	…	…	7.2**	7.8**	6.7**	Ghana
Guinea	7-14	155.9	39.7	53.0	26.1	0.49	68.1	73.5	62.6	0.85	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Guinea
Guinea-Bissau[1]	7-12	…	…	…	…	…	*111.6*	*127.8*	*95.4*	*0.75*	*33.5***	*37.8***	*29.2***	*0.77***	…	…	…	…	…	…	Guinea-Bissau[1]
Kenya	6-13	955.4**	116.5	119.6	113.3	0.95	111.6**	111.8**	111.3**	1.00**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	7.8**	7.9**	7.8**	Kenya
Lesotho[5]	…	98.5	113.8	111.7	115.9	1.04	182.6	191.1	173.8	0.91	54.5	61.9**	46.9**	0.76**	10.1	9.0	11.1	10.2	9.8	10.6	Lesotho[5]
Liberia	6-16	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Liberia
Madagascar	6-14	539.0	93.6	91.8	95.4	1.04	112.0	113.8	110.3	0.97	…	…	…	…	5.1	5.2	5.0	…	…	…	Madagascar
Malawi[1]	…	…	101.5	105.0	97.9	0.93	*177.3*	*175.1*	*179.6*	*1.03*	…	…	…	…	6.0	6.7	5.3	…	…	…	Malawi[1]
Mali	7-15	217.8**	28.5	35.7	21.2	0.59	62.2**	70.6**	53.7**	0.76**	…	…	…	…	2.1	2.6	1.5	…	…	…	Mali
Mauritius	6-12	21.2	99.0	98.9	99.1	1.00	96.8	96.5	97.1	1.01	24.5	24.5	24.5	1.00	10.3	10.3	10.3	12.0	11.9	12.2	Mauritius
Mozambique	…	592.8	77.9	86.1	69.7	0.81	109.8	117.8	101.7	0.86	21.3	21.9	20.7	0.95	…	…	…	5.8**	6.7**	4.9**	Mozambique
Namibia[1]	6-16	54.9	…	…	…	…	103.1	101.6	104.6	1.03	58.4**	56.5**	60.2**	1.07**	…	…	…	*11.9*	*11.7*	*12.1*	Namibia[1]
Niger	7-12	158.6	26.4	32.9	19.6	0.60	46.4	54.1	38.4	0.71	30.6	36.2	24.7	0.68	2.2	…	…	2.6	3.2	2.1	Niger
Nigeria	6-12	…	113.5	126.2	100.5	0.80	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Nigeria
Rwanda	7-15	270.3	97.8	98.4	97.3	0.99	124.5	122.7	126.3	1.03	64.9**	63.2**	66.5**	1.05**	…	…	…	…	…	…	Rwanda
Sao Tome and Principe[4]	7-13	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Sao Tome and Principe[4]
Senegal	7-12	225.9	64.4	…	…	…	81.8	82.3	81.2	0.99	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Senegal
Seychelles[4]	6-15	1.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Seychelles[4]
Sierra Leone[1]	…	…	…	…	…	…	*80.4*	*81.7*	*79.1*	*0.97*	*80.2*	*81.6*	*78.9*	*0.97*	3.5	…	…	…	…	…	Sierra Leone[1]
Somalia	6-14	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Somalia
South Africa	7-15	1 106.0**	148.9	155.1	142.7	0.92	*124.5***	*125.4***	*123.6***	*0.99***	37.5**	38.7**	36.3**	0.94**	8.3	8.4	8.1	12.6**	12.6**	12.7**	South Africa
Swaziland[1]	…	31.3**	129.4	130.4	128.5	0.99	120.0**	123.0**	116.9**	0.95**	*50.0*	*48.5*	*51.4*	*1.06*	8.3	8.5	8.2	*12.1***	*12.5***	*11.8***	Swaziland[1]
Togo	6-15	151.0	99.0	112.5	85.5	0.76	111.3	118.9	103.7	0.87	46.9	50.1	43.6	0.87	8.6	11.1	6.2	…	…	…	Togo
Uganda	…	…	109.3	117.5	101.1	0.86	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Uganda
United Republic of Tanzania	7-13	729.1**	77.2	78.1	76.3	0.98	70.0**	70.3**	69.7**	0.99**	*13.3*	*12.3*	*14.4*	*1.17*	5.0	…	…	5.0**	5.1**	5.0**	United Republic of Tanzania
Zambia	…	275.6	…	…	…	…	86.0	85.1	87.0	1.02	38.2**	36.7**	39.7**	1.08**	6.9	…	…	6.9**	7.3**	6.6**	Zambia
Zimbabwe[w]	6-12	416.1	125.5	126.0	125.1	0.99	106.5	107.9	105.1	0.97	39.2	38.2	40.1	1.05	…	…	…	9.4**	9.7**	9.2**	Zimbabwe[w]
World[6]	…	…	99.0	98.9	99.1	1.00	101.0	101.7	100.3	0.99	63.3	62.4	64.3	1.03	…	…	…	…	…	…	World[6]
Countries in transition	…	…	…	…	…	…	99.4	99.6	99.3	1.00	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	12.2	11.8	12.6	Countries in transition
Developed countries	…	…	100.6	94.1	107.5	1.14	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	12.4	12.0	12.8	15.3	14.8	15.8	Developed countries
Developing countries	…	…	97.8	98.0	97.6	1.00	104.6	…	…	…	59.9	61.1	58.7	0.96	…	…	…	…	…	…	Developing countries
Arab States	…	…	88.5	89.9	86.9	0.97	98.2	98.7	97.8	0.99	66.2	67.8	64.6	0.95	8.3	9.0	7.7	…	…	…	Arab States
Central and Eastern Europe	…	…	98.0	…	…	…	98.4	99.1	97.6	0.99	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	13.1	13.0	13.2	Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia	…	…	…	…	…	…	102.3	103.6	101.0	0.97	72.6	73.3	71.8	0.98	…	…	…	…	…	…	Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific	…	…	…	…	…	…	109.1	109.1	109.1	1.00	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	East Asia and the Pacific
Latin America and the Caribbean	…	…	…	…	…	…	113.2	113.0	113.3	1.00	73.7	75.2	72.1	0.96	…	…	…	…	…	…	Latin America and the Caribbean
North America and Western Europe	…	…	100.0	96.7	103.5	1.07	99.5	97.7	101.3	1.04	…	…	…	…	12.3	12.1	12.5	15.2	14.7	15.7	North America and Western Europe
South and West Asia	…	…	…	…	…	…	104.1	111.8	96.0	0.86	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa	…	…	81.7	86.7	76.7	0.88	95.8	101.4	90.2	0.89	30.6	31.1	30.2	0.97	…	…	…	…	…	…	Sub-Saharan Africa

1. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.
2. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to inconsistencies between enrolment and United Nations population data.
3. National population data have been used to calculate enrolment ratios.
4. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.
5. Introduction of free primary education from 1999 in Lesotho, and from 2000 in Cameroon.
6. All values shown are medians.

Table 5
Participation in primary education

Country or territory	Age group	School-age population (000)	ENROLMENT IN PRIMARY EDUCATION				GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)				GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)				NET ENROLMENT RATIO (NER) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)								OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN (000)		
			1990		2000		1990			GPI	2000			GPI	1990			GPI	2000			GPI	2000		
	2000	2000	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female
Arab States																									
Algeria	6-11	4 214	4 189	44.8	4 721	46.8	100.6	108.8	92.1	0.85	112.0	116.4	107.4	0.92	93.3	99.4	87.0	0.88	98.3	99.7	96.8	0.97	72.9	6.1	66.7
Bahrain	6-11	77	67	47.8	79	48.9	110.1	110.0	110.2	1.00	103.2	103.3	103.1	1.00	99.0	99.0	99.0	1.00	95.9**	95.2**	96.6**	1.01**	3.2**	1.9**	1.3**
Djibouti	6-11	106	32	40.6	43	42.8	40.2	46.8	33.5	0.71	40.3	45.9	34.7	0.76	33.3	38.9**	27.8**	0.71**	32.6**	36.8**	28.4**	0.77**	71.3**	33.7**	37.7**
Egypt[w]	6-10	7 887	6 964	44.4	7 856**	47.2**	93.9	101.5	85.9	0.85	99.6**	102.9**	96.1**	0.93**	85.9**	92.4**	79.0**	0.86**	92.6**	94.9**	90.3**	0.95**	581.9**	206.8**	375.0**
Iraq[1]	6-11	3 630	3 328	44.5	…	…	116.5	126.0	106.6	0.85	*101.6*	*111.4*	*91.3*	*0.82*	100.0**	100.0**	95.5**	0.95**	*92.9*	*100.0*	*85.5*	*0.86*	…	…	…
Jordan[w, 1]	6-11#	731	926	48.4	…	…	100.6	100.3	101.0	1.01	*100.8*	*100.6***	*101.0***	*1.00***	94.1	93.9	94.4	1.01	*93.6*	*93.2*	*93.9*	*1.01*	…	…	…
Kuwait	6-9	150	125	48.0	141	48.9	60.2	61.7	58.7	0.95	94.1	94.8	93.3	0.98	49.0**	50.6**	47.3**	0.93**	83.1	83.9	82.4	0.98	25.3	12.3	13.1
Lebanon[2]	6-11#	459	…	…	454	48.2	…	…	…	…	98.9	100.6	97.2	0.97	…	…	…	…	86.5**	86.9**	86.1**	0.99**	61.8**	30.6**	31.2**
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	6-11#	663	1 175	47.5	766	49.2	104.8	108.1	101.4	0.94	115.6	114.6	116.6	1.02	96.3**	98.4**	94.1**	0.96**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Mauritania	6-11	435	167	42.5	361	48.2	49.7	57.1	42.2	0.74	83.0	85.8	80.2	0.93	34.9**	39.9**	29.7**	0.74**	64.0**	66.2**	61.8**	0.93**	156.3**	73.6**	82.7**
Morocco	6-11	4 071	2 484	39.8	3 842	45.6	65.2	77.1	53.0	0.69	94.4	100.8	87.7	0.87	56.8	66.6	46.6	0.70	78.0**	81.5**	74.4**	0.91**	895.2**	383.4**	511.8**
Oman	6-11#	438	263	47.1	317	48.2	86.1	90.3	81.9	0.91	72.3	73.7	70.8	0.96	70.3	72.5	67.9	0.94	64.6	64.8	64.5	0.99	155.0	78.3	76.7
Palestinian Autonomous Territories	6-9	370	…	…	399	49.0	…	…	…	…	107.9	107.3	108.5	1.01	…	…	…	…	96.8	96.1	97.5	1.02	11.8	7.4	4.4
Qatar	6-11	60	49	46.9	62	48.8	100.7	104.1	97.2	0.93	104.6	104.8	104.5	1.00	89.6	90.5	88.6	0.98	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Saudi Arabia	6-11	3 420	1 877	45.7	2 308	48.0	76.9	81.9	71.6	0.87	67.5	68.7	66.2	0.96	62.1	68.2	55.7	0.82	57.9**	60.2**	55.5**	0.92**	1 438.8**	695.2**	743.6**
Sudan	6-11	4 759	2 043	42.7	2 800	45.0	52.7	59.4	45.7	0.77	58.8	63.5	54.0	0.85	…	…	…	…	49.5**	54.0**	44.7**	0.83**	2 405.2**	1 113.6**	1 291.6**
Syrian Arab Republic	6-11#	2 598	2 452	46.5	2 835	47.2	108.4	114.2	102.3	0.90	109.1	113.0	105.1	0.93	97.8	100.0	92.8	0.93	96.3**	98.9**	93.7**	0.95**	95.2**	14.5**	80.6**
Tunisia[w]	6-11	1 171	1 406	45.8	1 374	47.6	113.3	119.5	106.6	0.89	117.3	119.8	114.7	0.96	93.5	97.2	89.6	0.92	99.2	99.7	98.6	0.99	9.8	2.0	7.7
United Arab Emirates	6-11	283	229	48.0	280	48.0	102.3	100.7	104.0	1.03	99.1	99.2	98.9	1.00	92.4	90.7	94.3	1.04	86.6	86.0	87.3	1.02	37.9	20.6	17.3
Yemen	6-11#	3 339	…	…	2 644**	37.6**	58.3**	82.7**	32.7**	0.45**	79.2**	96.5**	61.0**	0.63**	46.2**	64.0**	27.4**	0.43**	67.1**	84.2**	49.2**	0.58**	1 098.4**	270.9**	827.6**
Central and Eastern Europe																									
Albania[o]	6-9#	256	551	48.3	274	48.6	100.2	100.1	100.4	1.00	107.0	107.0	107.1	1.00	95.1**	94.5**	95.7**	1.01**	97.6	97.7	97.4	1.00	6.2	3.0	3.2
Belarus	6-9	508	615	…	551**	48.5**	94.8	…	…	…	108.6**	109.3**	107.8**	0.99**	85.1**	…	…	…	99.4**	100.0**	98.8**	0.99**	3.0**	0.0**	3.0**
Bosnia and Herzegovina[o]	6-9	197	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Bulgaria[o]	7-10#	363	961	48.1	374	48.1	97.6	98.8	96.3	0.97	103.2	104.6	101.7	0.97	86.1	86.4	85.9	0.99	94.3	95.3	93.3	0.98	20.6	8.7	11.9
Croatia	7-10#	222	432	48.6	196	48.5	84.7	85.0	84.4	0.99	88.1	88.6	87.6	0.99	78.8	78.9	78.8	1.00	81.6	82.3	80.9	0.98	40.7	20.1	20.7
Czech Republic[o]	6-10#	605	546	48.9	631	48.4	96.4	96.2	96.5	1.00	104.3	104.8	103.8	0.99	86.7**	86.6**	86.8**	1.00**	90.3	90.3	90.3	1.00	58.5	30.0	28.5
Estonia[o]	7-12#	114	127	48.8	117	47.7	110.8	112.3	109.2	0.97	103.0	105.1	100.8	0.96	100.0**	100.0**	99.5**	0.99**	97.6	98.4	96.7	0.98	2.7	0.9	1.8
Hungary[o]	7-10#	480	1 131	48.8	490	48.4	94.6	94.6	94.5	1.00	102.0	102.8	101.3	0.99	91.3	90.8	91.8	1.01	90.2	90.6	89.8	0.99	46.9	23.1	23.8
Latvia[o]	7-10	125	143	49.0	126	48.6	94.7	95.0	94.4	0.99	100.3	100.9	99.6	0.99	90.4**	90.9**	89.8**	0.99**	92.0	92.2	91.8	1.00	10.0	5.0	5.0
Lithuania[o]	7-10	209	202	48.0	212	48.5	91.0	93.2	88.8	0.95	101.3	101.9	100.7	0.99	…	…	…	…	94.6	95.0	94.2	0.99	11.3	5.4	5.9
Poland[o]	7-12#	3 235	5 189	48.6	3 221	48.5	98.4	98.8	97.9	0.99	99.6	100.1	99.0	0.99	96.7	96.6	96.7	1.00	97.7	97.7	97.8	1.00	73.4	38.8	34.6
Republic of Moldova	7-10	282	302	49.3	237	48.9	93.1	93.0	93.1	1.00	83.8	83.9	83.7	1.00	…	…	…	…	78.4**	78.5**	78.4**	1.00**	60.9**	31.0**	29.9**
Romania[o]	7-10	1 103	1 253	48.9	1 090	48.3	91.3	91.2	91.4	1.00	98.8	99.8	97.7	0.98	81.2**	81.3**	81.0**	1.00**	92.8	93.1	92.5	0.99	79.3	39.0	40.3
Russian Federation[w, 3]	7-9	5 240	7 596	49.2	5 702	48.6	109.2	109.2	109.1	1.00	108.8	109.2	108.5	0.99	98.6**	98.7**	98.5**	1.00**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Serbia and Montenegro	7-10	576	467	48.6	381	48.7	72.0	71.4	72.7	1.02	66.2	65.6	66.9	1.02	69.4	68.8	70.2	1.02	50.2	49.6	50.8	1.03	287.1	150.4	136.7
Slovakia	6-9	291	…	…	300	48.7	…	…	…	…	103.0	103.3	102.6	0.99	…	…	…	…	89.3	88.8	90.0	1.01	31.1	16.8	14.3
Slovenia[o]	7-10	86	112	…	86	48.5	108.4	…	…	…	100.2	100.5	99.9	0.99	100.0**	…	…	…	93.4	93.7	93.0	0.99	5.7	2.8	2.9
The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia[o]	7-10#	125	267	48.3	124	48.5	99.3	100.1	98.5	0.98	98.9	98.9	98.8	1.00	94.4	95.1	93.7	0.99	92.3	92.4	92.2	1.00	9.6	4.9	4.7
Turkey[o]	6-11#	7 969	6 862	47.1	8 015**	47.0**	99.1	102.0	96.0	0.94	100.6**	104.7**	96.3**	0.92**	89.4	92.0**	86.7**	0.94**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Ukraine	7-10#	2 557	3 990	49.1	…	…	88.8	88.9	88.7	1.00	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Central Asia																									
Armenia[4]	7-9	199	…	…	155	48.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Azerbaijan	6-9#	692	527	48.5	694	48.2	113.5	114.0	113.0	0.99	100.2	100.6	99.8	0.99	…	…	…	…	93.0**	93.0**	93.0**	1.00**	…	…	…
Georgia	6-9	290	352	49.1	276	48.8	97.3	97.4	97.2	1.00	95.5	95.3	95.6	1.00	97.1**	97.2**	97.0**	1.00**	95.2	95.1	95.4	1.00	13.8	7.3	6.5
Kazakhstan	7-10	1 205	1 197	…	1 190	48.8	87.3	…	…	…	98.8	99.3	98.2	0.99	86.7**	…	…	…	88.7	89.1	88.2	0.99	136.4	66.7	69.8
Kyrgyzstan	6-9#	453	296	49.7	460	48.6	92.8	93.0	92.6	1.00	101.4	103.2	99.5	0.96	92.3**	92.5**	92.2**	1.00**	82.5	83.6	81.3	0.97	79.4	37.5	41.9
Mongolia	8-11#	254	166	50.0	250	50.1	97.2	96.1	98.3	1.02	98.8	97.0	100.6	1.04	90.1**	89.4**	90.9**	1.02**	88.8	87.1	90.6	1.04	28.3	16.6	11.7
Tajikistan	7-10	652	507	48.9	680	47.4	91.0	91.9	90.0	0.98	104.3	108.2	100.2	0.93	76.7**	77.5**	75.9**	0.98**	96.2	100.0	92.4	0.92	24.5	0.0	24.5
Turkmenistan	7-10	480	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Uzbekistan	6-9	2 499	1 778	49.0	…	…	81.4	82.2	80.7	0.98	…	…	…	…	78.2**	78.7**	77.7**	0.99**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
East Asia and the Pacific																									
Australia[o]	5-11#	1 867	1 583	48.6	1 906	48.6	107.7	108.0	107.4	0.99	102.1	102.1	102.1	1.00	99.2	99.0	99.3	1.00	95.7	95.3	96.1	1.01	81.1	45.6	35.5
Brunei Darussalam	6-11	43	39	46.2	45	47.5	115.4	118.7	111.8	0.94	104.2	106.2	102.0	0.96	89.8**	92.0**	87.4**	0.95**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Cambodia	6-11#	2 207	1 330	…	2 431	46.3	87.8	…	…	…	110.1	116.8	103.3	0.88	70.2**	…	…	…	85.4**	89.2**	81.5**	0.91**	322.1**	120.8**	201.3**
China[w, 5]	7-11	110 499	122 414	46.2	125 757	47.3	125.2	129.6	120.3	0.93	113.8	113.8	113.8	1.00	97.4	99.4	95.3	0.96	92.7**	92.5**	93.0**	1.01**	8 054.6**	4 383.1**	3 671.5**

1. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.
2. Change in the primary education structure in 2000, from 6-10 to 6-11.
3. Change in the calculation of enrolment ratios, from the age group 6-9 to 7-9.
4. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to inconsistencies between enrolment and United Nations population data.
5. Change in the calculation of enrolment ratios, from the age group 6-11 to 7-11.
6. National population data have been used to calculate enrolment ratios.
7. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.
8. Change in the calculation of enrolment ratios, from the age group 6-11 to 6-10.
9. Introduction of free primary education from 1999 in Lesotho, and from 2000 in Cameroon.
Change in the school-age group between 1990 and 2000, with implications for the duration of primary education. Indicators for 1990 and 2000 may not be comparable.

Table 5 (continued)

Country or territory	Age group	School-age population (000)	ENROLMENT IN PRIMARY EDUCATION				GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)				GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)				NET ENROLMENT RATIO (NER) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)								OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN (000)		
			1990		2000		1990			GPI	2000			GPI	1990			GPI	2000			GPI	2000		
	2000	2000	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female
Cook Islands[6]	5-10	2.7	…	…	3**	46.4**	…	…	…	…	96.0**	98.4**	93.4**	0.95**	…	…	…	…	84.6**	86.4**	82.5**	0.96**	0.4**	0.2**	0.0**
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	6-9	1 643	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Fiji	6-11	105	144	…	115**	48**	131.5	…	…	…	108.9**	109.7**	108.0**	0.98**	100.0**	…	…	…	99.0**	99.0**	99.0**	1.00**	…	…	…
Indonesia[w]	7-12	26 081	29 754	48.7	28 690	48.6	114.3	115.7	112.9	0.98	110.0	111.2	108.8	0.98	96.8	98.6	94.9	0.96	92.2	92.7	91.5	0.99	2 046.3	961.9	1 084.4
Japan[o]	6-11	7 335	9 373	48.8	7 395	48.8	99.7	99.6	99.9	1.00	100.8	100.8	100.8	1.00	99.7	99.6	99.9	1.00	100.0	100.0	100.0	1.00	0.3	0.0	0.3
Kiribati[1]	6-11#	14	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*127.9***	*126.7***	*129.1***	*1.02***	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Lao People's Democratic Republic	6-10	732	576	43.4	828	45.4	103.4	115.5	90.9	0.79	113.1	121.5	104.4	0.86	62.6**	67.4**	57.6**	0.85**	81.4	84.7	78.1	0.92	136.0	57.0	79.0
Macao, China	6-11	44	35	48.6	46	47.3	98.7	100.6	96.6	0.96	103.8	106.4	101.0	0.95	81.2**	81.8**	80.5**	0.98**	84.8	85.3	84.3	0.99	6.7	3.3	3.4
Malaysia[w]	6-11	3 065	2 456	48.6	3 018	48.7	93.7	93.8	93.6	1.00	98.5	98.3	98.7	1.00	93.7**	93.9**	93.5**	1.00**	98.5	98.3	98.7	1.00	46.7	26.9	19.8
Marshall Islands	6-11	8	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Micronesia (Federated States of)	6-11	20	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Myanmar	5-9	5 373	5 385	48.5	4 782	49.3	108.7	111.3	106.2	0.95	89.0	89.3	88.7	0.99	…	…	…	…	83.2	83.5	83.0	0.99	901.2	448.2	453.0
Nauru	6-11#	2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
New Zealand[o]	5-10	360	319	48.3	360	48.6	105.6	106.4	104.7	0.98	99.9	100.0	99.9	1.00	100.0	100.0	100.0	1.00	99.3	99.3	99.3	1.00	2.6	1.4	1.3
Niue[1]	5-10	0.3	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*98.5*	*98.6*	*98.4*	*1.00*	…	…	…	…	*98.5*	*98.6*	*98.4*	*1.00*	…	…	…
Palau	6-10	1.7	…	…	2**	47.7**	…	…	…	…	111.0**	112.7**	109.3**	0.97**	…	…	…	…	98.6**	100.0**	97.0**	0.97**	0.0**	0.0**	0.0**
Papua New Guinea[1]	7-12	722	415	44.3	…	…	68.6	70.6	66.3	0.94	*83.8***	*87.5***	*79.7***	*0.91***	68.5**	70.4**	66.2**	0.94**	*83.8***	*87.5***	*79.7***	*0.91***	…	…	…
Philippines[w]	6-11	11 330	10 427	48.8	12 760	48.9	109.8	110.3	109.3	0.99	112.6	112.7	112.5	1.00	96.8**	97.2**	96.3**	0.99**	92.7	92.1	93.4	1.01	822.6	456.5	366.1
Republic of Korea[o]	6-11	3 988	4 869	48.5	4 030	47.0	104.9	104.6	105.3	1.01	101.1	100.7	101.5	1.01	100.0	100.0	100.0	1.00	99.5	99.2	99.9	1.01	20.3	17.7	2.6
Samoa	5-10#	27	36	50.0	27**	47.7**	121.8	116.7	127.5	1.09	102.9**	104.6**	101.1**	0.97**	100.0**	100.0**	100.0**	1.00**	96.9**	98.3**	95.4**	0.97**	0.8**	0.2**	0.6**
Singapore	6-11	375	258	47.3	…	…	103.7	105.1	102.3	0.97	…	…	…	…	96.4**	96.8**	96.0**	0.99**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Solomon Islands	6-11	75	48	43.8	…	…	85.8	91.9	79.2	0.86	…	…	…	…	83.3**	89.1**	77.0**	0.86**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Thailand[w]	6-11	6 517	6 957	48.6	6 179	48.4	98.1	100.4	95.9	0.95	94.8	96.9	92.7	0.96	75.9**	77.1**	74.6**	0.97**	85.4**	86.7**	84.1**	0.97**	950.3**	437.5**	512.7**
Timor-Leste	6-11	134	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Tokelau	6-10#	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Tonga	5-10	15	…	…	17**	46.4**	…	…	…	…	112.7**	113.5**	111.8**	0.99**	…	…	…	…	91.5**	92.4**	90.4**	0.98**	1.3**	0.6**	0.7**
Tuvalu	6-11#	1.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Vanuatu	6-11	32	24	50.0	35**	47.6**	96.1	96.9	95.3	0.98	108.5**	109.2**	107.7**	0.99**	70.7**	70.2**	71.3**	1.02**	89.4**	89.6**	89.2**	1.00**	3.4**	1.7**	1.7**
Viet Nam	6-10	9 232	8 862	…	9 751	47.7	106.9	110.8**	102.9**	0.93	105.6	109.0	102.2	0.94	90.5**	94.4**	86.5**	0.94**	95.4	98.4**	92.2**	0.94**	428.2	74.7**	353.5**
Latin America and the Caribbean																									
Anguilla[7]	5-11	…	…	…	…	1	48.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Antigua and Barbuda	5-11	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Argentina[w]	6-11#	4 077	4 965	…	4 898	49.1	106.3	…	…	…	120.1	120.4	119.8	1.00	93.8**	…	…	…	99.7*	100.0*	99.4*	0.99*	12.6*	0.0*	12.6*
Aruba[6]	6-11	9	…	…	9	48.6	…	…	…	…	111.0	113.0	109.0	0.97	…	…	…	…	97.0	97.5	96.4	0.99	1.5**	0.6**	0.0**
Bahamas[1]	5-10	37	33	…	…	…	95.7	…	…	…	*90.6***	*92.1***	*89.0***	*0.97***	89.7**	…	…	…	*82.8***	*86.0***	*79.5***	*0.92***	…	…	…
Barbados	5-10#	22	28	50.0	24	49.1	93.1	93.0	93.2	1.00	110.1	110.2	109.9	1.00	80.2**	80.8**	79.7**	0.99**	99.7	99.4	100.0	1.01	0.1	0.1	0.0
Belize	5-10#	35	48	47.9	45	48.5	111.6	112.5	110.7	0.98	128.1	129.9	126.4	0.97	94.1**	94.6**	93.5**	0.99**	98.2**	96.4**	100.0**	1.04**	0.6**	0.6**	0.0**
Bermuda[7]	5-10#	…	…	…	5	49.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Bolivia	6-11#	1 288	1 279	47.2	1 492	48.7	94.7	99.0	90.4	0.91	115.9	116.7	115.1	0.99	90.7	94.7	86.7	0.92	96.9**	96.8**	97.1**	1.00**	39.6**	21.0**	18.6**
Brazil[w]	7-10#	13 078	28 944	…	20 212	47.7	106.2	…	…	…	154.5	159.1	149.9	0.94	86.4	89.0**	83.8**	0.94**	96.7	100.0	93.3	0.93	429.9	0.0	429.9
British Virgin Islands[7]	5-11	…	…	…	…	3	52.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Cayman Islands[7]	5-10	…	…	…	…	4	49.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Chile[w]	6-11#	1 751	1 991	48.8	1 799	48.5	99.9	100.6	99.1	0.98	102.7	103.9	101.4	0.98	87.7	88.4**	87.0**	0.98**	88.8	89.4	88.3	0.99	195.6	94.9	100.7
Colombia	6-10	4 645	4 247	52.6	5 221	48.9	102.2	95.3	109.4	1.15	112.4	112.7	112.1	1.00	68.1**	63.4**	72.9**	1.15**	88.5**	88.7**	88.3**	1.00**	534.0**	267.3**	266.6**
Costa Rica	6-11	516	435	48.5	551	48.1	100.8	101.4	100.1	0.99	106.8	108.3	105.3	0.97	86.3	86.0	86.7	1.01	91.1	91.1	91.1	1.00	45.9	23.6	22.4
Cuba	6-11	988	888	48.1	1 007	47.7	97.7	99.1	96.2	0.97	101.9	103.9	99.8	0.96	91.8	91.7	91.8	1.00	97.3	97.9	96.6	0.99	27.0	10.8	16.3
Dominica[7]	5-11	…	…	…	…	11	48.3	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Dominican Republic	6-11#	1 118	…	…	1 386**	48.4**	…	…	…	…	124.0**	125.7**	122.2**	0.97**	…	…	…	…	92.5**	91.7**	93.3**	1.02**	83.6**	47.0**	36.6**
Ecuador	6-11	1 700	1 846	…	1 955	49.1	116.5	…	…	…	115.0	115.1	114.9	1.00	97.8**	97.5**	98.0**	1.01**	99.3	98.8	99.8	1.01	11.7	10.3	1.4
El Salvador	7-12#	860	1 010	49.6	940	48.1	81.1	80.7	81.5	1.01	109.3	111.6	106.9	0.96	72.8**	72.1**	73.5**	1.02**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Grenada	5-11	17	…	…	16	48.4	…	…	…	…	94.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	84.2**	…	…	…	2.7**	…	…
Guatemala	7-12	1 869	1 165	…	1 909	46.8	77.6	82.6**	72.4**	0.88**	102.2	106.5	97.7	0.92	64.0**	67.0**	60.8**	0.91**	84.3	86.4	82.1	0.95	293.3	129.4	164.0
Guyana[1]	6-11	90	104	49.0	…	…	93.6	94.2	92.9	0.99	*119.7*	*121.6*	*117.7*	*0.97*	88.9	89.0	88.8	1.00	*97.9*	*99.2*	*96.7*	*0.97*	…	…	…
Haiti	6-11	1 293	555	48.1	…	…	47.8	49.1	46.4	0.94	…	…	…	…	22.1	21.6	22.6	1.05	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Honduras	7-12	1 033	…	…	1 095	49.6	108.7**	106.1**	111.5**	1.05**	106.0	105.0	107.1	1.02	89.7**	89.0**	90.4**	1.02**	87.6	86.8	88.4	1.02	127.8	69.2	58.7
Jamaica[w]	6-11	330	340	49.4	328	48.9	101.3	101.7	100.9	0.99	99.6	100.1	99.1	0.99	95.7	95.5	95.8	1.00	94.9	94.9	95.0	1.00	16.7	8.6	8.1
Mexico[o]	6-11	13 070	14 402	48.5	14 793	48.8	113.8	115.2	112.4	0.98	113.2	113.6	112.7	0.99	100.0	100.0**	98.9**	0.99**	99.4	98.8	100.0	1.01	78.4	78.4	0.0
Montserrat[7]	5-11	…	…	…	…	0.4	44.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Netherlands Antilles	6-11	22	…	…	24	45.9	…	…	…	…	107.1	114.2	99.8	0.87	…	…	…	…	91.2	96.2	86.1	0.89	1.9	0.4	1.5

1. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.
2. Change in the primary education structure in 2000, from 6-10 to 6-11.
3. Change in the calculation of enrolment ratios, from the age group 6-9 to 7-9.
4. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to inconsistencies between enrolment and United Nations population data.
5. Change in the calculation of enrolment ratios, from the age group 6-11 to 7-11.
6. National population data have been used to calculate enrolment ratios.
7. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.
8. Change in the calculation of enrolment ratios, from the age group 6-11 to 6-10.
9. Introduction of free primary education from 1999 in Lesotho, and from 2000 in Cameroon.
Change in the school-age group between 1990 and 2000, with implications for the duration of primary education. Indicators for 1990 and 2000 may not be comparable.

Table 5 (continued)

Country or territory	Age group	School-age population (000)	ENROLMENT IN PRIMARY EDUCATION				GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)				GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)				NET ENROLMENT RATIO (NER) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)								OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN (000)		
			1990		2000		1990			GPI	2000			GPI	1990			GPI	2000			GPI	2000		
	2000	2000	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female
Nicaragua	7-12	810	633	51.0	838	49.4	93.5	90.7	96.5	1.06	103.5	103.0	104.1	1.01	72.2	70.9	73.5	1.04	80.7	80.3	81.2	1.01	155.9	81.1	74.8
Panama	6-11	359	351	47.9	400	48.2	106.2	108.3	104.1	0.96	111.6	113.1	110.1	0.97	91.4	91.3	91.5	1.00	99.9	99.8	100.0	1.00	0.4	0.4	0.0
Paraguay[w]	6-11	854	687	48.3	966**	48.2**	105.4	107.2	103.5	0.97	113.1**	115.2**	111.0**	0.96**	92.8	93.5	92.2	0.99	92.1**	91.8**	92.5**	1.01**	67.2**	35.6**	31.6**
Peru[w]	6-11	3 416	3 855	…	4 338	49.0	118.5	120.1**	116.8**	0.97**	127.0	127.5	126.4	0.99	87.5**	87.9**	87.1**	0.99**	99.9	100.0	99.7	1.00	4.6	0.0	4.6
Saint Kitts and Nevis[7]	5-11	…	…	…	7	48.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Saint Lucia	5-11	22	33	48.5	25	47.5	138.7	142.5	134.9	0.95	112.4	115.4	109.2	0.95	95.3**	96.7**	93.9**	0.97**	99.7	99.5	100.0	1.01	0.1	0.1	0.0
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines[7]	6-11#	…	…	…	18	48.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Suriname	6-11	51	60	48.3	65	48.9	100.3	100.4	100.1	1.00	126.6	126.8	126.5	1.00	78.4**	77.3**	79.5**	1.03**	98.4**	97.0**	100.0**	1.03**	0.8**	0.8**	0.0**
Trinidad and Tobago	5-11	155	194	49.5	155	48.8	96.7	97.0	96.4	0.99	100.4	101.4	99.4	0.98	91.0	91.2	90.7	1.00	92.4	92.5	92.4	1.00	11.7	5.9	5.8
Turks and Caicos Islands[7]	6-11	…	…	…	2	49.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Uruguay[w]	6-11	330	361	48.5	361	48.5	108.6	109.2	107.9	0.99	109.4	110.2	108.5	0.98	91.9**	91.3**	92.4**	1.01**	90.4**	90.0**	90.8**	1.01**	31.7**	16.8**	14.9**
Venezuela	6-11#	3 286	3 351**	48.5**	3 347**	48.5**	95.7	94.3	97.2	1.03	101.9**	102.8**	101.0**	0.98**	88.1	86.9	89.3	1.03	88.0**	87.1**	88.9**	1.02**	394.6**	216.0**	178.6**
North America and Western Europe																									
Andorra	6-10	3.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Austria[o]	6-9	378	370	48.6	392	48.5	100.7	100.7	100.6	1.00	103.7	104.2	103.2	0.99	87.7**	86.9**	88.5**	1.02**	90.9	90.4	91.5	1.01	34.3	18.6	15.6
Belgium[o]	6-11	735	719	49.2	772	48.6	99.9	99.2	100.6	1.01	105.0	105.4	104.5	0.99	96.2	95.3	97.1	1.02	99.9	100.0	99.9	1.00	0.5	0.0	0.5
Canada[o]	6-11	2 460	2 376	48.3	2 456	48.8	103.8	104.6	103.0	0.98	99.8	99.7	100.0	1.00	97.7	97.9	97.6	1.00	99.8**	99.7**	99.9**	1.00**	3.9**	3.2**	0.7**
Cyprus[o]	6-11	66	63	47.6	64	48.5	90.1	90.3	89.9	1.00	96.6	96.5	96.7	1.00	87.0	87.1	86.9	1.00	94.9	94.7	95.2	1.01	3.3	1.8	1.5
Denmark[o, 1]	7-12	388	340	49.1	396	48.7	98.3	98.2	98.3	1.00	101.9	102.0	101.9	1.00	98.3	98.2	98.3	1.00	*99.3*	*99.3*	*99.4*	*1.00*	…	…	…
Finland[o]	7-12	386	391	48.6	392	48.8	98.8	99.1	98.5	0.99	101.6	101.8	101.4	1.00	98.3**	98.5**	98.1**	1.00**	100.0	99.9	100.0	1.00	0.2	0.2	0.0
France[o]	6-10	3 658	4 149	48.4	3 838	48.6	108.4	109.2	107.6	0.99	104.9	105.5	104.2	0.99	100.0	100.0	100.0	1.00	99.8	99.8	99.8	1.00	7.1	3.2	4.0
Germany[o]	6-9	3 391	3 431	…	3 519	48.5	101.0	…	…	…	103.8	103.9	103.7	1.00	84.3**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Greece[o]	6-11	641	813	48.5	636	48.4	98.4	98.7	98.1	0.99	99.3	99.4	99.2	1.00	94.6	94.8	94.3	0.99	97.2	97.2	97.3	1.00	17.6	9.2	8.4
Iceland[o]	6-12	31	30	…	32	48.5	101.3	101.7**	101.0**	0.99**	102.3	102.4	102.2	1.00	100.0**	100.0	100.0	1.00	99.9	100.0	99.9	1.00	0.0	0.0	0.0
Ireland[o, 1]	6-11	323	417	48.9	…	…	102.5	102.2	102.7	1.00	*119.4*	*119.8*	*119.0*	*0.99*	90.4	89.7	91.1	1.02	*90.2***	*90.2***	*90.2***	*1.00***	…	…	…
Israel[o]	6-11#	658	725	49.4	749	48.7	97.9	96.4	99.5	1.03	113.9	114.1	113.6	1.00	91.9**	90.5**	93.4**	1.03**	99.9	99.8	100.0	1.00	0.7	0.7	0.0
Italy[o]	6-10	2 786	3 056	48.6	2 810	48.5	103.7	103.8	103.5	1.00	100.9	101.3	100.5	0.99	100.0**	100.0**	100.0**	1.00**	99.8	100.0	99.5	1.00	6.4	0.0	6.4
Luxembourg[o]	6-11	33	23	52.2	33	48.7	90.4	86.9	94.2	1.08	100.9	100.9	100.9	1.00	81.6**	78.1**	85.4**	1.09**	96.7	96.2	97.2	1.01	1.1	0.6	0.4
Malta[o]	5-10	32	37	48.6	34	48.4	108.0	110.0	105.8	0.96	105.8	105.9	105.8	1.00	97.0	97.5	96.6	0.99	97.9	97.5	98.2	1.01	0.7	0.4	0.3
Monaco	6-10	…	…	…	2	48.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Netherlands[o]	6-11	1 192	1 082	49.6	1 282	48.3	102.4	100.8	104.1	1.03	107.5	108.6	106.4	0.98	95.3	93.4	97.2	1.04	99.5	100.0	98.9	0.99	6.3	0.0	6.3
Norway[o]	6-12#	420	309	48.9	426	48.7	100.4	100.5	100.4	1.00	101.4	101.3	101.5	1.00	100.0	100.0	100.0	1.00	99.9	99.8	100.0	1.00	0.4	0.4	0.0
Portugal[o, 1]	6-11	661	1 020	47.5	802	48.4	123.0	125.9	120.0	0.95	121.2	122.1	120.3	0.98	100.0	100.0	100.0	1.00	*100.0*	*100.0*	*100.0*	*1.00*	…	…	…
San Marino	6-10	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Spain[o]	6-11#	2 384	2 820	48.5	2 505	48.4	108.6	109.1	108.0	0.99	105.1	105.3	104.8	0.99	100.0	100.0	100.0	1.00	99.7	99.4	100.0	1.01	7.0	7.0	0.0
Sweden[o]	7-12	715	578	48.8	786	49.3	99.8	99.7	99.9	1.00	109.9	108.6	111.3	1.02	99.8	99.7	99.9	1.00	99.7	100.0	99.4	0.99	2.2	0.0	2.2
Switzerland[o]	7-12	501	404	49.0	538	48.6	90.3	89.7	90.9	1.01	107.3	107.8	106.8	0.99	83.7	83.1	84.4	1.02	99.0	99.3	98.6	0.99	5.1	1.7	3.4
United Kingdom[o]	5-10	4 646	4 532	49.0	4 596	48.8	104.2	102.9	105.5	1.03	98.9	98.9	98.9	1.00	97.0	95.9	98.2	1.02	98.9	98.9	98.9	1.00	50.2	25.9	24.3
United States[o]	6-11	25 055	22 429	48.4	25 298	48.7	102.0	102.9	101.1	0.98	101.0	101.1	100.8	1.00	95.8	95.7	95.8	1.00	94.9	94.3	95.6	1.01	1 267.9	728.6	539.3
South and West Asia																									
Afghanistan	7-12	3 372	623	34.0	500	…	29.2	37.2	20.6	0.55	14.8	…	…	…	26.8**	34.2**	18.9**	0.55**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Bangladesh	6-10	17 625	11 940	44.8	17 668	48.9	79.6	85.2	73.6	0.86	100.2	99.7	100.9	1.01	71.1	75.7	66.2	0.87	88.9	88.1	89.7	1.02	1 957.0	1 074.9	882.1
Bhutan[4]	6-12	400	…	…	85	46.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
India[w, 1, 8]	6-10	112 469	99 118	41.4	…	…	98.3	111.2	84.5	0.76	*101.6*	*110.8*	*91.7*	*0.83*	…	…	…	…	*85.7**	*93.4**	*77.4**	*0.83**	…	…	…
Iran, Islamic Republic of	6-10	9 221	9 370	46.2	7 968	47.6	108.6	114.7	102.2	0.89	86.4	88.0	84.7	0.96	91.7**	95.8**	87.5**	0.91**	73.6**	74.1**	73.0**	0.98**	2 436.3**	1 227.6**	1 208.8**
Maldives	6-12#	56	…	…	74	48.6	…	…	…	…	131.1	131.1	131.2	1.00	…	…	…	…	99.0	98.6	99.3	1.01	0.6	0.4	0.2
Nepal	6-10	3 065	2 789	36.0	3 623	44.1	117.7	144.9	88.3	0.61	118.2	127.7	108.0	0.85	87.8**	…	…	…	72.4**	77.3**	67.1**	0.87**	846.8**	359.9**	486.9**
Pakistan	5-9	19 535	…	…	14 562*	41.0*	…	…	…	…	74.5*	85.2*	63.1*	0.74*	…	…	…	…	60.1*	68.8*	51.0*	0.74*	7 785.4*	3 146.1*	4 639.3*
Sri Lanka[w]	5-9	1 670	2 112	48.2	…	…	110.0	112.0	107.8	0.96	…	…	…	…	87.3**	89.0**	85.6**	0.96**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Sub-Saharan Africa																									
Angola	6-9	1 601	990	…	1 178**	46.9**	88.0	…	…	…	73.6**	78.1**	69.1**	0.88**	55.6**	…	…	…	36.9**	38.6**	35.1**	0.91**	1 010.9**	491.5**	519.4**
Benin[1]	6-11	1 105	490	33.3	1 055	40.6	58.3	78.0	38.7	0.50	95.5	113.4	77.6	0.68	44.6**	58.5**	30.7**	0.52**	*70.3***	*83.2***	*57.3***	*0.69***	…	…	…
Botswana	6-12	299	284	51.4	324	49.7	114.1	110.3	117.9	1.07	108.3	108.3	108.3	1.00	94.1	90.5	97.7	1.08	84.3	82.5	86.0	1.04	47.1	26.4	20.8
Burkina Faso	7-12	2 035	504	38.5	901	41.3	31.9	39.3	24.5	0.62	44.3	51.7	36.8	0.71	25.7	31.5	19.9	0.63	35.5	41.6	29.4	0.71	1 311.6	597.3	714.3
Burundi	7-12	1 151	633	45.7	751	44.4	71.4	77.7	65.1	0.84	65.2	72.5	57.9	0.80	53.1**	57.3**	48.9**	0.85**	53.7	58.8	48.7	0.83	532.8	237.3	295.5
Cameroon[9]	6-11	2 494	1 964	46.0	2 689	46.2	99.2	106.7	91.7	0.86	107.8	115.4	100.2	0.87	73.4**	78.4**	68.4**	0.87**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Cape Verde	6-11	65	70	…	91	49.0	121.4	…	…	…	138.8	140.2	137.4	0.98	100.0**	…	…	…	99.8	99.6	100.0	1.00	0.1	0.1	0.0

1. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.
2. Change in the primary education structure in 2000, from 6-10 to 6-11.
3. Change in the calculation of enrolment ratios, from the age group 6-9 to 7-9.
4. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to inconsistencies between enrolment and United Nations population data.
5. Change in the calculation of enrolment ratios, from the age group 6-11 to 7-11.
6. National population data have been used to calculate enrolment ratios.
7. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.
8. Change in the calculation of enrolment ratios, from the age group 6-11 to 6-10.
9. Introduction of free primary education from 1999 in Lesotho, and from 2000 in Cameroon.

Change in the school-age group between 1990 and 2000, with implications for the duration of primary education. Indicators for 1990 and 2000 may not be comparable.

Table 5 (continued)

Country or territory	Age group	School-age population (000)	ENROLMENT IN PRIMARY EDUCATION				GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)				GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)				NET ENROLMENT RATIO (NER) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)								OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN (000)		
			1990		2000		1990			GPI	2000			GPI	1990			GPI	2000			GPI	2000		
	2000	2000	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female
Central African Republic	6-11	610	308	39.6	457*	40.8*	64.3	78.8	50.1	0.63	75.0*	88.9*	61.2*	0.69*	52.5	63.4	41.9	0.66	54.7**	64.3**	45.0**	0.70**	276.4**	108.6**	167.8**
Chad	6-11	1 345	525	31.0	984	38.7	54.3	75.2	33.6	0.45	73.2	89.6	56.7	0.63	36.2**	50.1**	22.4**	0.45**	58.2	69.6	46.7	0.67	562.6	204.6	358.0
Comoros	6-11	114	73	41.1	98**	45.9**	75.1	87.0	63.1	0.73	86.0**	91.7**	80.1**	0.87**	56.8**	65.6**	47.9**	0.73**	56.2**	60.0**	52.3**	0.87**	49.8**	23.0**	26.7**
Congo	6-11	517	494	47.4	501	48.2	132.7	141.1	124.6	0.88	96.9	101.0	92.8	0.92	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Côte d'Ivoire	6-11	2 597	1 415	41.4	2 047	43.2	63.7	74.4	52.8	0.71	78.8	89.3	68.3	0.76	44.5	52.1**	37.0**	0.71**	62.2	70.9	53.6	0.76	980.7	379.3	601.3
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	6-11	9 235	4 562	42.6	…	…	71.0	81.4	60.6	0.74	…	…	…	…	54.8	61.5	48.1	0.78	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Equatorial Guinea	7-11	60	…	…	73	47.6	…	…	…	…	120.4	126.0	114.7	0.91	…	…	…	…	71.7	75.7	67.7	0.89	17.1	7.4	9.7
Eritrea	7-11#	502	109	48.6	299	45.0	22.5	23.1	21.8	0.94	59.5	65.3	53.6	0.82	16.9**	17.1**	16.8**	0.99**	41.0	44.0	37.9	0.86	296.5	140.8	155.7
Ethiopia	7-12	10 324	2 466	39.8	6 651	40.6	33.2	40.1	26.4	0.66	64.4	76.4	52.4	0.69	24.4**	27.9**	20.8**	0.75**	46.7	52.8	40.7	0.77	5 499.9	2 443.9	3 056.0
Gabon	6-11	185	…	…	266	49.6	…	…	…	…	143.8	144.4	143.2	0.99	…	…	…	…	87.6**	88.5**	86.7**	0.98**	22.9**	10.7**	12.2**
Gambia	7-12	191	86	40.7	157	47.6	63.5	75.7	51.3	0.68	82.3	86.3	78.3	0.91	49.9**	58.5**	41.2**	0.70**	68.7**	71.1**	66.3**	0.93**	59.7**	27.5**	32.2**
Ghana	6-11	3 091	1 945	45.2	2 478	47.4	73.0	79.7	66.3	0.83	80.2	83.8	76.5	0.91	…	…	…	…	58.2	59.6	56.9	0.95	1 290.7	627.7	663.0
Guinea	7-12	1 273	347	31.4	854	41.1	33.9	45.9	21.7	0.47	67.0	77.9	55.8	0.72	25.4**	33.5**	17.1**	0.51**	47.0	52.4	41.5	0.79	674.7	307.4	367.2
Guinea-Bissau[1]	7-12	186	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*82.7*	*99.1*	*66.3*	*0.67*	…	…	…	…	*53.5*	*62.6*	*44.5*	*0.71*	…	…	…
Kenya	6-12#	6 064	5 392	48.7	5 700**	49.5**	94.2	96.6	91.9	0.95	94.0**	94.6**	93.4**	0.99**	…	…	…	…	68.5**	67.8**	69.3**	1.02**	1 909.7**	981.6**	928.1**
Lesotho[9]	6-12	357	352	54.5	411	50.6	116.4	104.7	128.2	1.22	115.0	112.4	117.7	1.05	75.8	67.3	84.4	1.25	78.4	75.0	81.8	1.09	77.4	45.3	32.1
Liberia[1]	6-11	397	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*118.0*	*136.7*	*99.3*	*0.73*	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Madagascar	6-10	2 238	1 571	49.3	2 308	49.0	93.6	94.7	92.5	0.98	103.1	105.1	101.1	0.96	64.8**	64.6**	64.9**	1.00**	67.7	67.3	68.0	1.01	723.4	365.5	357.9
Malawi	6-11#	1 968	1 401	45.2	2 695**	48.9	66.9	72.8	61.0	0.84	136.9**	138.6**	135.3**	0.98	49.0	50.8	47.2	0.93	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Mali	7-12	1 842	395	37.0	1 127	41.7	27.7	34.9	20.5	0.59	61.2	71.2	51.2	0.72	22.3	28.0	16.6	0.59	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Mauritius	6-11	124	137	49.6	135	49.2	109.2	109.0	109.5	1.00	108.6	108.9	108.4	1.00	95.0	94.6	95.3	1.01	94.7	94.8	94.5	1.00	6.7	3.3	3.4
Mozambique	6-10	2 530	1 260	43.1	2 316	43.3	69.0	78.7	59.4	0.75	91.5	103.9	79.2	0.76	48.3	55.0**	41.6**	0.75**	54.4	58.7	50.1	0.85	1 153.9	521.4	632.5
Namibia	6-12	347	314	51.9	389	50.0	128.5	122.9	134.1	1.09	112.2	111.5	112.9	1.01	86.3**	82.5**	90.1**	1.09**	81.6	78.8	84.5	1.07	63.8	37.1	26.8
Niger	7-12	1 851	369	36.0	657	39.6	27.6	34.7	20.3	0.58	35.5	42.2	28.6	0.68	23.9	30.0	17.5	0.58	30.4	36.3	24.4	0.67	1 287.1	599.4	687.7
Nigeria	6-11	19 475	13 607	43.2	…	…	91.6	102.5	80.4	0.78	…	…	…	…	59.7**	66.8**	52.4**	0.78**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Rwanda	7-12#	1 244	1 100	49.8	1 476	50.0	70.8	71.5	70.0	0.98	118.6	119.0	118.3	0.99	66.9	67.1	66.7	0.99	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Sao Tome and Principe[7]	7-12#	…	…	…	22	47.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Senegal	7-12	1 550	708	41.9	1 160	46.5	58.9	67.9	49.9	0.73	74.8	79.3	70.3	0.89	48.2**	55.2**	41.2**	0.75**	63.1**	66.3**	59.9**	0.90**	571.7**	263.2**	308.4**
Seychelles[7]	6-11#	…	…	…	10	49.3	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Sierra Leone	6-11	701	382	41.4	651	43.3	49.9	59.0	40.9	0.69	…	…	…	…	40.6**	47.1**	34.3**	0.73**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Somalia	6-12#	1 711	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
South Africa	7-13	6 680	6 952	49.6	7 445	48.6	108.4	109.4	107.5	0.98	111.4	114.5	108.3	0.95	89.4**	88.4**	90.5**	1.02**	88.9**	89.6**	88.2**	0.98**	741.3**	346.3**	395.0**
Swaziland	6-12	174	166	50.0	217**	48.6**	112.9	114.0	111.8	0.98	124.6**	128.0**	121.2**	0.95**	89.2	87.6	90.8	1.04	92.8**	92.1**	93.6**	1.02**	12.5**	6.9**	5.6**
Togo	6-11	761	647	39.6	945	44.3	109.6	132.3	86.7	0.66	124.2	137.9	110.3	0.80	74.9	87.3	62.3	0.71	91.2	100.0	82.3	0.82	67.3	0.0	67.3
Uganda	6-12	4 806	2 402	44.5	6 526	47.4	68.9	76.4	61.3	0.80	135.8	142.6	128.9	0.90	52.9**	58.1**	47.7**	0.82**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
United Republic of Tanzania	7-13	6 789	3 379	49.5	4 280**	49.9**	66.9	67.5	66.4	0.98	63.0**	62.9**	63.2**	1.00**	49.4	49.0	49.8	1.02	46.7**	45.8**	47.6**	1.04**	3 618.8**	1 847.1**	1 771.7**
Zambia	7-13	2 034	1 461	…	1 590	48.1	94.9	…	…	…	78.2	80.3	76.0	0.95	…	…	…	…	65.5	65.8	65.2	0.99	701.1	351.1	350.0
Zimbabwe[w]	6-12	2 591	2 116	49.8	2 461	49.1	107.8	108.3	107.3	0.99	95.0	96.5	93.4	0.97	…	…	…	…	79.6	79.6	79.6	1.00	528.7	265.0	263.7
			Total	Total	% F	Total	% F	Weighted average				Weighted average				Weighted average				Weighted average				Total		
World	…		643 455	595 534	45.9	647 500	46.7	99.3	105.0	93.4	0.89	100.6	104.3	96.7	0.93	81.8	86.9	76.6	0.88	83.8	86.3	81.1	0.94	104 189	45 144	59 045
Countries in transition	…		23 046	29 255	48.9	22 954	48.6	94.8	95.1	94.5	0.99	99.6	100.1	99.0	0.99	88.3	88.4	88.2	1.00	90.5	89.4	91.3	1.02	2 191	1 247	944
Developed countries	…		61 008	61 291	48.6	62 304	48.7	102.8	103.1	102.5	0.99	102.1	102.3	102.0	1.00	96.9	96.7	97.2	1.01	97.0	96.7	97.3	1.01	1 829	1 035	794
Developing countries	…		559 401	504 988	45.4	562 242	46.5	99.2	105.9	92.2	0.87	100.5	104.7	96.1	0.92	79.8	85.8	73.5	0.86	82.1	85.1	78.9	0.93	100 169	42 862	57 307
Arab States	…		38 861	30 511	43.4	35 706	46.0	87.4	96.8	77.6	0.80	91.9	97.2	86.3	0.89	76.3	83.8	68.5	0.82	80.9	85.0	76.7	0.90	7 408	2 971	4 437
Central and Eastern Europe	…		24 545	31 155	48.5	24 508	48.0	97.5	98.3	96.7	0.98	99.9	101.5	98.1	0.97	89.9	90.5	89.2	0.99	92.1	92.2	91.9	1.00	1 943	974	969
Central Asia	…		6 724	5 128	49.1	6 711	48.7	85.2	85.7	84.7	0.99	99.8	100.5	99.1	0.99	81.4	81.8	81.0	0.99	90.7	90.6	89.8	0.99	623	323	300
East Asia and the Pacific	…		192 050	206 720	47.1	211 222	47.8	117.0	120.2	113.5	0.94	110.0	110.6	109.3	0.99	96.0	97.7	94.1	0.96	92.7	92.9	92.5	1.00	14 023	7 114	6 909
Latin America and the Caribbean	…		57 104	75 000	48.8	70 310	48.5	105.0	106.2	103.8	0.98	123.1	124.7	121.5	0.97	86.9	87.4	86.3	0.99	96.6	97.1	96.1	0.99	1 949	850	1 099
North America and Western Europe	…		51 543	50 116	48.6	52 741	48.7	103.2	103.5	102.8	0.99	102.3	102.5	102.1	1.00	96.3	96.0	96.6	1.01	96.5	96.1	96.9	1.01	1 808	1 021	788
South and West Asia	…		167 413	134 906	41.5	160 524	44.1	92.2	104.3	79.3	0.76	95.9	103.8	87.4	0.84	72.7	86.6	57.8	0.67	80.6	87.2	73.7	0.85	32 411	11 094	21 317
Sub-Saharan Africa	…		105 216	61 996	45.2	85 778	46.5	74.1	80.9	67.3	0.83	81.5	86.7	76.3	0.88	55.0	59.0	51.0	0.86	58.2	60.7	55.6	0.92	44 025	20 797	23 228

1. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.
2. Change in the primary education structure in 2000, from 6-10 to 6-11.
3. Change in the calculation of enrolment ratios, from the age group 6-9 to 7-9.
4. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to inconsistencies between enrolment and United Nations population data.
5. Change in the calculation of enrolment ratios, from the age group 6-11 to 7-11.
6. National population data have been used to calculate enrolment ratios.
7. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.
8. Change in the calculation of enrolment ratios, from the age group 6-11 to 6-10.
9. Introduction of free primary education from 1999 in Lesotho, and from 2000 in Cameroon.
Change in the school-age group between 1990 and 2000, with implications for the duration of primary education. Indicators for 1990 and 2000 may not be comparable.

Table 6
Primary education: internal efficiency

Country or territory	Duration[1] of primary	REPETITION RATES BY GRADE IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%), 1999																				REPEATERS, ALL GRADES (%)			SURVIVAL RATE TO GRADE 5 (%)			TRANSITION TO SECONDARY EDUCATION (%)			
		Grade 1			Grade 2			Grade 3			Grade 4			Grade 5			Grade 6			Grade 7			2000			1999			1999			GPI
	2000	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)
Arab States																															
Algeria	6	12.2	14.0	10.2	9.9	11.9	7.8	10.5	13.0	7.6	11.5	14.3	8.2	12.0	15.0	8.5	17.0	20.2	13.3	…	…	…	12.5	15.2	9.5	97.2	96.9	97.5	77.4	73.8	81.6	1.11
Bahrain	6	4.6**	3.7**	5.5**	4.0**	4.1**	3.9**	3.7**	4.2**	3.2**	4.3**	5.1**	3.5**	4.6**	4.6**	4.7**	4.8**	6.7**	2.8**	…	…	…	4.2	4.6	3.9	98.9**	100.0**	97.8**	99.5**	99.0**	100.0**	1.01**
Djibouti[2]	6	*8.9*	*9.2*	*8.4*	*9.3*	*9.3*	*9.2*	*9.9*	*9.0*	*11.1*	*9.5*	*8.7*	*10.7*	*9.7*	*9.5*	*10.1*	*33.7*	*35.7*	*30.9*	…	…	…	14.3	14.4	14.2	*76.7*	…	…	49.5	50.4	48.0	0.95
Egypt[w]	5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	5.2**	6.4**	3.9**	99.0**	98.8**	99.2**	…	…	…	…
Iraq[2]	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*12.3*	*14.1*	*10.0*	…	…	…	*82.3*	*90.8*	*71.4*	*0.79*
Jordan[w, 2]	6	*0.3*	*0.4*	*0.3*	*0.2*	*0.2*	*0.2*	*0.2*	*0.2*	*0.1*	*0.6*	*0.5*	*0.6*	*1.3*	*1.2*	*1.4*	*1.4*	*1.4*	*1.4*	…	…	…	*0.6*	*0.6*	*0.6*	*97.7*	*98.0*	*97.4*	*97.1*	*97.1*	*97.2*	*1.00*
Kuwait	4	3.3	3.2	3.5	3.1	3.1	3.2	4.0	4.3	3.6	2.5	3.0	2.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	3.2	3.3	3.1	…	…	…	97.1	96.8	97.5	1.01
Lebanon	6	4.8	5.5	4.1	6.1	7.2	4.9	7.2	8.8	5.5	9.3	10.8	7.7	7.5	8.7	6.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	7.1	8.3	5.8	96.9	95.2	98.8	93.1	88.4	97.9	1.11
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Mauritania	6	14.1	14.5	13.8	13.9	13.8	14.0	14.1	14.2	14.0	12.9	12.9	13.0	15.4	15.1	15.7	25.8	24.5	27.3	…	…	…	15.2	15.0	15.5	61.2	67.6	55.0	38.4	40.7	35.9	0.88
Morocco	6	16.9	17.5	16.1	14.5	15.9	12.9	14.6	16.5	12.2	11.7	13.7	9.0	10.1	12.1	7.3	7.0	8.6	4.8	…	…	…	12.7	14.2	10.8	80.0	79.1	81.0	81.7	80.9	82.9	1.03
Oman	6	7.0	7.0	7.0	7.8	7.9	7.7	6.1	7.1	4.9	6.2	7.9	4.3	4.8	6.4	3.0	3.9	5.7	1.9	…	…	…	6.0	7.0	4.9	95.9	95.2	96.7	96.2	94.5	98.2	1.04
Palestinian Autonomous Territories	4	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.0	2.2	2.4	1.9	3.4	4.0	2.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	1.8	2.1	1.6	…	…	…	96.4	95.1	97.7	1.03
Qatar	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Saudi Arabia	6	8.2**	10.0**	6.2**	5.6	8.1	2.9	7.1	9.7	4.2	5.1	5.7	4.6	5.0	5.8	4.0	1.6	1.8	1.4	…	…	…	5.5	6.9	3.9	93.7	93.9	93.5	96.2	100.0	92.1	0.92
Sudan[2]	6	*10.0***	*9.8***	*10.3***	*10.5***	*9.1***	*12.2***	*12.1***	*12.2***	*11.9***	*14.0***	*13.3***	*14.8***	*13.1***	*12.5***	*14.0***	*11.4***	*12.7***	*10.0***	…	…	…	*11.3*	*10.9*	*11.8*	*86.8***	*85.6***	*88.2***	*80.8***	*86.0***	*75.7***	*0.88***
Syrian Arab Republic	6	13.4	14.7	11.9	9.8	11.3	8.2	6.8	7.9	5.5	4.1	4.9	3.2	3.5	4.0	2.9	4.2	5.1	3.2	…	…	…	7.2	8.2	6.0	92.1	92.2	92.0	70.4	71.6	69.0	0.96
Tunisia[w]	6	10.8	11.8	9.7	12.5	14.2	10.7	13.4	15.4	11.2	11.3	13.1	9.2	15.7	17.7	13.4	18.0	19.0	17.0	…	…	…	14.1	15.8	12.3	93.1	92.4	93.8	75.3	74.0	76.8	1.04
United Arab Emirates	6	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.4	3.4	3.5	2.3	2.6	2.1	4.0	5.4	2.3	3.4	4.3	2.4	2.4	3.2	1.6	…	…	…	3.1	3.6	2.5	98.1	98.1	98.2	98.2	97.5	99.0	1.02
Yemen	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	9.0**	11.1**	5.5**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Central and Eastern Europe																															
Albania[o]	4	5.2	5.6	4.7	4.2	5.0	3.3	3.0	3.4	2.7	3.3	3.8	2.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	4.1	4.6	3.4	…	…	…	94.0	93.2	94.9	1.02
Belarus	4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.4	0.4**	0.4**	…	…	…	98.7**	98.5**	98.9**	1.00**
Bosnia and Herzegovina[o]	4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Bulgaria[o]	4	1.6	1.7	1.5	3.5	4.0	2.9	2.0	2.4	1.6	2.0	2.4	1.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	2.4	2.8	2.0	…	…	…	97.3	97.2	97.4	1.00
Croatia	4	1.0	1.1	0.9	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.5	0.5	0.4	…	…	…	99.6	99.3	99.9	1.01
Czech Republic[o]	5	1.5	1.7	1.3	1.0	1.1	0.9	0.9	1.0	0.8	1.0	1.2	0.8	1.1	1.4	0.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	1.1	1.3	0.9	99.2**	100.0**	98.4**	99.2	99.0	99.5	1.01
Estonia[o]	6	1.0	1.2	0.8	1.2	1.6	0.9	1.7	2.2	1.1	2.1	2.9	1.2	2.6	3.7	1.3	4.0	6.0	1.8	…	…	…	2.3	3.2	1.3	99.2	99.7	98.5	95.9	94.0	98.0	1.04
Hungary[o]	4	4.7	5.4	3.9	2.1	2.4	1.7	1.5	1.9	1.2	1.6	2.0	1.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	2.5	3.0	2.0	…	…	…	99.6	99.2	100.0	1.01
Latvia[o]	4	4.0	5.3	2.5	1.4	1.8	0.9	1.1	1.5	0.7	1.0	1.4	0.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	2.0	2.7	1.2	…	…	…	93.8	88.1	100.0	1.14
Lithuania[o]	4	1.5	1.8	1.1	0.4	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.7	0.9	0.5	…	…	…	95.1	90.4	100.0	1.11
Poland[o]	6	0.7	0.7**	0.7**	0.2	0.2**	0.2**	0.2	0.2**	0.2**	0.6	0.6**	0.6**	0.9	0.9**	0.9**	1.0	1.0**	1.0**	…	…	…	0.6	1.0	0.2	99.3	99.4**	99.2**	99.2	…	…	…
Republic of Moldova	4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	1.2**	1.2**	1.2**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Romania[o]	4	5.3	6.1	4.5	2.6	3.1	2.1	2.1	2.6	1.6	1.9	2.4	1.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	3.2	3.8	2.5	…	…	…	94.2	88.7	100.0	1.13
Russian Federation[w]	3	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Serbia and Montenegro	4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	1.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Slovakia	4	4.3	4.6	3.9	1.9	2.1	1.8	1.5	1.6	1.3	1.7	1.9	1.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	2.4	2.6	2.1	…	…	…	98.2	97.6	99.0	1.01
Slovenia[o]	4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.8	0.9	0.6	…	…	…	*97.5*	*100.0*	*94.8*	*0.95*
The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia[o]	4	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.1	0.1	0.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Turkey[o]	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Ukraine	4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Central Asia																															
Armenia	3	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.1	0.1	0.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Azerbaijan[2]	4	*0.5***	*0.5***	*0.5***	*0.4***	*0.4***	*0.4***	*0.4***	*0.4***	*0.4***	*0.4***	*0.4***	*0.4***	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*0.5***	*0.5***	*0.5***	…	…	…	*97.5*	*96.4*	*98.6*	*1.02*
Georgia	4	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.3	0.4	0.1	…	…	…	97.8	98.0	97.6	1.00
Kazakhstan	4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.2	0.3	0.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Kyrgyzstan	4	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.2	0.3	0.2	…	…	…	98.7	100.0	97.3	0.97
Mongolia	4	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.6	0.6	0.5	…	…	…	88.5	87.3	89.7	1.03
Tajikistan	4	0.2	0.2**	0.2**	0.5	0.5**	0.5**	0.5	0.5**	0.5**	0.6	0.6**	0.6**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.5	0.5**	0.5**	…	…	…	96.8	96.6**	97.0**	1.00**
Turkmenistan	4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Uzbekistan	4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
East Asia and the Pacific																															
Australia[o]	7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Brunei Darussalam	6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	…	…	…	0.0	0.0	0.0	91.8	91.9	91.8	95.6**	97.4**	93.5**	0.96**
Cambodia	6	29.5	30.2	28.6	18.0	18.9	16.8	15.1	16.3	13.7	9.3	10.4	8.1	5.8	6.5	5.0	2.9	3.1	2.5	…	…	…	16.5	17.3	15.5	62.8	62.9	62.7	76.4	80.8	70.4	0.87
China[w, 2]	5	1.9	…	…	1.1	…	…	0.2	…	…	0.1	…	…	0.1	…	…	0.2	…	…	…	…	…	0.6	…	…	98.2	…	…	*90.3*	…	…	…
Cook Islands[2]	6	*5.1*	…	…	*0.5*	…	…	*0.3*	…	…	*2.4*	…	…	*1.7*	…	…	*3.2*	…	…	…	…	…	2.6**	…	…	*51.5*	…	…	*87.7*	*94.0*	*81.6*	*0.87*
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Fiji	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…

1. Duration in this table is defined according to ISCED97 and may differ from that reported nationally.
2. Data in italics are for 1999/2000 as regards the percentage of repeaters for all grades. Otherwise, they refer to 1998/99.

Table 6 (continued)

Country or territory	Duration[1] of primary	REPETITION RATES BY GRADE IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%), 1999												REPETITION RATES BY GRADE IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%), 1999									REPEATERS, ALL GRADES (%)			SURVIVAL RATE TO GRADE 5 (%)			TRANSITION TO SECONDARY EDUCATION (%)			
		Grade 1			Grade 2			Grade 3			Grade 4			Grade 5			Grade 6			Grade 7			2000			1999			1999			GPI
	2000	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)
Indonesia[w]	6	12.2**	12.2**	12.2**	7.9**	7.8**	8.1**	6.6**	6.7**	6.6**	5.0**	4.8**	5.3**	3.5**	3.3**	3.7**	0.4**	0.4**	0.5**	...	...	...	6.2	6.2	6.2	95.1**	90.8**	100.0**	80.0**	80.1**	79.9**	1.00**
Japan[0]	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kiribati	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Lao People's Democratic Republic	5	34.3	35.0	33.5	19.9	21.5	17.9	11.9	13.6	9.8	7.5	9.2	5.5	5.4	6.7	3.7	...	...	...	...	...	...	19.8	21.2	18.2	53.2	52.6	53.9	73.7	75.9	70.9	0.93
Macao, China	6	2.4	2.5	2.4	3.4	4.2	2.5	5.8	7.1	4.3	8.0	10.5	5.3	10.5	12.7	8.0	8.7	9.8	7.5	...	...	...	6.9	8.3	5.4	99.4	98.9	100.0	84.7	85.1	84.3	0.99
Malaysia[w]	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Marshall Islands	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Micronesia (Federated States of)	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Myanmar	5	1.3	1.3	1.2	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.7	0.7	0.7	55.2	55.3	55.2	66.0	66.8	65.2	0.98
Nauru	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
New Zealand[0]	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Niue	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Palau	5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Papua New Guinea[2]	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*5.1***	*5.0***	*5.2***	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Philippines[w, 2]	6	*4.3*	*5.1*	*3.5*	*2.3*	*2.9*	*1.6*	*1.5*	*2.0*	*1.0*	*0.9*	*1.3*	*0.6*	*0.8*	*1.1*	*0.5*	...	...	...	...	...	...	2.0	2.5	1.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Republic of Korea[0]	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	99.6	99.6	99.7	1.00
Samoa[2]	6	*2.8*	*3.0*	*2.5*	*0.7*	*1.0*	*0.5*	*0.4*	*0.3*	*0.6*	*0.6*	*0.7*	*0.4*	*0.5*	*0.5*	*0.5*	...	...	...	...	...	...	1.0**	1.1**	0.9**	*82.6*	*89.0*	*77.3*	93.0**	87.2**	100.0**	1.15**
Singapore	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Solomon Islands	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Thailand[w, 2]	6	*9.2***	*8.9***	*9.5***	*3.8***	*3.8***	*3.9***	*2.1***	*2.0***	*2.1***	*2.1***	*2.1***	*2.1***	*1.9***	*1.8***	*1.9***	...	...	...	...	...	...	3.9**	4.0**	3.7**	*94.1***	*92.3***	*96.0***	84.5**	87.5**	81.2**	0.93**
Timor-Leste	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tokelau	5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tonga	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	37.7**	37.6**	37.8**	...	...	...	8.8**	8.5**	9.2**	...	...	...	74.6**	74.7**	74.6**	1.00**
Tuvalu	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	6	11.5**	11.5**	11.4**	10.7**	11.4**	10.0**	9.9**	13.7**	5.6**	8.8**	9.6**	7.9**	6.5**	6.7**	6.3**	17.2**	17.4**	17.1**	...	...	...	10.7**	11.6**	9.6**	82.9**	84.4**	81.3**	...	...	...	...
Viet Nam	5	5.9	...	...	3.0	...	...	2.1	...	...	2.2	...	...	0.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2.9	2.9	2.8	85.7	...	...	93.0	...	...	...
Latin America and the Caribbean																																
Anguilla[2]	7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.3**	0.4**	0.3**	...	...	...	*99.7*	*99.4*	*100.0*	*1.01*
Antigua and Barbuda	7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Argentina[w, 2]	6	9.8	11.2	8.4	6.9	8.1	5.8	6.1	7.2	5.0	5.2	6.3	4.2	4.6	5.6	3.6	3.8	4.7	2.9	...	...	...	5.9	7.0	4.8	90.3	90.1	90.5	*94.1***	*92.7***	*95.5***	*1.03***
Aruba	6	14.1	17.1	10.8	10.3	11.8	8.5	8.7	9.6	7.7	7.2	9.1	5.4	7.1	7.0	7.1	3.0	2.7	3.3	...	...	...	8.3	9.5	7.0	98.1	96.5	100.0	98.3	96.7	100.0	1.03
Bahamas[2]	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*85.4***	*83.8***	*87.0***	*1.04***
Barbados	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	99.2	100.0	98.4	0.98
Belize	6	14.1	15.6	12.4	8.3	9.3	7.2	8.3	9.9	6.7	9.8	11.8	7.7	8.8	10.5	6.9	9.1	10.7	7.3	...	...	...	9.8	11.4	8.1	81.5	81.5	81.5	85.8	83.6	88.3	1.06
Bermuda	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bolivia	6	6.3**	6.3**	6.4**	2.8**	2.9**	2.7**	2.8**	3.0**	2.7**	3.0**	3.2**	2.7**	3.0**	3.3**	2.7**	4.6**	5.2**	4.0**	...	...	...	3.7**	3.9**	3.5**	83.0**	84.5**	81.5**	87.5**	86.8**	88.3**	1.02**
Brazil[w]	4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	25.0	25.0**	25.0**	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
British Virgin Islands	7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1.5**	1.4**	1.6**	...	...	...	79.7	67.0	97.1	1.45
Cayman Islands	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	92.6	94.3	90.9	0.96
Chile[w]	6	0.9	1.0	0.8	3.8	4.4	3.3	0.8	0.9	0.6	2.5	3.1	2.0	2.3	2.9	1.6	1.6	2.0	1.1	...	...	...	2.0	2.4	1.6	99.9	100.0	99.9	97.5	96.8	98.3	1.02
Colombia	5	9.6	10.4	8.6	5.2	5.7	4.6	4.2	4.6	3.8	3.3	3.7	2.9	2.4	2.8	2.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	5.4	5.9	4.7	66.6	64.0	69.3	92.5	92.5	92.5	1.00
Costa Rica	6	14.7	15.9	13.3	8.5	9.5	7.4	6.8	7.7	5.8	8.4	9.6	7.2	6.4	7.4	5.4	0.9	0.9	0.9	...	...	...	8.1	9.0	7.0	80.2	76.7	84.2	80.7	81.1	80.3	0.99
Cuba	6	1.9	2.9	0.8	2.7	3.7	1.6	0.3	0.4	0.1	1.8	2.6	1.0	0.9	1.4	0.5	0.3	0.5	0.2	...	...	...	1.4	2.0	0.7	95.3	94.5	96.2	94.7	93.1	96.4	1.04
Dominica	7	5.0**	5.6**	4.4	0.8	1.1	0.6	0.5	0.7	0.4	0.7	0.9	0.5	0.7	1.0	0.4	0.8	0.8	0.8	6.1	6.0	6.2	2.2	2.4	2.0	86.2	87.5	84.9	86.7	82.1	91.1	1.11
Dominican Republic[2]	6	*2.6*	*3.0*	*2.1*	*3.0*	*3.6*	*2.3*	*11.0*	*13.1*	*8.6*	*6.1*	*7.5*	*4.7*	*4.8***	*6.1***	*3.4***	...	...	...	...	...	...	5.1**	6.2**	3.9**	*75.1***	*71.4***	*79.1***	81.4**	78.7**	83.9**	1.07**
Ecuador	6	4.3	4.6	3.9	3.2	3.6	2.7	2.0	2.3	1.8	1.6	1.8	1.4	0.9	1.1	0.8	0.5	0.6	0.5	...	...	...	2.2	2.5	2.0	77.8	76.4	79.4	69.9	71.8	67.9	0.95
El Salvador[2]	6	*18.6***	*19.7***	*17.3***	*7.3***	*8.1***	*6.4***	*4.4***	*5.0***	*3.8***	*3.3***	*3.7***	*2.8***	*2.3***	*2.6***	*2.1***	*2.1***	*2.5***	*1.7***	...	...	...	*7.5***	*8.3***	*6.8***	*70.7***	*69.4***	*72.2***	...	...	...	...
Grenada[2]	7	*3.9***	*4.6***	*3.1***	*5.2***	*6.6***	*3.8***	*4.3***	*5.3***	*3.2***	*4.2***	*5.6***	*2.8***	*3.7***	*4.5***	*2.8***	*8.4***	*15.3***	*5.0***	...	...	...	6.5**	7.8**	5.1**	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guatemala	6	27.5	28.3	26.6	14.4	15.2	13.6	11.0	11.8	10.1	7.7	8.2	7.1	4.9	5.4	4.3	2.0	2.4	1.6	...	...	...	14.5	15.1	13.7	56.0	54.5	57.7	93.9	94.1	93.7	1.00
Guyana[2]	6	*4.0*	*4.6*	*3.3*	*2.6*	*3.0*	*2.1*	*2.6*	*2.9*	*2.4*	*1.7*	*1.9*	*1.4*	*1.2*	*1.3*	*1.1*	*2.0*	*1.8*	*2.2*	...	...	...	*2.3*	*2.6*	*2.1*	*94.8*	*100.0*	*89.6*	...	...	...	...
Haiti	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Honduras	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Jamaica[w]	6	6.0	7.4	4.5	2.4	3.0	1.8	2.0	2.6	1.3	10.5	14.2	6.4	2.0	2.3	1.7	5.9	5.8	6.0	...	...	...	5.0	6.2	3.7	88.9	87.0	90.8	94.4**	96.5**	92.4**	0.96**
Mexico[0]	6	8.9	10.3	7.6	8.3	9.7	6.8	6.0	7.1	4.8	4.6	5.6	3.6	3.2	4.0	2.4	0.4	0.6	0.3	...	...	...	5.5	6.5	4.4	88.5	87.5	89.5	90.2	91.5	88.9	0.97
Montserrat[2]	7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*0.9*	*1.0***	*0.7***	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Netherlands Antilles[2]	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*51.1*	*46.8*	*55.0*	*1.18*
Nicaragua	6	8.5	9.2	7.7	4.9	5.6	4.2	4.5	5.3	3.8	4.2	5.0	3.4	3.2	3.7	2.7	1.8	2.1	1.5	...	...	...	5.1	5.8	4.4	48.4	44.6	52.6	98.7	100.0	97.5	0.97
Panama	6	10.7	12.2	9.0	9.4	10.9	7.9	6.4	7.5	5.1	4.0	4.9	3.1	2.9	3.7	2.1	1.0	1.1	0.8	...	...	...	6.0	7.0	4.9	91.9	91.5	92.4	53.6**	54.9**	52.2**	0.95**
Paraguay[w]	6	13.1**	14.2**	11.8**	10.1**	11.7**	8.5**	7.9**	9.0**	6.8**	5.9**	6.8**	4.8**	3.6**	4.2**	3.0**	1.7**	2.2**	1.2**	...	...	...	7.7	8.7	6.5	78.1**	76.2**	80.2**	93.4**	94.4**	92.4**	0.98**
Peru[w]	6	5.9	6.0	5.7	18.3	18.7	17.8	15.0	15.3	14.7	10.4	10.6	10.1	8.3	8.6	7.9	4.0	4.2	3.9	...	...	...	10.7	10.9	10.4	87.4	88.2	86.6	93.1	94.8	91.3	0.96
Saint Kitts and Nevis	7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	91.5	82.6	100.0	1.21
Saint Lucia	7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.3**	0.3**	0.3**	...	...	...	79.2	62.7	100.0	1.59

1. Duration in this table is defined according to ISCED97 and may differ from that reported nationally.
2. Data in italics are for 1999/2000 as regards the percentage of repeaters for all grades. Otherwise, they refer to 1998/99.

Table 6 (continued)

Country or territory	Duration[1] of primary	REPETITION RATES BY GRADE IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%), 1999												REPETITION RATES BY GRADE IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%), 1999									REPEATERS, ALL GRADES (%)			SURVIVAL RATE TO GRADE 5 (%)			TRANSITION TO SECONDARY EDUCATION (%)			
		Grade 1			Grade 2			Grade 3			Grade 4			Grade 5			Grade 6			Grade 7			2000			1999			1999			GPI
	2000	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	91.5	99.9	83.7	0.84
Suriname	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	11.4**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Trinidad and Tobago	7	10.4	11.8	8.9	6.2	7.3	5.2	5.9	7.1	4.5	5.2	6.3	4.0	6.7	8.1	5.4	6.8	8.1	5.4	1.3	1.1	1.6	6.3	7.4	5.2	98.2	96.5	100.0	96.0	96.1	95.9	1.00
Turks and Caicos Islands	6	2.4	3.1	1.8	4.4	3.5	5.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	2.5	2.6	2.3	…	…	…	…	…	…	8.7	9.5	7.8	…	…	…	68.7	60.9	77.6	1.27
Uruguay[w]	6	17.3	19.9	14.5	12.1	14.2	9.9	7.5	8.8	6.1	6.5	7.6	5.3	4.9	5.8	3.9	2.5	3.0	2.0	…	…	…	8.9	10.4	7.3	90.8	93.3	88.4	85.2	84.9	85.5	1.01
Venezuela[2]	6	*9.5***	*11.0***	*7.9***	*7.6*	*9.1*	*6.1*	*8.8*	*10.7*	*6.7*	*6.8*	*8.3*	*5.1*	*4.6*	*5.7*	*3.5*	…	…	…	…	…	…	6.7**	8.3**	5.0**	*90.8*	*87.6*	*94.3*	92.1**	91.7**	92.5**	1.01**
North America and Western Europe																																
Andorra	5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Austria[o]	4	1.8**	2.1**	1.5**	1.7**	1.9**	1.5**	1.4**	1.7**	1.1**	1.2**	1.4**	1.0**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	1.5**	1.8**	1.3**	…	…	…	95.3**	90.8**	100.0**	1.10**
Belgium[o]	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Canada[o]	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Cyprus[o]	6	1.6	1.8	1.5	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	…	…	…	0.3	0.3	0.3	99.4	99.2	99.6	99.5**	100.0**	99.0**	0.99**
Denmark[o, 2]	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*99.9*	*99.9*	*100.0*	*1.00*
Finland[o]	6	0.9	1.2	0.7	1.0	1.2	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	…	…	…	0.5	0.7	0.3	99.4	98.8	100.0	99.9	100.0	99.9	1.00
France[o, 2]	5	*5.6*	*5.5***	*5.6***	*6.2*	*6.2***	*6.2***	*3.1*	*3.1***	*3.1***	*2.5*	*2.5***	*2.5***	*3.4*	*3.4***	*3.4***	…	…	…	…	…	…	*4.2*	*4.2***	*4.2***	*98.0*	*98.4***	*97.5***	*98.7***	*99.1***	*98.3***	*0.99***
Germany[o]	4	1.7	1.9	1.6	2.3	2.5	2.1	1.6	1.9	1.4	1.2	1.3	1.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	1.8	2.0	1.6	…	…	…	98.8	98.7	98.9	1.00
Greece[o]	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Iceland[o]	7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Ireland[o, 2]	6	1.2	1.3	1.2	3.4	3.7	3.0	2.3	2.7	2.0	1.3	1.7	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.9	1.0	0.9	…	…	…	*1.6***	*1.7***	*1.4***	98.5	97.6	99.4	98.6	97.3	100.0	1.03
Israel[o]	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Italy[o]	5	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.3	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.3	0.4	0.2	99.2	100.0	98.5	99.8	100.0	99.7	1.00
Luxembourg[o]	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Malta[o]	6	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.7	1.3	1.6	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.0	0.6	0.8	0.4	8.4	9.8	7.1	…	…	…	2.4	2.8	2.0	99.5	99.1	99.8	86.3**	85.2**	87.4**	1.03**
Monaco	5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Netherlands[o]	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	98.9	97.9	100.0	1.02
Norway[o]	7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Portugal[o]	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
San Marino	5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Spain[o]	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Sweden[o]	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	2.1	2.1	2.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Switzerland[o]	6	1.1	1.2	1.0	2.5	2.6	2.5	2.4	2.6	2.2	2.0	2.2	1.8	1.6	1.9	1.3	1.0	1.2	0.8	…	…	…	1.7	1.8	1.5	99.6	100.0	99.2	99.7	99.5	100.0	1.00
United Kingdom[o]	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
United States[o]	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
South and West Asia																																
Afghanistan	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Bangladesh	5	6.7	7.1	6.3	5.6	5.8	5.3	7.9	7.1	8.7	6.7	7.3	6.1	5.4	6.4	4.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	6.5	6.8	6.2	64.9	60.3	70.1	81.9	76.5	87.5	1.14
Bhutan	7	15.6	16.5	14.6	14.7	15.3	14.0	14.7	15.4	13.8	12.3	12.9	11.6	14.6	15.0	14.0	13.2	13.1	13.3	9.7	9.1	10.4	13.2	13.7	12.5	90.4	88.9	92.2	84.3	84.4	84.1	1.00
India[w, 2]	5	*3.7***	*3.7***	*3.8***	*2.7***	*2.8***	*2.7***	*5.6***	*6.2***	*5.0***	*4.3***	*4.4***	*4.1***	*3.9***	*4.0***	*3.7***	…	…	…	…	…	…	*4.2*	*4.2*	*4.1*	*46.8***	*51.2***	*41.7***	…	…	…	…
Iran, Islamic Republic of	5	7.9	8.8	6.9	5.4	6.7	4.0	3.6	4.6	2.6	4.0	5.2	2.8	2.5	3.3	1.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	4.8	5.9	3.7	97.5	98.2	96.8	90.0	89.6	90.4	1.01
Maldives	7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Nepal	5	45.9**	45.4**	46.5**	15.8	15.5	16.2	12.1	12.2	11.9	12.2	12.1	12.4	10.1	9.8	10.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	24.0	24.3	23.6	62.2	56.8	70.1	71.6	70.9	72.6	1.02
Pakistan	5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Sri Lankaw	5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Sub-Saharan Africa																																
Angola	4	25.2**	24.2**	26.2**	26.2**	25.1**	27.4**	25.0**	23.4**	26.8**	20.5**	19.7**	21.5**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Benin	6	14.7	14.7	14.8	21.2	21.0	21.4	25.5	24.9	26.2	24.0	23.1	25.5	29.8	29.1	31.0	28.3	28.6	27.6	…	…	…	19.9	19.9	19.8	84.0	88.7	77.5	57.6	56.9	58.9	1.04
Botswana	7	4.3	4.9	3.7	2.5	3.0	2.0	1.9	2.4	1.3	10.7	12.9	8.3	1.6	1.9	1.3	1.2	1.5	1.0	0.3	0.3	0.3	3.4	4.1	2.6	86.6	84.3	89.0	96.4	96.6	96.2	1.00
Burkina Faso	6	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.8	13.0	12.6	17.4	17.8	16.9	16.0	15.8	16.3	18.6	17.6	20.1	41.6	40.3	43.6	…	…	…	17.6	17.5	17.7	69.1	67.6	71.3	36.2**	37.2**	34.7**	0.93**
Burundi	6	24.1	23.7	24.5	23.3	23.3	23.3	22.9	22.7	23.1	22.8	22.4	23.4	32.2	31.4	33.1	39.7	39.3	40.1	…	…	…	24.5	24.1	25.0	58.4	58.9	57.9	22.1**	23.6**	20.3**	0.86**
Cameroon[2]	6	*31.2***	*30.8***	*31.6***	*24.2***	*24.0***	*24.4***	*32.2***	*31.9***	*32.6***	*24.6***	*24.2***	*25.1***	*28.4***	*28.2***	*28.8***	*26.5***	*26.5***	*26.6***	…	…	…	24.5	25.2	23.6	*80.7***	…	…	26.7**	27.8**	25.4**	0.91**
Cape Verde	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	11.9	13.4**	10.3**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Central African Republic	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Chad[2]	6	31.4	31.3	31.6	26.9	26.3	27.7	26.5	25.6	28.0	24.9	23.8	26.9	21.0	19.9	23.2	28.7	28.7	28.4	…	…	…	25.5	25.3	25.9	53.9	57.5	48.3	*47.2*	*48.4*	*43.8*	*0.90*
Comoros	6	33.9**	33.2**	34.8**	27.7**	27.1**	28.3**	26.3**	27.5**	24.7**	21.8**	21.9**	21.7**	20.5**	20.9**	20.0**	27.7**	27.0**	28.6**	…	…	…	26.0**	26.4**	25.5**	77.1**	…	…	…	…	…	…
Congo	6	32.8**	33.0**	32.6**	21.6**	21.5**	21.6**	38.5**	40.6**	36.2**	33.5**	34.0**	32.9**	28.6**	28.9**	28.3**	14.2**	14.5**	13.9**	…	…	…	24.9	25.7	24.0	…	…	…	90.8**	94.7**	86.8**	0.92**
Côte d'Ivoire	6	19.6	18.6	20.7	18.8	17.9	20.0	21.4	19.9	23.2	19.0	17.7	20.8	24.1	22.6	26.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	22.3	21.7	23.0	77.7	77.9	77.4	39.6	41.4	36.7	0.89
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Equatorial Guinea	5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Eritrea	5	22.2	21.7	22.9	11.1	11.2	11.0	11.1	11.1	11.2	11.8	11.4	12.2	6.4	6.5	6.3	…	…	…	…	…	…	13.9	13.7	14.1	60.5	60.8	60.1	80.8	81.9	79.4	0.97
Ethiopia	6	16.2	16.1	16.4	6.9	6.2	8.0	6.4	5.6	7.8	8.5	7.2	10.9	8.7	7.0	11.8	5.7	4.7	7.6	…	…	…	7.4	6.6	8.4	63.8	63.9	63.8	96.2	96.1	96.4	1.00

1. Duration in this table is defined according to ISCED97 and may differ from that reported nationally.
2. Data in italics are for 1999/2000 as regards the percentage of repeaters for all grades. Otherwise, they refer to 1998/99.

Table 6 (continued)

Country or territory	Duration[1] of primary	REPETITION RATES BY GRADE IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%), 1999												REPETITION RATES BY GRADE IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%), 1999									REPEATERS, ALL GRADES (%)			SURVIVAL RATE TO GRADE 5 (%)			TRANSITION TO SECONDARY EDUCATION (%)			
		Grade 1			Grade 2			Grade 3			Grade 4			Grade 5			Grade 6			Grade 7			2000			1999			1999			GPI
	2000	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)
Gabon	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	36.9	38.2	35.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Gambia[2]	6	*16.1***	*16.4***	*15.8***	*10.6***	*10.9***	*10.3***	*10.3***	*10.5***	*10.0***	*9.0***	*8.9***	*9.2***	*8.6***	*9.0***	*8.2***	*6.6***	*6.8***	*6.2***	…	…	…	*10.6***	*10.7***	*10.5***	*69.2***	*75.2***	*62.8***	88.9	87.9	90.2	1.03
Ghana	6	8.0	8.1	7.8	5.1	5.2	4.9	4.6	4.7	4.5	4.1	4.3	4.0	3.6	3.8	3.5	3.8	4.0	3.5	…	…	…	5.2	5.4	5.0	66.3	67.3	65.2	82.1	81.5	82.9	1.02
Guinea	6	20.9	20.5	21.3	19.8	18.6	21.3	23.1	21.5	25.5	20.2	18.5	22.8	21.4	19.7	24.6	27.9	26.3	31.2	…	…	…	20.3	19.6	21.2	84.4	90.4	77.0	55.5	56.3	53.8	0.96
Guinea-Bissau[2]	6	*23.9***	*23.9***	*23.8***	*26.9***	*26.1***	*28.0***	*24.4***	*24.1***	*24.7***	*23.9***	*23.2***	*25.0***	*20.6***	*20.5***	*20.7***	*27.9***	*26.8***	*29.7***	…	…	…	*24.0*	*23.6*	*24.5*	*38.1***	*41.2***	*33.8***	*62.9***	*65.5***	*58.4***	*0.89***
Kenya	7	7.2**	7.7**	6.7**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	75.1	78.2	72.1	0.92
Lesotho	7	30.0	33.2	26.5	21.9	24.9	18.7	20.0	22.7	17.2	20.4	23.0	17.9	15.7	17.7	14.0	12.4	13.5	11.6	17.4	17.1	17.7	18.3	20.2	16.4	74.5	68.2	80.5	53.0	53.7	52.5	0.98
Liberia[2]	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*74.6*	*76.5*	*72.0*	*0.94*
Madagascar[2]	5	39.1	40.1	38.1	27.4	29.1	25.5	29.5	30.4	28.5	24.1	24.6	23.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	30.1	31.2	29.0	*51.1*	*50.7*	*51.6*	46.6	47.1	46.0	0.98
Malawi	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	49.0	55.3	42.6	82.4	84.4	80.2	0.95
Mali[2]	6	*11.1***	*11.0***	*11.2***	*11.7***	*11.8***	*11.6***	*18.2***	*17.6***	*18.9***	*21.3***	*20.2***	*22.8***	*26.0***	*24.7***	*28.0***	…	…	…	…	…	…	18.8**	18.4**	19.4**	*79.3***	*79.7***	*78.7***	51.5	54.3	47.0	0.87
Mauritius	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	22.6	24.7	20.3	…	…	…	4.2	4.6	3.8	…	…	…	60.4	56.7	64.3	1.13
Mozambique	5	26.9	26.7	27.2	25.4	25.0	25.9	25.5	24.8	26.5	21.4	20.7	22.5	31.2	29.4	34.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	23.6	23.3	24.0	42.7	47.0	37.2	55.6	55.4	56.1	1.01
Namibia	7	15.6	17.7	13.5	12.0	14.3	9.6	11.2	13.4	9.0	12.0	14.0	9.9	19.3	21.8	16.8	11.5	12.5	10.6	10.1	9.8	10.4	13.2	15.0	11.4	92.2	91.5	92.9	83.0	82.6	83.4	1.01
Niger	6	1.1	1.1	1.2	6.5	6.3	6.9	9.6	9.2	10.2	10.5	10.2	10.9	15.3	14.8	16.2	38.8	38.1	39.9	…	…	…	10.2	10.1	10.5	74.0	75.8	71.2	30.6	31.0	29.9	0.96
Nigeria	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Rwanda	6	42.5	42.5	42.6	31.0	30.9	31.0	32.3	31.9	32.6	37.2	35.6	38.8	41.7	40.1	43.4	30.4	30.4	30.3	…	…	…	36.1	36.0	36.2	39.1	38.3	39.9	…	…	…	…
Sao Tome and Principe	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Senegal	6	10.0	10.1	9.8	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.4	12.9	12.8	13.0	16.1	15.6	16.8	29.5	28.9	30.4	…	…	…	13.9	14.1	13.7	72.3	75.0	69.3	38.9	40.3	37.0	0.92
Seychelles	6	0.1	…	…	0.1	…	…	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.1	0.1	0.1	99.0	…	…	99.0	100.0	98.0	0.98
Sierra Leone	6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Somalia	7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
South Africa	7	11.6**	12.9**	10.3**	7.6**	8.8**	6.4**	7.1**	8.3**	5.9**	7.4**	8.6**	6.1**	6.7**	7.6**	5.7**	5.3**	5.9**	4.8**	4.5**	5.0**	4.1**	7.9**	8.9**	6.9**	64.5**	66.5**	62.5**	91.9	90.7	93.0	1.03
Swaziland	7	19.5**	22.4**	16.3**	17.7**	20.6**	14.4**	20.0**	23.7**	15.9**	18.3**	21.5**	15.2**	16.5**	17.8**	15.2**	16.7**	18.0**	15.4**	10.5**	12.1**	9.0**	17.1**	19.6**	14.5**	84.2**	82.9**	85.4**	92.4**	91.8**	92.9**	1.01**
Togo	6	30.7	31.2	30.1	25.4	25.5	25.3	26.5	26.2	26.9	20.5	19.9	21.3	20.8	19.9	22.1	19.7	18.8	21.1	…	…	…	24.0	23.8	24.3	73.8	78.1	68.7	65.8	67.9	62.2	0.92
Uganda	7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
United Republic of Tanzania[2]	7	3.3**	3.3**	3.3**	2.2**	2.2**	2.2**	1.5**	1.4**	1.5**	12.7**	12.6**	12.8**	0.1**	0.1**	0.1**	0.0**	0.0**	0.0**	0.0**	0.1**	0.0**	3.2**	3.1**	3.2**	81.8**	80.4**	83.2**	*17.3*	*18.0*	*16.6*	*0.92*
Zambia	7	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.8	4.9	4.8	5.0	5.1	4.9	6.3	6.4	6.2	6.3	6.5	6.1	7.0	7.2	6.8	12.3	13.1	11.3	6.2	6.5	5.9	80.6	83.1	78.1	43.8	43.4	44.3	1.02
Zimbabwe[w]	7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
World[3]	…	6.7	7.1	6.3	5.3	6.7	3.9	5.6	6.2	5.0	5.0	4.8	5.3	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	5.2	6.4	3.9	…	…	…	90.3	…	…	…
Countries in transition	…	1.0	1.1	0.9	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.7	0.9	0.5	…	…	…	97.5	98.2	96.7	0.98
Developed countries	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Developing countries	…	10.0	10.1	9.8	7.9	7.8	7.9	7.2	8.8	5.5	7.5	9.2	5.5	5.4	6.5	4.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	7.4	6.6	8.4	…	…	…	84.3	84.4	84.1	1.00
Arab States and North Africa	…	8.2	10.0	6.2	7.8	7.9	7.7	7.1	9.7	4.2	6.2	7.9	4.3	7.5	8.7	6.2	5.9	7.6	3.8	…	…	…	7.1	8.2	5.9	94.8	94.6	95.1	87.7	89.6	84.7	0.95
Central and Eastern Europe	…	1.6	1.7	1.4	1.3	1.7	0.9	1.3	1.6	1.0	1.3	1.7	0.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	1.1	1.2	1.0	…	…	…	97.5	100.0	94.8	0.95
Central Asia	…	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.3	0.4	0.1	…	…	…	97.5	96.4	98.6	1.02
East Asia and the Pacific	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Latin America and the Caribbean	…	8.9	10.3	7.6	6.2	7.3	5.2	5.9	7.1	4.6	4.9	6.0	3.8	3.2	4.0	2.4	2.0	2.4	2.4	…	…	…	5.9	7.0	4.8	87.4	88.2	86.6	91.5	…	…	…
North America and Western Europe	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
South and West Asia	…	7.9	8.8	6.9	5.6	5.8	5.3	7.9	7.1	8.7	6.7	7.3	6.1	5.4	6.4	4.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	6.5	6.8	6.2	64.9	60.3	70.1	…	…	…	…
Sub-Saharan Africa	…	19.5	22.4	16.3	18.2	19.2	17.2	20.0	23.2	16.6	19.6	18.1	21.8	19.0	19.7	18.4	21.1	21.8	20.7	…	…	…	17.9	18.8	17.1	73.8	78.1	68.7	60.4	…	…	…

1. Duration in this table is defined according to ISCED97 and may differ from that reported nationally.
2. Data in italics are for 1999/2000 as regards the percentage of repeaters for all grades. Otherwise, they refer to 1998/99.
3. All values shown are medians.

Table 7
Participation in secondary[1] and post-secondary non-tertiary[2] education

Country or territory	Age group	School-age population (000)	ENROLMENT IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (000)				GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (%)				GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (%)				NET ENROLMENT RATIO (NER) IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (%)								INTERNAL EFFICIENCY			POST-SECONDARY NON-TERTIARY EDUCATION	
			Total enrolment		Enrolment in technical and vocational education																		Repeaters in general secondary education (%)			Total enrolment	
			2000		2000		1990			GPI	2000			GPI	1990			GPI	2000			GPI	2000			2000	
	2000	2000	Total	% F	Total	% F	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	Total (000)	% F
Arab States																											
Algeria[3]	12-17	4 227	2 991	50.7	84.5	33.6	61.0	67.4	54.3	0.81	70.8	68.2	73.4	1.08	53.9	59.7	47.7	0.80	61.8**	60.4**	63.3**	1.05**	*27.6*	*31.4*	*23.9*	…	…
Bahrain	12-17	66	67	50.2	11.4	40.3	99.8	98.1	101.4	1.03	101.3	97.8	105.1	1.07	85.0	83.8	86.2	1.03	92.1**	88.9**	95.5**	1.07**	7.5	9.2	6.0	6.1	33.1
Djibouti	12-18	100	19	38.1	1.3	37.3	13.7	16.7	10.7	0.64	18.9	23.3	14.4	0.62	…	…	…	…	16.7**	20.5**	13.0**	0.63**	5.8	5.9	5.7	…	…
Egypt[w]	11-16	9 715	8 324**	47.3**	2 420.7**	44.9**	76.3	83.9	68.2	0.81	85.7**	88.2**	83.1**	0.94**	…	…	…	…	78.6**	80.2**	76.9**	0.96**	7.2	8.4	6.0	128.8**	46.5**
Iraq[3]	12-17	3 289	…	…	…	…	49.2	59.8	38.1	0.64	*38.3*	*47.1*	*29.1*	*0.62*	…	…	…	…	*33.0*	*39.6*	*26.0*	*0.66*	*27.5*	*30.5*	*22.7*	…	…
Jordan[w, 3]	12-17#	672	…	…	…	…	63.3	62.1	64.8	1.04	*87.7*	*86.4***	*89.0***	*1.03***	…	…	…	…	*75.9*	*73.4*	*78.5*	*1.07*	*1.1*	*1.3*	*0.9*	…	…
Kuwait	10-17	436	244**	50.0**	4.2**	39.0**	42.9	43.3	42.5	0.98	55.9**	55.0**	56.9**	1.04**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	10.3	12.5	8.1	…	…
Lebanon	12-17#	426	322	51.7	40.0	40.5	…	…	…	…	75.7	72.0	79.4	1.10	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	6.0	6.7	5.4	0.4	61.5
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	12-17#	801	…	…	245.2	50.7	86.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Mauritania	12-17	366	77	46.7	1.9	35.6	13.9	18.9	8.8	0.47	21.0	22.3	19.6	0.88	…	…	…	…	14.5**	16.3**	12.7**	0.78**	14.5	15.2	13.6	0.5	41.7
Morocco[3]	12-17	3 943	…	…	…	…	35.5	40.9	29.9	0.73	*39.3*	*43.6*	*35.0*	*0.80*	…	…	…	…	*29.9*	*32.7*	*27.0*	*0.83*	17.7	19.5	15.4	…	…
Oman	12-17	373	254	48.9	…	…	45.7	51.2	40.2	0.78	68.2	68.9	67.5	0.98	…	…	…	…	59.2	58.7	59.6	1.01	9.4	12.8	5.7	…	…
Palestinian Autonomous Territories	10-17#	618	510	50.6	3.6	25.1	…	…	…	…	82.6	79.6	85.7	1.08	…	…	…	…	77.7	74.7	80.9	1.08	2.4	2.7	2.2	…	…
Qatar	12-17	53	47	50.1	0.8	…	82.1	78.8	85.6	1.09	89.0	86.4	91.7	1.06	68.3	65.5	71.3	1.09	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Saudi Arabia	12-17	2 823	1 914	46.3	35.5	10.9	46.6	51.7	41.5	0.80	67.8	71.2	64.3	0.90	33.1	36.5	29.6	0.81	51.1	52.3	49.9	0.95	7.1	9.1	4.7	37.6	40.8
Sudan[3]	12-16#	3 460	…	…	…	…	21.7	24.2	19.1	0.79	*28.8*	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Syrian Arab Republic	12-17	2 597	1 125	46.4	114.6	48.1	51.9	59.8	43.7	0.73	43.3	45.7	40.8	0.89	45.8	52.5	39.0	0.74	39.1	41.0	37.0	0.90	10.9	12.3	9.3	33.1	59.6
Tunisia[w]	12-18	1 460	1 143	50.2	78.9	49.3	44.9	50.0	39.5	0.79	78.3	76.3	80.4	1.05	…	…	…	…	70.3**	68.8**	71.9**	1.05**	15.9	17.7	14.2	2.9	38.7
United Arab Emirates	12-17	293	220	49.6	1.7	…	64.4	57.9	72.3	1.25	75.1	71.1	79.7	1.12	56.8	51.2	63.8	1.25	67.4	63.5	71.8	1.13	5.1	6.6	3.6	…	…
Yemen	12-17	2 365	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	19.1**	15.6**
Central and Eastern Europe																											
Albania[o]	10-17#	481	377	48.7	16.3**	30.4**	78.3	84.0	72.2	0.86	78.3	77.2	79.6	1.03	…	…	…	…	73.9	72.9	75.0	1.03	6.1	6.8	5.5	…	…
Belarus	10-16	1 161	981**	50.0**	5.7	40.0	93.0	…	…	…	84.4**	83.1**	85.8**	1.03**	…	…	…	…	75.9**	75.5**	76.2**	1.01**	0.4	0.4	0.4	130.0	38.3
Bosnia and Herzegovina[o]	10-17	498	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Bulgaria[o]	11-17	738	695	48.2	186.1	38.3	75.2	73.7	76.8	1.04	94.2	95.3	93.1	0.98	63.3	62.0	64.7	1.04	87.6**	88.5**	86.7**	0.98**	1.6	2.2	1.1	5.1	47.8
Croatia	11-18	500	416	49.7	155.4	47.1	76.2	72.7	79.9	1.10	83.1	81.7	84.6	1.04	63.2	60.3	66.2	1.10	79.3	78.3	80.4	1.03	0.8	1.2	0.4	…	…
Czech Republic[o]	11-18	1 061	1 004	49.6	388.5	47.4	91.2	92.5	89.7	0.97	94.6	93.3	96.1	1.03	…	…	…	…	88.3**	87.7**	89.0**	1.01**	1.1	1.4	0.8	36.9	42.1
Estonia[o, 4]	13-17#	130	119	49.5	17.7	33.9	102.0	97.6	106.6	1.09	91.7	91.1	92.3	1.01	…	…	…	…	82.8	81.8	83.9	1.03	3.9	5.5	2.4	11.8	63.4
Hungary[o, 3]	11-18	989	…	…	…	…	78.6	78.2	78.9	1.01	*98.6*	*98.2*	*99.0*	*1.01*	74.8	73.3	76.3	1.04	*87.2*	*86.8*	*87.6*	*1.01*	1.7	2.2	1.2	96.4	52.3
Latvia[o]	11-18	302	274	49.3	40.0	40.2**	93.2	93.1	93.3	1.00	90.9	90.3	91.5	1.01	…	…	…	…	87.0**	86.6**	87.4**	1.01**	0.7	0.9	0.4	7.1	57.8
Lithuania[o]	11-18	455	433	48.8	43.6	35.6	92.2	…	…	…	95.2	95.6	94.8	0.99	…	…	…	…	88.6**	88.3**	89.0**	1.01**	0.6	1.0	0.3	6.7	65.2
Poland[o]	13-18	3 921	3 974	48.3	1 725.6	40.5	81.5	79.6	83.5	1.05	101.4	102.6	100.0	0.97	75.9	72.8	79.0	1.08	90.9	89.5	92.4	1.03	*0.8*	*0.8*	*0.8*	182.3	63.4
Republic of Moldova	11-17#	580	413**	49.8**	22.4	35.4	80.0	76.7	83.4	1.09	71.2**	70.2**	72.1**	1.03**	…	…	…	…	68.2**	67.1**	69.4**	1.03**	1.3	1.3	1.3	…	…
Romania[o]	11-18	2 731	2 249	49.3	592.5	43.5	92.0	92.5	91.5	0.99	82.3	81.8	82.9	1.01	…	…	…	…	79.6	78.7	80.6	1.02	2.1	3.0	1.2	82.1	62.5
Russian Federation[w]	10-16	16 631	13 858	50.8	…	…	93.3	90.6	96.1	1.06	83.3	80.4	86.3	1.07	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	1 609.6	39.7
Serbia and Montenegro	11-18	1 280	761	49.3	267.1	46.7	63.4	62.4	64.5	1.03	59.5	58.2	60.8	1.04	62.2	61.2	63.3	1.03	76.8	74.8	78.9	1.05	3.1	…	…	6.5	4.6
Slovakia[3]	10-18#	760	664	49.3	205.6	47.9	…	…	…	…	87.3	86.7	87.9	1.01	…	…	…	…	74.9**	74.6**	75.2**	1.01**	*1.6*	*2.0*	*1.2*	6.3	64.6
Slovenia[o]	11-18	211	225	49.3	90.4	46.9	91.1	…	…	…	106.4	105.3	107.5	1.02	…	…	…	…	96.1**	95.3**	97.0**	1.02**	1.9	3.2	0.5	0.6	61.0
The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia[o, 3]	11-18	264	222	47.9	59.1**	42.8**	55.8	56.0	55.5	0.99	84.2	85.4	82.9	0.97	…	…	…	…	*81.0***	*81.9***	*80.0***	0.98**	1.2	1.6	0.7	0.6	7.2
Turkey[o, 3]	12-17	7 421	…	…	…	…	47.3	57.5	36.6	0.64	*57.7***	*67.3***	*47.7***	*0.71***	41.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Ukraine	11-17#	5 317	…	…	…	…	92.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Central Asia																											
Armenia[5]	10-16	531	389	50.6	5.0	35.3	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	63.6	61.9	65.4	1.06	0.3	0.4	0.1	26.1	72.3
Azerbaijan	10-16	1 198	1 020	48.0	22.9	36.7	89.7	89.7	89.7	1.00	85.2	86.3	84.0	0.97	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	.	.
Georgia[3]	10-16	594	…	…	…	…	94.9	96.1	93.5	0.97	*77.7*	*77.1*	*78.3*	*1.02*	…	…	…	…	*72.7***	*71.9***	*73.4***	*1.02***	0.3	0.6	0.1	44.3	50.8
Kazakhstan	11-17	2 297	2 032	48.6	86.1	37.3	98.0	96.7	99.4	1.03	88.5	89.8	87.1	0.97	…	…	…	…	82.8	83.8	81.8	0.98	0.3	0.4	0.1	168.2	59.0
Kyrgyzstan	10-16	798	684	49.5	26.5	35.9	100.1	98.8	101.3	1.02	85.6	85.5	85.8	1.00	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.2	0.4	0.1	26.4	65.3
Mongolia	12-17#	371	260	54.4	12.2	50.9	82.4	77.2	87.7	1.14	70.0	63.3	77.0	1.22	…	…	…	…	64.0	57.8	70.4	1.22	9.7	9.6	9.9	1.6	51.2
Tajikistan	11-17	1 079	847	44.8	24.5	34.4	102.1	…	…	…	78.5	85.7	71.2	0.83	…	…	…	…	75.6	81.9	69.2	0.84	0.9	0.9	0.9	25.3	44.2
Turkmenistan	11-17	767	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Uzbekistan	10-16	4 310	…	…	…	…	99.4	103.8	94.9	0.91	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
East Asia and the Pacific																											
Australia[o]	12-17	1 611	2 589	48.9	1 213.2	47.5	81.7	80.1	83.4	1.04	160.8	160.2	161.3	1.01	78.6	76.9	80.4	1.05	89.7**	88.5**	91.0**	1.03**	…	…	…	162.9	49.7
Brunei Darussalam	12-18	44	36	49.8	2.3	32.4	68.8	66.4	71.4	1.07	82.3	80.3	84.6	1.05	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Cambodia	12-17	2 124	397	35.6	7.9	39.2	28.8	40.2	17.4	0.43	18.7	23.7	13.5	0.57	…	…	…	…	16.7**	20.9**	12.3**	0.59**	2.5	3.0	1.8	6.5	33.4
China[w]	12-17	132 994	90 723	40.9	…	…	48.7	55.3	41.7	0.75	68.2	77.2	58.4	0.76	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	691.8	35.5

1. Includes both lower- and upper-secondary education (ISCED levels 2 and 3, respectively).
2. This corresponds to ISCED level 4. Like secondary education, post-secondary non-tertiary includes both general and technical and vocational programmes.
3. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.
4. In Estonia, some programmes have been reclassified in the ISCED mapping in the 2000 data submission.
5. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to inconsistencies between enrolment and United Nations population data.
6. National population data have been used to calculate enrolment ratios.
7. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.
8. Change in the calculation of enrolment ratios, from the age group 12-16 to 11-17.
Change in the school-age group between 1990 and 2000, with implications for the duration of secondary education. Therefore, indicators for 1990 and 2000 may not be comparable.

Table 7 (continued)

Country or territory	Age group	School-age population (000)	ENROLMENT IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (000)				GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (%)				GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (%)				NET ENROLMENT RATIO (NER) IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (%)								INTERNAL EFFICIENCY			POST-SECONDARY NON-TERTIARY EDUCATION	
			Total enrolment		Enrolment in technical and vocational education																		Repeaters in general secondary education (%)			Total enrolment	
			2000		2000		1990			GPI	2000			GPI	1990			GPI	2000			GPI	2000			2000	
	2000	2000	Total	% F	Total	% F	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	Total (000)	% F
Cook Islands[6]	11-18	3	2**	50.0**	…	…	…	…	…	…	60.2**	58.0**	62.5**	1.08**	…	…	…	…	58.8**	56.9**	61.0**	1.07**	4.3	…	…	0.04**	69.2**
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	10-15	2 283	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Fiji	12-18	121	97**	51.0**	1.7**	31.0**	58.2	…	…	…	80.0**	76.7**	83.4**	1.09**	…	…	…	…	75.8**	72.6**	79.2**	1.09**	…	…	…	…	…
Indonesia[w, 3]	13-18	26 015	14 828	48.8	…	…	45.5	49.7	41.1	0.83	57.0	57.6	56.4	0.98	39.1	41.5	36.6	0.88	*47.5***	*48.6***	*46.4***	*0.96***	*0.3*	*0.5*	*0.2*	…	…
Japan[o]	12-17	8 398	8 606	49.0	1 125.4	45.1	97.1	96.3	98.0	1.02	102.5	102.0	103.0	1.01	96.8	…	…	…	99.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	13.6	63.4
Kiribati	12-16	10	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Lao People's Democratic Republic	11-16	768	288	41.0	4.0	32.9	24.4	30.0	18.6	0.62	37.6	43.6	31.3	0.72	…	…	…	…	30.2	33.4	26.9	0.81	2.3	3.2	1.1	9.3	40.6
Macao, China	12-17	47	39	50.2	2.5	45.9	65.2	61.9	68.6	1.11	84.3	81.7	87.0	1.07	…	…	…	…	69.4	65.7	73.3	1.12	11.4	12.9	9.9	…	…
Malaysia[w, 3]	12-18	3 136	2 205	51.2	131.5	41.2	56.3	54.5	58.2	1.07	70.3	66.9	74.0	1.11	…	…	…	…	70.2	66.6	73.9	1.11	*0.1*	*0.1*	*0.1*	91.9	47.0
Marshall Islands	12-17	9	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Micronesia (Federated States of)	12-17	18	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Myanmar	10-15	6 008	2 318**	48.3**	15.9**	30.8**	22.4	22.7	22.2	0.98	38.6**	39.6**	37.5**	0.95**	…	…	…	…	36.5**	37.5**	35.5**	0.95**	3.2	3.1	3.3	…	…
Nauru	12-17	1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
New Zealand[o]	11-17	395	444	50.3	70.1**	52.2**	89.1	88.3	89.8	1.02	112.4	109.0	115.9	1.06	85.1	84.2	85.9	1.02	91.6**	90.7**	92.5**	1.02**	…	…	…	18.6	47.3
Niue[3]	11-16	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*98.2*	*93.2*	*102.8*	*1.10*	…	…	…	…	*93.4*	*90.9*	*95.7*	*1.05*	…	…	…	…	…
Palau	11-17	2	2**	47.9**	…	…	…	…	…	…	84.3**	83.0**	85.8**	1.03**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Papua New Guinea	13-18	…	…	…	…	…	12.8	14.7	10.6	0.72	*21.1***	*23.7***	*18.2***	*0.77***	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Philippines[w]	12-15	6 969	5 386	51.3	…	…	71.0	69.7	72.4	1.04	77.3	73.8	80.9	1.10	…	…	…	…	52.6	48.3	57.1	1.18	2.0	2.9	1.1	286.3	40.2
Republic of Korea[o]	12-17	4 206	3 959	47.8	753.6	49.0	89.8	91.1	88.5	0.97	94.1	94.1	94.1	1.00	85.8	86.8	84.7	0.98	90.9	90.8	90.9	1.00	…	…	…	…	…
Samoa	11-17	29	22**	49.5**	…	…	36.1	32.7	39.9	1.22	75.5**	72.6**	78.7**	1.08**	…	…	…	…	67.9**	65.4**	70.7**	1.08**	2.8	3.1	2.4	0.6**	36.9**
Singapore	12-16#	260	…	…	…	…	68.1	70.5	65.6	0.93	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Solomon Islands	12-18#	71	…	…	…	…	14.0	16.9	10.7	0.64	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Thailand[w, 3]	12-17	6 808	5 577	48.3	634.9	48.1	31.0	32.2	29.9	0.93	81.9	84.0	79.9	0.95	…	…	…	…	*55.4*	*54.3*	*56.5*	*1.04*	…	…	…	20.0	63.8
Timor-Leste	12-17	132	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Tokelau	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Tonga	11-16	15	15**	50.0**	0.9**	41.5**	…	…	…	…	99.6**	96.6**	102.9**	1.07**	…	…	…	…	70.5**	68.2**	72.8**	1.07**	10.2	14.2	6.3	0.3**	70.3**
Tuvalu	12-17	1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Vanuatu[3]	12-19#	37	10**	43.5**	1.7**	23.0**	16.8	18.6	14.8	0.79	28.3**	30.7**	25.7**	0.84**	…	…	…	…	*22.6*	*23.7*	*21.5*	*0.91*	…	…	…	0.7**	53.0**
Viet Nam	11-17	12 406	8 321	47.1	200.2	53.8	32.2	…	…	…	67.1	70.1	64.0	0.91	…	…	…	…	62.5	…	…	…	1.7	2.2	1.1	…	…
Latin America and the Caribbean																											
Anguilla[7]	12-16	…	1	51.3	0.1	57.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Antigua and Barbuda	12-16	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Argentina[w]	12-17#	3 965	3 832	50.9	987.5	48.8	71.1	…	…	…	96.7	93.5	99.9	1.07	…	…	…	…	79.1*	76.6*	81.6*	1.06*	6.7	8.1	5.3	…	…
Aruba[6]	12-16	7	6	51.1	1.1	36.7	…	…	…	…	97.5	95.3	99.7	1.05	…	…	…	…	72.1	70.3	73.8	1.05	11.1	11.8	10.6	…	…
Bahamas[3]	11-16	34	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*128.5***	*130.8***	*126.1***	*0.96***	…	…	…	…	*86.0***	*85.1***	*86.9***	*1.02***	…	…	…	…	…
Barbados	11-15	21	21	49.4	0.1	23.7	…	…	…	…	101.6	101.3	102.0	1.01	…	…	…	…	85.0	86.1	83.7	0.97	…	…	…	3.5	47.4
Belize	11-16	33	24	51.2	0.9	61.1	44.0	40.9	47.1	1.15	74.0	71.2	77.0	1.08	30.7	28.8	32.8	1.14	63.3	61.1	65.5	1.07	7.1	7.9	6.4	…	…
Bermuda[7]	11-17	…	5	51.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Bolivia	12-17	1 098	875	48.2	74.0**	58.0**	36.6	39.5	33.6	0.85	79.6	81.3	77.9	0.96	29.4	31.7	27.0	0.85	68.1**	68.9**	67.4**	0.98**	4.2	4.8	3.5	…	…
Brazil[w]	11-17	24 056	26 097	51.6	1 002.6	64.9	38.3	…	…	…	108.5	103.3	113.8	1.10	15.4	…	…	…	71.3	68.7	74.0	1.08	18.3	18.3	18.3	…	…
British Virgin Islands[7]	12-16	…	2**	49.8**	0.1**	35.0**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	8.3	9.9	6.7	0.7	63.2
Cayman Islands[7]	11-16	…	2	48.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.03	66.7
Chile[w]	12-17#	1 627	1 391	49.7	378.0	47.0	73.5	70.5	76.5	1.08	85.5	84.5	86.5	1.02	54.6	…	…	…	74.5	73.5	75.6	1.03	2.7	3.2	2.2	…	…
Colombia	11-16	5 110	3 569	51.5	…	…	49.8	46.8	52.8	1.13	69.8	66.6	73.2	1.10	…	…	…	…	56.5**	53.9**	59.3**	1.10**	4.0	4.7	3.4	6.4	76.5
Costa Rica	12-16	425	256	50.8	48.9	50.1	41.5	40.5	42.6	1.05	60.2	57.7	62.8	1.09	35.7	34.5	36.9	1.07	49.2	46.8	51.8	1.11	8.0	9.2	6.9	…	…
Cuba	12-17	990	837	50.0	226.8	41.8	88.9	83.0	95.0	1.14	84.5	82.6	86.6	1.05	68.9	64.3	73.6	1.14	82.2	80.3	84.2	1.05	1.5	2.1	0.9	21.3	80.9
Dominica[7]	12-16	…	7	52.2	1.0	32.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	12.2	17.6	7.8	0.7	61.4
Dominican Republic	12-17	1 117	664**	54.8**	36.9**	58.3**	…	…	…	…	59.5**	52.7**	66.5**	1.26**	…	…	…	…	40.2**	35.4**	45.2**	1.28**	3.0	3.9	2.2	…	…
Ecuador	12-17	1 630	936	49.7	185.2	54.8	55.3	…	…	…	57.4	56.9	58.0	1.02	…	…	…	…	48.1	47.2	48.9	1.04	4.3	5.0	3.6	21.7	55.0
El Salvador	13-18	793	430	…	…	…	26.4	25.6	27.2	1.06	54.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Grenada	12-16	13	8	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	62.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	45.5**	…	…	…	7.7	…	…	1.1	37.9
Guatemala	13-17#	1 362	504	46.9	144.8	50.8	…	…	…	…	37.0	38.5	35.4	0.92	…	…	…	…	26.2**	27.0**	25.4**	0.94**	3.6	4.0	3.0	…	…
Guyana[3]	12-16	77	…	…	…	…	78.6	76.2	81.1	1.06	*116.1*	*116.8*	*115.5*	*0.99*	66.6	64.6	68.6	1.06	*86.4*	*84.3*	*88.6*	*1.05*	*9.9*	*11.3*	*8.7*	…	…
Haiti	12-18#	1 468	…	…	…	…	20.6	21.1	20.2	0.96	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Honduras	13-18#	898	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Jamaica[w]	12-16#	273	228	50.5**	0.5	56.4	65.3	63.6	67.1	1.06	83.3	81.9**	84.8**	1.04**	63.6	61.7	65.4	1.06	74.4	72.8	76.0	1.04	2.2	3.0	1.4	36.0	…
Mexico[o]	12-17	12 424	9 357	50.5	1 413.2	55.9	53.2	53.0	53.5	1.01	75.3	73.4	77.3	1.05	44.8	…	…	…	59.7**	57.3**	62.1**	1.08**	2.2	2.9	1.6	…	…
Montserrat[7]	12-16	…	0.30	47.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.1	64.5
Netherlands Antilles	12-16	18	15	52.6	5.6	45.4	83.6	78.5	88.7	1.13	83.6	78.5	88.7	1.13	…	…	…	…	65.8	57.2	74.6	1.30	…	…	…	0.2**	76.1**

1. Includes both lower- and upper-secondary education (ISCED levels 2 and 3, respectively).
2. This corresponds to ISCED level 4. Like secondary education, post-secondary non-tertiary includes both general and technical and vocational programmes.
3. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.
4. In Estonia, some programmes have been reclassified in the ISCED mapping in the 2000 data submission.
5. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to inconsistencies between enrolment and United Nations population data.
6. National population data have been used to calculate enrolment ratios.
7. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.
8. Change in the calculation of enrolment ratios, from the age group 12-16 to 11-17.

Change in the school-age group between 1990 and 2000, with implications for the duration of secondary education. Therefore, indicators for 1990 and 2000 may not be comparable.

Table 7 (continued)

Country or territory	Age group	School-age population (000)	ENROLMENT IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (000)				GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (%)				GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (%)				NET ENROLMENT RATIO (NER) IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (%)								INTERNAL EFFICIENCY			POST-SECONDARY NON-TERTIARY EDUCATION	
			Total enrolment		Enrolment in technical and vocational education																		Repeaters in general secondary education (%)			Total enrolment	
			2000		2000		1990			GPI	2000			GPI	1990			GPI	2000			GPI	2000			2000	
	2000	2000	Total	% F	Total	% F	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	Total (000)	% F
Nicaragua	13-17	617	333	53.4	17.9	56.3	40.4	34.0	46.7	1.37	54.0	49.7	58.4	1.18	…	…	…	…	35.5**	32.6**	38.5**	1.18	5.5	6.5	4.7	…	…
Panama	12-17	339	234	50.5	100.0	49.1	62.6	60.5	64.7	1.07	69.2	67.3	71.1	1.06	50.8	48.2	53.4	1.11	62.2**	59.5**	65.0**	1.09**	4.7	4.9	4.4	…	…
Paraguay[w]	12-17	768	459	50.1	34.6	49.2	30.9	30.3	31.6	1.04	59.8	58.8	60.8	1.03	25.8	25.4	26.3	1.04	46.7**	45.3**	48.1**	1.06**	1.2	1.7	0.8	…	…
Peru[w]	12-16	2 775	2 376**	47.5**	…	…	67.3	…	…	…	85.6**	88.7**	82.4**	0.93**	…	…	…	…	65.4**	66.6**	64.2**	0.96**	5.4	6.3	4.3	260.2	66.0
Saint Kitts and Nevis[7]	12-16[#]	…	5**	54.0**	0.5	62.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	1.3	69.5
Saint Lucia[3]	12-16	15	13	57.2	0.4	51.5	53.0	43.3	62.8	1.45	88.8	76.9	100.4	1.31	…	…	…	…	70.8	61.7	79.7	1.29	*0.2*	*0.2*	*0.2*	1.0	55.0
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines[7]	12-16[#]	…	10	54.2	0.1**	37.1**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.9	56.5
Suriname	12-16[#]	48	42	53.1	19.6	47.6	52.1	48.5	55.8	1.15	87.0	80.0	94.3	1.18	…	…	…	…	61.0**	55.1**	67.2**	1.22**	…	…	…	…	…
Trinidad and Tobago	12-16	139	112	51.3	…	…	80.4	78.5	82.4	1.05	80.8	78.1	83.6	1.07	…	…	…	…	70.7	68.4	73.0	1.07	3.1	2.6	3.6	8.1	61.9
Turks and Caicos Islands[7]	12-16	…	1	53.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	2.8	3.4	2.4	0.4	65.8
Uruguay[w]	12-17	310	304	52.2	59.4	41.9	81.3	…	…	…	98.1	91.8	104.5	1.14	…	…	…	…	69.9**	66.3**	73.7**	1.11**	12.9	16.1	10.3	…	…
Venezuela	12-16[#]	2 602	1 544**	53.6**	41.7**	53.4**	34.7	29.2	40.3	1.38	59.3**	54.1**	64.8**	1.20**	18.6	14.9	22.4	1.50	50.4**	45.8**	55.1**	1.20**	9.8	11.5	8.4	…	…
North America and Western Europe																											
Andorra	11-17	5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Austria[o]	10-17	756	749	47.7	263.1	43.8	101.8	105.4	98.1	0.93	99.0	101.0	97.0	0.96	…	…	…	…	88.5**	88.9**	88.1**	0.99**	2.2	2.6	1.8	57.5	56.4
Belgium[o, 3]	12-17	730	…	…	…	…	101.8	101.4	102.2	1.01	*104.9*	*105.4*	*104.5*	*0.99*	86.7	85.3	88.2	1.03	*100.0***	*100.0***	*100.0***	*1.00***	…	…	…	47.1	54.0
Canada[o]	12-17	2 464	2 621	48.6	102.4	35.7	100.8	100.5	101.0	1.00	106.4	106.7	106.0	0.99	88.8	88.3	89.4	1.01	97.8**	97.6**	98.0**	1.00**	…	…	…	313.8	43.1
Cyprus[o]	12-17	69	64	49.1	4.5	16.3	72.1	71.4	72.8	1.02	93.4	93.0	93.9	1.01	69.0	68.2	69.9	1.03	88.3	87.3	89.3	1.02	1.9	2.9	1.0	…	…
Denmark[o, 3]	13-18	333	…	…	…	…	109.2	108.6	109.8	1.01	*128.2*	*125.3*	*131.3*	*1.05*	86.8	85.7	88.0	1.03	*89.5*	*88.2*	*90.8*	*1.03*	…	…	…	1.2	39.4
Finland[o]	13-18	392	493	51.4	170.5	49.5	116.4	106.3	127.0	1.19	126.0	119.7	132.6	1.11	93.0	92.2	93.9	1.02	94.6**	93.9**	95.4**	1.02**	0.4	0.5	0.3	…	…
France[o]	11-17	5 453	5 876	49.0	1 461.4	44.3	98.5	95.9	101.1	1.05	107.8	107.4	108.1	1.01	…	…	…	…	92.4**	91.4**	93.4**	1.02**	8.7	…	…	23.7	62.4
Germany[o]	10-18	8 431	8 388	48.4	1 740.5	43.0	98.2	99.5	96.9	0.97	99.5	99.9	99.0	0.99	…	…	…	…	88.8**	88.6**	89.1**	1.01**	3.3	3.9	2.7	…	…
Greece[o]	12-17	755	743	49.1	134.5	43.5	93.8	94.7	92.9	0.98	98.4	97.5	99.4	1.02	83.2	82.4	83.9	1.02	87.4	86.0	88.9	1.03	…	…	…	…	…
Iceland[o]	13-19	30	32	50.4	7.1	37.7	99.7	101.4	98.0	0.97	108.7	105.1	112.6	1.07	…	…	…	…	83.4	81.3	85.7	1.05	…	…	…	0.3	27.5
Ireland[o, 3]	12-16	314	…	…	…	…	100.2	95.9	104.7	1.09	*123.1*	*119.0*	*127.4*	*1.07*	79.7	77.8	81.6	1.05	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	48.1	54.8
Israel[o]	12-17	637	594	48.6	115.4	39.2	88.1	84.9	91.5	1.08	93.3	93.5	93.0	0.99	…	…	…	…	88.4	88.0	88.9	1.01	…	…	…	11.4	49.5
Italy[o, 3]	11-18	4 663	4 473	48.1	688.1	45.2	83.2	83.4	83.0	1.00	95.9	97.3	94.5	0.97	…	…	…	…	90.5**	90.1**	90.9**	1.01**	*3.2*	*4.0*	*2.5*	32.7	58.5
Luxembourg[o]	12-18	36	34	50.4	11.2	48.6	74.5	…	…	…	94.4	91.7	97.3	1.06	…	…	…	…	78.3	75.5	81.3	1.08	…	…	…	0.9	21.6
Malta[o]	11-17	40	36	47.9	4.3	25.1	82.9	85.3	80.2	0.94	90.0	91.2	88.7	0.97	78.4	78.5	78.3	1.00	80.0**	79.4**	80.6**	1.02**	0.7	0.9	0.5	0.7	13.5
Monaco	11-17	…	3	48.4	0.5	43.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Netherlands[o]	12-17	1 127	1 403	48.1	487.8	45.8	119.5	124.1	114.7	0.92	124.5	126.4	122.4	0.97	83.6	82.7	84.6	1.02	89.9**	89.8**	90.0**	1.00**	5.1	5.4	4.7	28.2	42.1
Norway[o]	13-18	323	370	49.3	119.7	44.6	103.0	101.4	104.6	1.03	114.6	113.4	115.9	1.02	87.7	87.0	88.4	1.02	95.0	94.6	95.5	1.01	…	…	…	6.7	24.0
Portugal[o]	12-17	716	813	50.3	114.4	44.4	67.2	62.3	72.2	1.16	113.6	110.5	116.9	1.06	…	…	…	…	85.2**	82.0**	88.5**	1.08**	2.0	2.0	2.0	…	…
San Marino	11-18	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Spain[o]	12-17[#]	2 753	3 183	50.0	432.2	49.8	104.1	100.9	107.5	1.07	115.6	112.7	118.7	1.05	…	…	…	…	93.7**	92.2**	95.4**	1.03**	…	…	…	75.3	49.8
Sweden[o, 3]	13-18	624	928	54.4	293.3	56.8	90.2	88.2	92.3	1.05	148.8	132.0	166.5	1.26	85.3	84.7	85.8	1.01	*96.1*	*94.4*	*97.9*	*1.04*	…	…	…	13.0	49.5
Switzerland[o, 3]	13-19	556	554	47.2	180.2	40.1	99.1	101.7	96.4	0.95	99.6	102.7	96.4	0.94	79.8	82.3	77.3	0.94	87.9	90.3	85.5	0.95	*2.1*	*2.2*	*1.9*	22.5	71.3
United Kingdom[o]	11-17	5 355	8 374	52.7	4 051.5	56.3	85.5	83.0	88.1	1.06	156.4	144.3	169.1	1.17	79.1	77.1	81.2	1.05	93.7	92.7	94.7	1.02	…	…	…	…	…
United States[o]	12-17	24 260	23 087	49.0	…	…	92.9	92.3	93.5	1.01	95.2	94.7	95.6	1.01	85.5	84.8	86.3	1.02	88.1	87.2	89.1	1.02	…	…	…	1 672.5	57.4
South and West Asia																											
Afghanistan	13-18	2 860	…	…	…	…	10.3	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Bangladesh	11-17	22 585	10 329	49.7	105.2	24.8	20.0	26.0	13.6	0.52	45.7	44.6	46.9	1.05	19.0	24.5	13.1	0.53	42.7	41.7	43.7	1.05	5.1	5.2	5.1	18.1	43.1
Bhutan[5]	13-16	197	23	44.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	11.1	10.3	12.1	2.6	35.6
India[w, 2, 8]	11-17	…	…	…	…	…	44.2	54.8	32.7	0.60	*48.7*	*56.7*	*40.1*	*0.71*	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*4.2*	*4.4*	*3.9*	…	…
Iran, Islamic Republic of	11-16[#]	11 644	9 091	47.0	758.1	34.9	58.7	66.9	50.0	0.75	78.1	80.7	75.4	0.93	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	7.8	10.9	4.5	413.6	60.8
Maldives[3]	13-17[#]	36	20	51.2	1.2	40.2	…	…	…	…	55.3	53.4	57.2	1.07	…	…	…	…	*31.4*	*29.5*	*33.3*	*1.13*	…	…	…	0.5	51.7
Nepal	11-15	2 666	1 350**	41.0**	19.5**	20.8**	34.2	46.7	20.7	0.44	50.6**	57.5**	43.2**	0.75**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	8.8	8.4	9.3	…	…
Pakistan	10-16	23 514	5 772*	38.9*	75.0*	22.7*	25.3	33.7	16.2	0.48	24.5*	29.1*	19.7*	0.68*	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Sri Lanka[w]	…	…	…	…	…	…	75.4	72.4	78.5	1.09	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Sub-Saharan Africa																											
Angola	10-16	2 270	400**	45.3**	79.1**	39.3**	11.8	…	…	…	17.6**	19.3**	16.0**	0.83**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Benin[3]	12-18	1 085	…	…	…	…	11.7	16.6	6.8	0.41	*21.8*	*30.1*	*13.5*	*0.45*	…	…	…	…	*17.4*	*23.8*	*11.0*	*0.46*	*25.2*	*26.1*	*23.6*	…	…
Botswana	13-17	197	156**	51.4**	4.2	28.4	42.9	40.8	45.0	1.10	79.1**	76.8**	81.5**	1.06**	33.7	30.8	36.5	1.18	59.0**	55.0**	63.0**	1.15**	0.7	0.4	0.9	12.6	47.1
Burkina Faso	13-19	1 951	199	39.2	17.4	50.8	6.7	8.8	4.6	0.52	10.2	12.4	8.0	0.64	…	…	…	…	8.0**	9.7**	6.3**	0.65**	25.4	24.5	26.8	…	…
Burundi	13-19	1 106	113**	43.8**	8.5**	31.9**	5.4	6.9	4.0	0.58	10.3**	11.6**	9.0**	0.77**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	32.7	27.9	38.7	…	…
Cameroon	12-18	2 496	…	…	…	…	27.6	32.2	22.9	0.71	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Cape Verde	12-17	60	46**	49.9**	…	…	20.6	…	…	…	75.9**	75.0**	76.7**	1.02**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	17.9	18.0	17.9	0.5	…

1. Includes both lower- and upper-secondary education (ISCED levels 2 and 3, respectively).
2. This corresponds to ISCED level 4. Like secondary education, post-secondary non-tertiary includes both general and technical and vocational programmes.
3. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.
4. In Estonia, some programmes have been reclassified in the ISCED mapping in the 2000 data submission.
5. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to inconsistencies between enrolment and United Nations population data.
6. National population data have been used to calculate enrolment ratios.
7. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.
8. Change in the calculation of enrolment ratios, from the age group 12-16 to 11-17.

Change in the school-age group between 1990 and 2000, with implications for the duration of secondary education. Therefore, indicators for 1990 and 2000 may not be comparable.

Table 7 (continued)

Country or territory	Age group	School-age population (000)	ENROLMENT IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (000) Total enrolment 2000 Total	% F	Enrolment in technical and vocational education 2000 Total	% F	GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (%) 1990 Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (%) 2000 Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	NET ENROLMENT RATIO (NER) IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (%) 1990 Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	2000 Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	INTERNAL EFFICIENCY Repeaters in general secondary education (%) 2000 Total	Male	Female	POST-SECONDARY NON-TERTIARY EDUCATION Total enrolment 2000 Total (000)	% F
	2000	2000																									
Central African Republic	12-18	592	…	…	…	…	11.7	17.0	6.7	0.39	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Chad[3]	12-18	1 235	…	…	…	…	7.0	11.8	2.3	0.20	*11.5*	*17.9*	*5.1*	*0.28*	…	…	…	…	*7.7*	*11.8*	*3.7*	*0.31*	*16.1*	*16.1*	*16.1*	…	…
Comoros	12-18	120	…	…	0.0	12.2	17.5	21.2	13.8	0.65	*20.6***	*22.6***	*18.5***	*0.82***	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Congo	12-18	471	197**	46.1**	20.3**	52.1**	52.2	61.5	43.3	0.70	41.9**	45.8**	38.1**	0.83**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	23.8	23.4	24.3	…	…
Côte d'Ivoire	12-18	2 857	664**	35.5**	…	…	21.1	28.4	13.7	0.48	23.2**	29.9**	16.5**	0.55**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	15.8	15.8	15.8	…	…
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	12-17	7 183	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Equatorial Guinea[3]	12-18	69	…	…	1.3	38.2	…	…	…	…	*31.0***	*43.4***	*18.6***	*0.43***	…	…	…	…	*26.2***	*36.7***	*15.8***	*0.43***	*15.1*	*8.4*	*31.0*	…	…
Eritrea	12-17	502	142	41.6	1.6	21.9	…	…	…	…	28.3	33.1	23.5	0.71	…	…	…	…	22.1	25.5	18.8	0.74	20.3	18.1	23.4	1.3	23.2
Ethiopia	13-18	8 307	1 495**	39.7**	8.6	23.4	14.0	16.0	12.0	0.75	18.0**	21.7**	14.3**	0.66**	…	…	…	…	12.7**	15.1**	10.3**	0.68**	12.2	10.0	15.5	6.2	40.0
Gabon	12-18	171	102**	48.3**	7.6**	34.5**	…	…	…	…	59.6**	61.4**	57.7**	0.94**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	21.7	22.0	21.4	…	…
Gambia	13-18	150	56	41.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	37.4	44.1	30.7	0.70	…	…	…	…	28.6	34.0	23.2	0.68	…	…	…	0.1**	97.8**
Ghana	12-17#	2 851	1 031	44.7	14.1	12.4	35.0	42.9	27.1	0.63	36.2	39.9	32.5	0.81	…	…	…	…	30.8**	33.1**	28.3**	0.86**	2.8	2.7	2.9	18.5	34.1
Guinea	13-19	1 282	…	…	…	…	9.5	14.2	4.7	0.33	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	21.1	21.6	19.8	…	…
Guinea-Bissau[3]	13-17	129	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*20.4*	*26.4*	*14.4*	*0.54*	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*18.8*	*17.8*	*20.5*	…	…
Kenya	13-17	4 083	1 251**	47.6**	16.6**	39.6**	23.8	27.4	20.2	0.74	30.6**	32.1**	29.2**	0.91**	…	…	…	…	23.1**	23.4**	22.8**	0.97**	…	…	…	…	…
Lesotho	13-17	226	74	54.1	1.3	55.0	26.4	21.2	31.5	1.49	32.8	29.8	35.8	1.20	…	…	…	…	20.6	15.6	25.7	1.65	8.5	7.7	9.2	0.5	30.9
Liberia[3]	12-17	457	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*22.5*	*26.6*	*18.4*	*0.69*	…	…	…	…	*20.3*	*23.7*	*16.9*	*0.71*	*1.8*	*1.9*	*1.6*	…	…
Madagascar	11-17	2 569	…	…	…	…	17.6	17.9	17.4	0.97	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	17.8	18.3	17.3	…	…
Malawi	12-17#	1 367	488**	42.7**	1.2**	3.5**	7.5	10.3	4.8	0.46	35.7**	40.5**	30.8**	0.76**	…	…	…	…	24.9**	27.0**	22.8**	0.85**	…	…	…	13.6	…
Mali	13-18	1 520	…	…	…	…	6.9	9.2	4.6	0.50	…	…	…	…	5.3	6.8	3.8	0.55	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Mauritius	12-18	137	105	47.8	10.0	21.3**	52.9	52.7	53.1	1.01	77.1	79.4	74.7	0.94	…	…	…	…	64.2	63.1	65.4	1.04	13.0	13.9	12.2	2.7	24.4
Mozambique	11-17	2 962	352	39.2	20.0	27.8	7.5	9.5	5.5	0.57	11.9	14.5	9.3	0.64	…	…	…	…	9.4	11.2	7.6	0.68	21.8	20.6	23.6	…	…
Namibia	13-17	201	124	52.8	…	…	40.5	35.9	45.1	1.26	61.7	58.0	65.5	1.13	…	…	…	…	37.7	31.8	43.8	1.38	10.7	9.5	11.8	2.1	31.5
Niger	13-19	1 686	108**	38.9**	5.9**	42.5**	6.4	8.9	3.8	0.43	6.4**	7.7**	5.1**	0.66**	5.6	7.8	3.5	0.45	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.1	15.0
Nigeria	12-17	16 364	…	…	…	…	24.7	27.9	21.5	0.77	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Rwanda	13-18	1 144	161	49.9	19.9	47.6	8.0	9.2	6.9	0.76	14.1	14.2	14.0	0.98	7.1	8.1	6.1	0.76	…	…	…	…	10.0	8.8	11.2	…	…
Sao Tome and Principe[7]	13-18#	…	11**	51.5**	0.2**	40.0**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.1	31.2
Senegal	13-19	1 472	263**	39.6**	…	…	16.2	21.2	11.2	0.53	17.8**	21.4**	14.2**	0.66**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	15.4	15.3	15.6	…	…
Seychelles[7]	12-16	…	8	50.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.0	0.1	0.0	1.8	58.3
Sierra Leone	12-17#	588	156	45.3	21.5	70.7	16.5	21.1	12.1	0.57	26.5	29.1	23.8	0.82	…	…	…	…	26.5	29.0	24.0	0.83	7.8	7.0	8.9	40.1	57.3
Somalia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
South Africa	14-18	4 743	4 142	52.4	198.3	42.0	66.8	61.9	71.8	1.16	87.3	83.4	91.2	1.09	…	…	…	…	63.0**	60.0**	67.0**	1.12**	17.0	17.7	16.4	…	…
Swaziland[3]	13-17	106	…	…	…	…	45.7	46.5	44.9	0.97	*59.9***	*60.0***	*59.8***	*1.00***	…	…	…	…	*43.7***	*40.3***	*47.2***	*1.17***	*12.5*	*12.5*	*12.5*	…	…
Togo	12-18	738	289**	31.1**	19.0**	27.3**	22.7	33.9	11.5	0.34	39.1**	53.8**	24.4**	0.45**	17.5	25.4	9.6	0.38	…	…	…	…	19.6	19.7	19.5	…	…
Uganda[3]	13-18	3 253	…	…	…	…	12.5	15.9	9.0	0.56	*15.2***	*18.5***	*11.9***	*0.64***	…	…	…	…	*12.0***	*13.9***	*10.1***	*0.72***	…	…	…	…	…
United Republic of Tanzania[3]	14-19	4 831	279**	44.8**	24.3**	31.4**	4.7	5.6	3.9	0.70	5.8**	6.4**	5.2**	0.81**	…	…	…	…	4.8**	4.9**	4.6**	0.94**	*0.2*	*0.2*	*0.1*	…	…
Zambia	14-18	1 203	283**	44.4**	6.9**	38.3**	20.1	…	…	…	23.5**	25.9**	21.1**	0.81**	…	…	…	…	19.1**	20.4**	17.7**	0.87**	13.2	12.1	14.7	…	…
Zimbabwe[w]	13-18	1 898	844	46.8	…	…	48.2	51.5	45.0	0.87	44.5	47.3	41.6	0.88	…	…	…	…	40.4**	42.0**	38.7**	0.92**	…	…	…	3.4	…
		Total	Total	% F	Total	% F	Median				Median				Median				Median				Median			Total	% F
World	…	736 457	…	…	…	…	56.0	55.3	56.8	1.03	77.5	75.4	79.6	1.06	…	…	…	…	69.9	66.3	73.7	1.11	5.1	6.6	3.6	…	…
Countries in transition	…	49 584	…	…	…	…	91.2	92.5	89.7	0.97	84.8	84.7	84.9	1.00	…	…	…	…	79.6	78.7	80.6	1.02	1.1	1.5	0.7	…	…
Developed countries	…	71 115	…	…	…	…	97.7	97.9	97.4	1.00	107.1	107.1	107.0	1.00	85.1	84.2	85.9	1.02	89.7	88.5	91.0	1.03	…	…	…	…	…
Developing countries	…	615 758	…	…	…	…	38.3	…	…	…	59.9	59.4	60.3	1.01	…	…	…	…	52.6	48.3	57.1	1.18	7.8	10.9	4.5	…	…
Arab States	…	38 082	…	…	…	…	49.2	59.8	38.1	0.64	69.5	68.6	70.5	1.03	…	…	…	…	60.5	59.6	61.5	1.03	8.5	11.0	5.9	…	…
Central and Eastern Europe	…	45 431	…	…	…	…	86.3	…	…	…	85.9	84.9	86.9	1.02	…	…	…	…	81.9	81.8	82.0	1.00	1.4	1.6	1.2	…	…
Central Asia	…	11 945	…	…	…	…	98.0	96.7	99.4	1.03	81.9	85.6	81.2	0.95	…	…	…	…	72.7	71.9	73.4	1.02	0.3	0.5	0.1	…	…
East Asia and the Pacific	…	214 919	…	…	…	…	48.7	55.3	41.7	0.75	77.3	73.8	80.9	1.10	…	…	…	…	67.9	65.4	70.7	1.08	…	…	…	…	…
Latin America and the Caribbean	…	65 052	…	…	…	…	53.1	48.1	58.1	1.21	80.8	78.1	83.6	1.07	…	…	…	…	65.6	61.9	69.4	1.12	4.7	4.9	4.4	…	…
North America and Western Europe	…	60 819	…	…	…	…	98.5	95.9	101.1	1.05	106.4	106.7	106.0	0.99	84.5	83.7	85.2	1.02	89.1	88.4	89.9	1.02	…	…	…	…	…
South and West Asia	…	214 340	…	…	…	…	34.2	46.7	20.7	0.44	49.7	55.0	45.0	0.82	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	7.8	10.9	4.5	…	…
Sub-Saharan Africa	…	85 868	…	…	…	…	17.5	21.2	13.8	0.65	26.5	29.1	23.8	0.82	…	…	…	…	23.1	23.4	22.8	0.97	15.6	15.5	15.7	…	…

1. Includes both lower- and upper-secondary education (ISCED levels 2 and 3, respectively).
2. This corresponds to ISCED level 4. Like secondary education, post-secondary non-tertiary includes both general and technical and vocational programmes.
3. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.
4. In Estonia, some programmes have been reclassified in the ISCED mapping in the 2000 data submission.
5. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to inconsistencies between enrolment and United Nations population data.
6. National population data have been used to calculate enrolment ratios.
7. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.
8. Change in the calculation of enrolment ratios, from the age group 12-16 to 11-17.

Change in the school-age group between 1990 and 2000, with implications for the duration of secondary education. Therefore, indicators for 1990 and 2000 may not be comparable.

Table 8
Participation in tertiary education

Country or territory	ENROLMENT IN TERTIARY EDUCATION: Total students enrolled (000) 2000 Total	Male	Female	Gross enrolment ratio (GER) (%) 1990 Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	2000 Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS BY ISCED LEVEL (%): Total 2000 Level 5A	Level 5B	Level 6	Female students (%) 2000 Level 5A	Level 5B	Level 6	FOREIGN STUDENTS (000) 2000 Total	Male	Female	Country or territory
Arab States																					**Arab States**
Algeria	…	…	…	11.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Algeria
Bahrain	…	…	…	16.7	13.8	19.9	1.44	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Bahrain
Djibouti	0.5	0.3	0.2	…	…	…	…	0.9	1.0	0.7	0.70	47.4	52.6	.	27.7	54.4	.	…	…	…	Djibouti
Egypt[w]	…	…	…	16.0	20.2	11.5	0.57	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Egypt[w]
Iraq[1]	*288.0*	*190.0*	*98.0*	…	…	…	…	*13.6*	*17.5*	*9.5*	*0.54*	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Iraq[1]
Jordan[w, 1]	*142.0*	*69.0*	*73.0*	24.0	22.7	25.5	1.12	*28.6*	*26.8*	*30.6*	*1.14*	*78.8*	*20.9*	*0.3*	*47.1*	*68.0*	*24.6*	…	…	…	Jordan[w, 1]
Kuwait	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Kuwait
Lebanon	134.0	64.5	69.6	…	…	…	…	42.3	40.5	44.2	1.09	88.3	10.8	0.9	53.7	38.9	32.0	14.8	7.1	7.7	Lebanon
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	287.1**	148.5**	138.6**	15.3	…	…	…	48.8**	49.7**	47.9**	0.96**	65.5**	31.9**	2.6**	48.7	48.0	42.0**	…	…	…	Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
Mauritania	9.0	7.5	1.5	3.0	5.1	0.8	0.17	3.7	6.1	1.2	0.20	94.5	5.5	.	16.6	20.0	.	…	…	…	Mauritania
Morocco	310.3	174.6	135.6	10.9	13.6	8.1	0.59	10.3	11.4	9.2	0.80	84.2	11.1	4.7	44.2	45.4	31.6	4.5	3.7	0.8	Morocco
Oman	19.3	8.1	11.2	4.2	4.5	3.9	0.87	8.5	7.1	9.9	1.40	98.5	…	1.5	58.5	…	22.2	…	…	…	Oman
Palestinian Autonomous Territories	80.5	42.3	38.2	…	…	…	…	28.5	29.1	27.9	0.96	93.8	6.2	.	46.8	57.1	.	0.4	0.2	0.1	Palestinian Autonomous Territories
Qatar	7.8	2.1	5.7	27.5	14.9	43.8	2.94	24.6	12.7	37.6	2.97	100.0	.	.	73.2	.	.	1.6	0.6	1.0	Qatar
Saudi Arabia[1]	…	…	…	13.0	14.3	11.7	0.82	*22.4*	*19.6*	*25.3*	*1.29*	*86.0*	*11.9*	*2.1*	*58.2*	*42.4*	*37.5*	…	…	…	Saudi Arabia[1]
Sudan	…	…	…	2.9	3.1	2.7	0.88	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Sudan
Syrian Arab Republic	…	…	…	18.8	22.3	14.9	0.67	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Syrian Arab Republic
Tunisia[w]	207.0	107.0**	100.0**	8.7	10.5	6.9	0.65	21.7	22.0**	21.4**	0.97**	80.7	12.4	6.9	49.3**	40.1**	49.3**	2.5	…	…	Tunisia[w]
United Arab Emirates	…	…	…	8.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	United Arab Emirates
Yemen	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Yemen
Central and Eastern Europe																					**Central and Eastern Europe**
Albania[o]	40.9	15.8	25.1	7.0	6.5	7.4	1.13	15.1	11.3	19.1	1.69	97.0	3.0	./.[2]	60.8	79.9	./.[2]	0.6	0.5	0.1	Albania[o]
Belarus	438.0	192.7	245.3	48.6	46.3	50.9	1.10	56.0	48.8	63.2	1.29	64.5	34.3	1.2	56.3	56.2	47.8	1.8	1.2	0.6	Belarus
Bosnia and Herzegovina[o]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Bosnia and Herzegovina[o]
Bulgaria[o]	247.0	107.9	139.1	31.7	30.2	33.3	1.10	40.8	34.8	47.1	1.35	92.0	6.6	1.4	56.1	61.2	49.6	8.1	4.8	3.3	Bulgaria[o]
Croatia	104.2	49.5	54.6	23.8	…	…	…	32.6	30.4	34.8	1.14	70.8	29.2	./.[2]	54.3	48.1	./.[2]	2.7	…	…	Croatia
Czech Republic[o]	260.0	129.7	130.3	16.7	18.4	14.9	0.81	29.8	29.2	30.5	1.05	82.5	10.7	6.8	48.8	69.2	35.5	7.8	4.3	3.5	Czech Republic[o]
Estonia[o]	57.8	23.1	34.7	26.1	25.2	27.1	1.07	57.5	45.2	70.2	1.55	85.4	12.1	2.5	57.9	76.4	56.1	0.6	…	…	Estonia[o]
Hungary[o]	330.5	149.5	181.1	14.4	14.0	14.8	1.06	40.0	35.4	44.9	1.27	95.9	2.0	2.0	55.0	57.3	40.7	11.2	6.3	4.9	Hungary[o]
Latvia[o]	102.8	39.3	63.5	24.9	21.9	28.1	1.29	63.1	47.7	78.9	1.65	88.2	10.6	1.2	63.2	51.1	55.5	7.9	…	…	Latvia[o]
Lithuania[o]	135.9	54.6	81.3	33.6	29.5	37.8	1.28	52.5	41.8	63.3	1.51	68.8	29.7	1.5	58.2	63.9	55.4	0.6	0.4	0.2	Lithuania[o]
Poland[o]	1 775.0	745.1	1 029.9	22.1	19.0	25.4	1.34	55.5	45.7	65.7	1.44	97.6	1.0	1.4	58.0	81.2	44.2	6.7	3.2	3.4	Poland[o]
Republic of Moldova	102.8	45.5	57.3	35.9	…	…	…	27.9	24.5	31.4	1.29	79.1	19.4	1.5	55.4	57.2	51.7	2.6	1.9	0.7	Republic of Moldova
Romania[o]	533.2	247.8	285.3	9.6	9.9	9.2	0.93	27.3	24.9	29.9	1.20	90.8	9.2	./.[2]	52.5	63.2	./.[2]	11.7	6.7	4.9	Romania[o]
Russian Federation[w]	7 224.0	3 178.6	4 045.4	53.3	47.0	59.9	1.27	64.1	56.1	72.3	1.29	65.6	32.7	1.7	56.7	54.8	43.8	64.1	…	…	Russian Federation[w]
Serbia and Montenegro	208.7	96.6	112.1	…	…	…	…	26.2	23.4	29.1	1.24	75.3	24.4	0.3	55.4	48.6	35.7	0.8	0.5	0.3	Serbia and Montenegro
Slovakia	143.9	70.1	73.8	…	…	…	…	30.3	29.0	31.7	1.09	90.4	4.2	5.4	50.8	77.9	38.3	1.7	1.0	0.7	Slovakia
Slovenia[o]	91.5	40.2	51.3	24.6	21.5	27.7	1.29	60.5	51.7	69.8	1.35	51.2	48.8	./.[2]	59.3	52.8	./.[2]	…	…	…	Slovenia[o]
The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia[o]	40.2	17.8	22.5	16.8	16.0	17.6	1.11	24.4	21.2	27.9	1.32	93.9	6.1	./.[2]	56.7	42.6	./.[2]	0.2	0.1	0.1	The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia[o]
Turkey[o]	1 607.4	948.4	659.0	13.7	18.0	9.4	0.52	23.6	27.1	19.9	0.73	74.8	23.8	1.4	40.0	43.7	35.6	16.7	12.2	4.5	Turkey[o]
Ukraine	…	…	…	48.1	47.5	48.7	1.03	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Ukraine
Central Asia																					**Central Asia**
Armenia[3]	68.7	31.2	37.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	98.0	.	2.0	55.0	.	36.6	…	…	…	Armenia[3]
Azerbaijan	163.3	83.4	80.0	24.0	28.5	19.3	0.68	22.5	22.6	22.4	0.99	73.3	26.1	0.6	41.7	69.8	34.2	…	…	…	Azerbaijan
Georgia	140.6	71.8	68.8	37.0	34.3	39.9	1.17	34.5	34.8	34.3	0.99	98.8	.	1.2	48.9	.	50.9	0.4	…	…	Georgia
Kazakhstan	445.7**	205.0**	240.7**	40.9	…	…	…	30.9**	28.2**	33.6**	1.19**	98.9**	.	1.1**	54.3	.	51.3**	…	…	…	Kazakhstan
Kyrgyzstan	190.5	93.7	96.8	14.9	…	…	…	41.1	40.2	42.0	1.04	99.1	.	0.9	50.7	.	62.0	…	…	…	Kyrgyzstan
Mongolia	85.0	31.3	53.7	14.3	10.0	18.8	1.88	32.7	23.9	41.6	1.74	93.9	5.0	1.1	63.0	68.5	59.4	0.2	0.1	0.1	Mongolia
Tajikistan	78.5	59.8	18.7	22.8	28.4	17.3	0.61	14.0	21.2	6.8	0.32	98.9	.	1.1	23.7	.	38.9	2.6	…	…	Tajikistan
Turkmenistan	…	…	…	22.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan	…	…	…	31.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Uzbekistan
East Asia and the Pacific																					**East Asia and the Pacific**
Australia[o]	845.0	386.5	458.5	35.9	33.2	38.6	1.16	63.3	56.5	70.3	1.24	74.1	22.6	3.3	55.8	50.2	47.1	105.8	56.0	49.8	Australia[o]
Brunei Darussalam	4.0	1.4	2.6	…	…	…	…	15.1	10.2	20.4	1.99	54.2	45.8	…	64.9	64.6	…	0.1	0.0	0.0	Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	25.4	18.5	7.0	0.7	…	…	…	2.8	4.1	1.6	0.38	100.0	.	.	27.3	.	.	0.0	0.0	0.0	Cambodia
China[w, 1]	…	…	…	2.9	3.8	2.0	0.52	*9.5*	*12.4***	*6.5***	*0.52***	*54.2*	*45.1*	*0.7*	*33.0***	*33.0***	*24.0*	…	…	…	China[w, 1]

1. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.
2. Data are included in ISCED level 5A.
3. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to inconsistencies between enrolment and United Nations population data.
4. National population data have been used to calculate enrolment ratios.
5. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.
6. Data are included in ISCED level 5B.

Table 8 (continued)

Country or territory	ENROLMENT IN TERTIARY EDUCATION: Total students enrolled (000) 2000 Total	Male	Female	Gross enrolment ratio (GER) (%) 1990 Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	2000 Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS BY ISCED LEVEL (%): Total 2000 Level 5A	Level 5B	Level 6	Female students (%) 2000 Level 5A	Level 5B	Level 6	FOREIGN STUDENTS (000) 2000 Total	Male	Female	Country or territory
Cook Islands	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Cook Islands
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Democratic People's Republic of Korea
Fiji	…	…	…	8.3	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Fiji
Indonesia[w]	3 018.0	1 725.0	1 293.0	9.4	…	…	…	14.6	16.4	12.7	0.77	75.4	22.8	1.8	41.6	47.5	34.4	0.4	…	…	Indonesia[w]
Japan[o]	3 972.5	2 190.5	1 782.0	30.7	37.0	24.1	0.65	47.7	51.4	43.9	0.85	72.9	25.5	1.6	37.9	65.9	26.1	63.6	34.8	28.9	Japan[o]
Kiribati	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Kiribati
Lao People's Democratic Republic	16.6	10.5	6.1	…	…	…	…	3.3	4.2	2.5	0.59	40.6	59.4	.	35.2	37.7	.	0.1	0.1	0.0	Lao People's Democratic Republic
Macao, China	13.9	7.6	6.3	24.1	36.3	16.3	0.45	52.1	56.4	47.6	0.84	81.4	18.2	0.4	38.6	71.7	28.8	7.6	5.3	2.3	Macao, China
Malaysia[w]	549.2	269.1	280.1	7.4	7.9	7.0	0.89	28.2	27.1	29.3	1.08	51.0	48.1	1.0	55.6	46.3	41.9	18.9	…	…	Malaysia[w]
Marshall Islands	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Marshall Islands
Micronesia (Federated States of)	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Micronesia (Federated States of)
Myanmar	553.5	202**	351**	4.4	…	…	…	11.5	8.4**	14.7**	1.75**	99.3	0.5	0.2	63.6**	32.9	63.5**	…	…	…	Myanmar
Nauru	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Nauru
New Zealand[o]	172.0	70.9	101.1	40.4	38.5	42.2	1.10	69.2	55.3	84.0	1.52	73.0	25.1	1.9	58.1	61.7	46.6	8.2	4.0	4.2	New Zealand[o]
Niue	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Niue
Palau	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	30.9	22.1	40.1	1.81	100.0	…	…	63.5	…	…	0.1	0.1	0.0	Palau
Papua New Guinea	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Papua New Guinea
Philippines[w]	2 432.0	…	…	27.8	23.0	32.7	1.42	31.2	…	…	…	90.0	9.6	0.5	…	…	…	2.3	…	…	Philippines[w]
Republic of Korea[o]	3 003.5	1 933.5	1 070.0	39.1	52.0	25.4	0.49	77.6	97.0	57.0	0.59	58.2	40.8	1.1	35.7	35.8	24.6	3.4	1.9	1.4	Republic of Korea[o]
Samoa	1.9**	1.0**	0.9**	…	…	…	…	10.9**	10.7**	11.2**	1.05**	8.1**	91.9**	.	43.7**	47.8**	.	…	…	…	Samoa
Singapore	…	…	…	18.0	21.4	14.6	0.68	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Singapore
Solomon Islands	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Solomon Islands
Thailand[w]	2 095.7	985.0	1 110.7	…	…	…	…	35.3	33.5	37.1	1.11	78.0	21.9	0.2	53.2	50.6	51.2	2.5	…	…	Thailand[w]
Timor-Leste	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Timor-Leste
Tokelau	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Tokelau
Tonga[1]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*3.8*	*3.3*	*4.3*	*1.28*	*30.2*	*41.8*	*28.0*	*30.9*	*93.4*	*23.5*	…	…	…	Tonga[1]
Tuvalu	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Tuvalu
Vanuatu	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Vanuatu
Viet Nam	749.9	434.6	315.3	2.0	…	…	…	9.7	11.2	8.2	0.74	71.0**	26.6**	2.4**	51.0**	19.0**	31.8**	0.7	0.5	0.1	Viet Nam
Latin America and the Caribbean																					**Latin America and the Caribbean**
Anguilla	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Anguilla
Antigua and Barbuda	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Antigua and Barbuda
Argentina[w, 1]	*1 601.0*	*614.0*	*987.0*	…	…	…	…	*48.0*	*36.4*	*59.7*	*1.64*	*73.7*	*25.9*	*0.4*	*58.5*	*70.8*	*60.0*	…	…	…	Argentina[w, 1]
Aruba[4]	1.6	0.6	1.0	…	…	…	…	29.5	23.6	35.2	1.49	26.1	73.9	…	77.9	54.5	…	…	…	…	Aruba[4]
Bahamas	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Bahamas
Barbados	8.0**	…	…	27.6	24.4	30.9	1.27	38.2**	…	…	…	49.4**	45.0**	5.6**	…	…	…	0.6	…	…	Barbados
Belize	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Belize
Bermuda[5]	1.9	0.9	1.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	100.0	…	…	55.0	…	…	…	…	Bermuda[5]
Bolivia	278.8	…	…	22.3	…	…	…	35.7	…	…	…	91.3	7.1	1.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	Bolivia
Brazil[w]	2 781.3	1 223.8	1 557.5	11.3	11.0	11.7	1.06	16.5	14.4	18.6	1.29	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Brazil[w]
British Virgin Islands	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	British Virgin Islands
Cayman Islands[5]	0.4	0.1	0.3	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	79.5	20.5	.	71.6	86.3	.	0.1	…	…	Cayman Islands[5]
Chile[w]	452.2	239.7	212.5	…	…	…	…	37.5	39.1	35.9	0.92	80.5	17.8	1.7	47.5	46.4	39.6	3.5	…	…	Chile[w]
Colombia	934.0	452.0	482.0	13.4	12.9	13.8	1.07	23.3	22.4	24.3	1.09	77.5	16.5	6.0	52.9	46.5	48.7	…	…	…	Colombia
Costa Rica	61.6	28.7	32.9	26.6	…	…	…	16.0	14.5	17.6	1.21	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Costa Rica
Cuba	178.0	85.4	92.6	20.9	17.4	24.6	1.41	24.7	23.1	26.4	1.14	72.1	…	27.9	60.5	…	30.5	8.6	…	…	Cuba
Dominica	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Dominica
Dominican Republic	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Dominican Republic
Ecuador	…	…	…	20.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Ecuador
El Salvador	118.5	53.3	65.2	16.8	19.8	14.1	0.71	17.5	15.6	19.4	1.24	75.4	15.4	9.2	53.5	63.0	55.3	0.6	0.2	0.3	El Salvador
Grenada	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Grenada
Guatemala	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Guatemala
Guyana	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Guyana
Haiti	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Haiti
Honduras	90.6	39.8	50.8	9.2	10.3	8.0	0.77	14.7	12.8	16.8	1.31	93.2	5.1	1.7	56.2	58.7	41.0	…	…	…	Honduras
Jamaica[w]	42.5	14.9**	27.6**	7.0	8.1	5.9	0.73	16.4	11.4**	21.5**	1.89**	33.6	60.7	5.7	64.9**	65.0**	65.7**	…	…	…	Jamaica[w]
Mexico[o]	2 047.9	1 043.4	1 004.5	15.2	17.5	13.0	0.74	20.7	21.1	20.3	0.96	96.9	2.6	0.4	49.3	41.6	38.5	1.9	…	…	Mexico[o]
Montserrat	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Montserrat
Netherlands Antilles	2.4	1.0	1.4	…	…	…	…	14.8	12.5	17.2	1.38	35.6	64.4	.	59.4	56.9	.	…	…	…	Netherlands Antilles

1. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.
2. Data are included in ISCED level 5A.
3. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to inconsistencies between enrolment and United Nations population data.
4. National population data have been used to calculate enrolment ratios.
5. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.
6. Data are included in ISCED level 5B.

Table 8 (continued)

Country or territory	ENROLMENT IN TERTIARY EDUCATION										DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS BY ISCED LEVEL (%)						FOREIGN STUDENTS			Country or territory
	Total students enrolled (000)			Gross enrolment ratio (GER) (%)							Total			Female students (%)			(000)			
	2000			1990			GPI	2000			2000			2000			2000			
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Total	Male	Female	(F/M)	Level 5A	Level 5B	Level 6	Level 5A	Level 5B	Level 6	Total	Male	Female	
Nicaragua	…	…	…	8.5	8.2	8.7	1.06	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Nicaragua
Panama[1]	…	…	…	21.9	…	…	…	*34.9***	*26.2***	*43.8***	*1.67***	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Panama[1]
Paraguay[w]	83.0**	35.7**	47.3**	8.5	9.0	7.9	0.88	16.5**	14.0**	19.1**	1.36**	66.0**	33.8**	0.2**	50.1	70.3	…	…	…	…	Paraguay[w]
Peru[w]	…	…	…	31.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Peru[w]
Saint Kitts and Nevis	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Saint Kitts and Nevis
Saint Lucia	…	…	…	5.1	4.2	5.8	1.38	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Saint Lucia
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines
Suriname	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Suriname
Trinidad and Tobago	8.6	3.4	5.2	6.8	7.6	6.0	0.79	6.5	5.1	7.8	1.53	83.5	15.1	1.4	58.8	67.5	47.6	1.2	0.7	0.5	Trinidad and Tobago
Turks and Caicos Islands[5]	0.0	0.0	0.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	.	100.0	.	.	75.0	.	…	…	…	Turks and Caicos Islands[5]
Uruguay[w]	97.5	35.1	62.4	30.7	…	…	…	36.1	25.6	47.0	1.83	73.5	23.9	2.6	60.3	75.2	64.0**	2.1	…	…	Uruguay[w]
Venezuela	681.2**	279.3**	401.9	29.2	…	…	…	29.1**	23.7**	34.6**	1.46**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Venezuela
North America and Western Europe																					**North America and Western Europe**
Andorra	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Andorra
Austria[o]	264.7	127.1	137.6	32.6	34.7	30.4	0.88	57.7	53.9	61.7	1.14	81.0	9.5	9.5	51.0	67.4	43.2	31.7	15.5	16.1	Austria[o]
Belgium[o]	359.3	169.5	189.8	38.4	39.0	37.9	0.97	58.0	53.8	62.4	1.16	47.0	51.4	1.6	49.2	56.7	36.0	38.2	19.4	18.7	Belgium[o]
Canada[o, 1]	…	…	…	93.1	83.7	102.9	1.23	59.2	50.8	68.0	1.34	*72.0*	*25.8*	*2.2*	*57.6*	*52.3*	*44.6*	…	…	…	Canada[o, 1]
Cyprus[o]	11.9	5.0	6.9	12.6	12.0	13.3	1.10	22.2	18.9	25.5	1.35	23.4	76.0	0.6	77.0	52.2	54.2	2.5	1.5	1.0	Cyprus[o]
Denmark[o, 1]	187.0	80.9	106.1	36.1	33.8	38.6	1.14	58.9**	50.3**	67.8**	1.35**	*53.7*	*43.9*	*2.5*	*51.5*	*64.4*	*41.6*	12.5	5.7	6.9	Denmark[o, 1]
Finland[o]	279.6	129.0	150.6	47.6	44.6	50.6	1.13	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	6.3	3.6	2.7	Finland[o]
France[o]	2 031.7	893.3	1 137.8	39.7	36.7	42.8	1.17	53.6	48.2	59.2	1.23	70.7	24.6	4.6	54.9	53.4	46.7	147.4	…	…	France[o]
Germany[o]	2 083.9	1 069.9	1 014.1	32.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	46.1	63.1	…	199.1	103.9	95.2	Germany[o]
Greece[o]	478.2	210.4	267.8	36.1	36.5	35.6	0.98	62.7	59.7	65.8	1.10	65.3	32.4	2.3	52.1	49.7	43.0	…	…	…	Greece[o]
Iceland[o]	10.2	4.5	5.7	24.8	20.8	28.9	1.39	48.7	35.7	62.0	1.74	91.3	8.2	0.5	64.4	45.4	38.0	…	…	…	Iceland[o]
Ireland[o]	166.6	75.4	91.2	30.7	32.3	29.1	0.90	47.5	42.0	53.3	1.27	60.5	37.6	1.8	56.7	51.9	45.2	8.2	3.9	4.3	Ireland[o]
Israel[o]	271.0	117.3	153.7	35.8	35.5	36.0	1.01	52.7	44.3	61.6	1.39	75.7	21.7	2.6	57.8	53.3	52.1	…	…	…	Israel[o]
Italy[o]	1 812.3	797.4	1 015.0	32.1	33.1	31.0	0.94	49.9	43.1	56.9	1.32	96.4	2.4	1.2	56.0	56.8	51.2	29.2	13.3	16.0	Italy[o]
Luxembourg[o]	2.5	1.2	1.3	…	…	…	…	9.3	8.5	10.1	1.19	58.4	41.6	…	46.1	63.1	…	…	…	…	Luxembourg[o]
Malta[o]	7.4	3.4	4.1	13.0	14.1	11.7	0.83	25.1	21.9	28.4	1.30	83.3	16.2	0.4	53.8	61.4	12.5	…	…	…	Malta[o]
Monaco	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Monaco
Netherlands[o]	504.0	249.5	254.5	38.7	42.2	35.0	0.83	55.0	53.3	56.8	1.07	97.0	1.4	1.5	50.6	54.6	43.0	16.6	8.4	8.2	Netherlands[o]
Norway[o]	190.1	77.5	112.6	42.2	38.7	45.9	1.19	70.0	55.8	84.8	1.52	90.5	7.0	2.5	61.1	42.1	39.2	8.8	4.7	4.1	Norway[o]
Portugal[o]	387.7	166.7	221	23.7	20.7	26.7	1.29	50.2	42.5	58.1	1.37	93.9	3.0	3.1	57.0	57.0	57.0	…	…	…	Portugal[o]
San Marino[1]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*13.9*	*86.1*	…	*58.8*	*57.7*	…	…	…	…	San Marino[1]
Spain[o]	1 833.5	871.5	962.0	37.0	35.5	38.6	1.09	59.4	55.2	63.7	1.15	85.7	10.9	3.4	53.4	49.0	39.6	39.9	18.0	22.0	Spain[o]
Sweden[o]	358.0	146.6	211.5	31.7	28.6	35.0	1.22	70.0	56.0	84.8	1.52	90.5	3.8	5.8	60.4	48.9	44.3	26.3	…	…	Sweden[o]
Switzerland[o]	163.4	93.6	69.7	24.8	31.3	17.8	0.57	42.1	47.2	36.8	0.78	71.2	20.6	8.2	43.7	41.8	36.1	27.8	15.5	12.2	Switzerland[o]
United Kingdom[o]	2 067.3	939.7	1 127.6	29.3	30.3	28.3	0.93	59.5	52.7	66.8	1.27	65.2	31.2	3.6	53.5	58.2	41.9	225.7	117.7	108.0	United Kingdom[o]
United States[o]	13 595.6	5 999.1	7 596.4	73.4	65.4	81.7	1.25	72.6	62.9	82.8	1.32	76.1	21.7	2.2	56.4	55.4	42.6	475.2	276.1	199.1	United States[o]
South and West Asia																					**South and West Asia**
Afghanistan	…	…	…	2.0	2.7	1.3	0.48	1.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Afghanistan
Bangladesh	878.5	581.3	297.3	4.0	6.5	1.3	0.20	6.6	8.5	4.6	0.55	99.8	.	0.2	33.9	.	23.9	…	…	…	Bangladesh
Bhutan[3]	1.8	1.2	0.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	23.5**	76.5**	.	31.9**	35.1**	.	…	…	…	Bhutan[3]
India[w, 1]	*9 404.0*	*5 852.0*	*3 552.0*	6.2	7.9	4.3	0.54	*10.5*	*12.5*	*8.3*	*0.66*	*98.6*	*0.8*	*0.6*	*37.8*	*34.3*	*35.9*	…	…	…	India[w, 1]
Iran, Islamic Republic of	733.5	387.2	346.3	10.1	13.4	6.5	0.48	9.9	10.3	9.5	0.93	79.3	19.2	1.5	50.6	35.0	24.5	1.0	0.8	0.2	Iran, Islamic Republic of
Maldives	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Maldives
Nepal	103.3	82.6**	20.7**	5.3	7.9	2.6	0.32	4.6	7.1**	1.9**	0.27**	99.3	.	0.7	20.0**	.	20.1**	…	…	…	Nepal
Pakistan	…	…	…	3.5	4.4	2.6	0.59	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Pakistan
Sri Lanka[w]	…	…	…	4.7	5.6	3.8	0.68	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Sri Lanka[w]
Sub-Saharan Africa																					**Sub-Saharan Africa**
Angola[1]	*8.0*	*5.0*	*3.0*	0.8	…	…	…	*0.7*	*0.8*	*0.5*	*0.63*	*100.0*	.	.	*39.0*	.	.	…	…	…	Angola[1]
Benin[1]	*19.0*	*15.0*	*4.0*	2.8	5.0	0.7	0.14	*3.6*	*5.8*	*1.4*	*0.24*	*82.1*	*17.7*	*0.2*	*18.9*	*24.4*	*22.6*	…	…	…	Benin[1]
Botswana	7.6	4.0	3.6	3.3	3.6	3.0	0.83	4.6	4.9	4.4	0.89	89.5	10.4	0.1	48.5	34.1	50.0	…	…	…	Botswana
Burkina Faso	…	…	…	0.7	1.1	0.3	0.28	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Burkina Faso
Burundi	6.3	4.6	1.7	0.7	1.1	0.4	0.36	1.2	1.8	0.7	0.36	66.2	33.6	0.2	28.7	24.4	7.7	…	…	…	Burundi
Cameroon	68.5	…	…	3.4	…	…	…	4.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Cameroon
Cape Verde	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Cape Verde

1. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.
2. Data are included in ISCED level 5A.
3. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to inconsistencies between enrolment and United Nations population data.
4. National population data have been used to calculate enrolment ratios.
5. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.
6. Data are included in ISCED level 5B.

Table 8 (continued)

Country or territory	ENROLMENT IN TERTIARY EDUCATION: Total students enrolled (000) 2000 Total	Male	Female	Gross enrolment ratio (GER) (%) 1990 Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	2000 Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS BY ISCED LEVEL (%): Total 2000 Level 5A	Level 5B	Level 6	Female students (%) 2000 Level 5A	Level 5B	Level 6	FOREIGN STUDENTS (000) 2000 Total	Male	Female	Country or territory
Central African Republic[1]	*6.0*	*5.0*	*1.0*	1.6	2.9	0.4	0.14	*1.9*	*3.3*	*0.6*	*0.19*	*77.8*	*10.0*	*12.3*	*14.1*	*10.3*	*34.9*	…	…	…	Central African Republic[1]
Chad[1]	*6.0*	*5.0*	*1.0*	…	…	…	…	*0.9*	*1.5*	*0.3*	*0.17*	*88.6*	*7.1*	*4.3*	*13.7*	*28.2*	*20.2*	…	…	…	Chad[1]
Comoros[1]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*1.1*	*1.3***	*0.9***	*0.73***	*64.3*	*35.7*	.	*33.8***	*56.5***	.	…	…	…	Comoros[1]
Congo	13.4	11.8	1.6	5.5	9.3	1.9	0.21	5.0	9.0	1.2	0.13	80.0	19.4	0.6	12.6	9.2	17.3	…	…	…	Congo
Côte d'Ivoire	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Côte d'Ivoire
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	…	…	…	2.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Democratic Rep. of the Congo
Equatorial Guinea[1]	…	…	…	1.9	3.3	0.5	0.14	*2.7*	*3.8*	*1.6*	*0.43*	*88.1*	*11.9*	.	*33.3*	*8.4*	.	…	…	…	Equatorial Guinea[1]
Eritrea	5.5	4.8	0.7	…	…	…	…	1.7	2.9	0.4	0.15	100.0	./.[2]	./.[2]	13.4	./.[2]	./.[2]	…	…	…	Eritrea
Ethiopia	87.4	68.7	18.7	0.8	1.3	0.3	0.22	1.6	2.5	0.7	0.27	100.0	./.[2]	./.[2]	21.4	./.[2]	./.[2]	…	…	…	Ethiopia
Gabon	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Gabon
Gambia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Gambia
Ghana	64.1	45.8	18.3	1.0	1.6	0.5	0.29	3.3	4.7	1.9	0.40	57.7	37.2	5.2	30.2	26.6	23.4	…	…	…	Ghana
Guinea	…	…	…	1.0	1.9	0.1	0.07	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Guinea
Guinea-Bissau[1]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*0.4*	*0.8*	*0.1*	*0.18*	./.[6]	*100.0*	./.[6]	./.[6]	*15.6*	./.[6]	…	…	…	Guinea-Bissau[1]
Kenya	98.6	55.6	43.0	1.6	2.4	0.9	0.38	2.9	3.3	2.5	0.77	47.0	49.6	3.4	49.3	39.0	31.9	…	…	…	Kenya
Lesotho[1]	4.4	1.6	2.8	1.3	1.1	1.6	1.37	2.6	1.9	3.3	1.76	*78.8***	*21.2***	-	*60.2***	*67.8***	-	0.1	0.1	0.1	Lesotho[1]
Liberia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Liberia
Madagascar	31.4	17.1	14.3	3.3	3.6	3.0	0.82	2.2	2.3	2.0	0.84	79.2	19.3	1.4	45.8	43.8	49.3	1.1	…	…	Madagascar
Malawi	…	…	…	0.6	0.9	0.3	0.34	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Malawi
Mali	…	…	…	0.6	1.1	0.2	0.16	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Mali
Mauritius	12.5	5.4	7.1	3.4	4.3	2.6	0.60	11.4	9.7	13.1	1.36	38.4	59.3	2.3	47.9	63.7	33.8	…	…	…	Mauritius
Mozambique	9.8**	5.5**	4.3**	…	…	…	…	0.6**	0.6**	0.5**	0.79**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Mozambique
Namibia[1]	*9.0*	*4.0*	*5.0*	…	…	…	…	*5.9*	*5.3*	*6.6*	*1.24*	*33.6*	*66.4*	-	*55.4*	*55.0*	-	…	…	…	Namibia[1]
Niger	13.4	10.1	3.3	0.7	13.4	10.1	…	1.5	2.2	0.7	0.34	84.3	14.9	0.7	23.9	30.0	25.0	…	…	…	Niger
Nigeria	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Nigeria
Rwanda	12.8	8.5	4.3	…	…	…	…	1.7	2.2	1.1	0.50	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.09	0.06	0.03	Rwanda
Sao Tome and Principe[5]	0.2	0.1	0.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	100.0	…	…	35.9	…	…	…	…	…	Sao Tome and Principe[5]
Senegal	…	…	…	3.3	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Senegal
Seychelles	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	Seychelles
Sierra Leone	8.9	6.4	2.5	1.3	…	…	…	2.2	3.1	1.2	0.40	43.9	56.1	…	16.0	38.8	…	…	…	…	Sierra Leone
Somalia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Somalia
South Africa	644.8	288.1	356.6	11.8	13.2	10.4	0.79	15.2	13.7	16.8	1.23	84.2	14.9	0.9	53.5	66.8	37.9	…	…	…	South Africa
Swaziland	4.8**	2.5**	2.2**	4.5	5.2	3.8	0.73	5.2**	5.5**	4.8**	0.87**	81.5**	18.5**	-	48.1**	41.7**	-	…	…	…	Swaziland
Togo[1]	*16.0*	*13.0*	*3.0*	3.0	5.2	0.8	0.16	*3.7*	*6.2*	*1.3*	*0.20*	*98.3*	*1.7*	./.[2]	*17.2*	*2.3*	./.[2]	…	…	…	Togo[1]
Uganda	63.2	41.7	21.5	1.2	1.7	0.7	0.39	3.0	3.9	2.0	0.52	57.2	42.7	0.1	37.1	30.3	…	…	…	…	Uganda
United Republic of Tanzania	…	…	…	0.3	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	United Republic of Tanzania
Zambia	24.6**	16.8**	7.8**	2.2	…	…	…	2.5**	3.4**	1.6**	0.47**	58.4**	40.8**	0.8**	37.7**	23.3**	14.4**	…	…	…	Zambia
Zimbabwe[w]	48.9**	30.6**	18.3**	5.4	…	…	…	3.9**	4.9**	3.0**	0.60**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Zimbabwe[w]
World[7]	…	…	…	14.3	10.0	18.8	1.88	22.9	22.5	23.4	1.04	79.4	19.9	0.7	52.3	56.5	…	…	…	…	World[7]
Countries in transition	…	…	…	24.0	28.5	19.3	0.68	32.6	27.2	38.2	1.41	90.4	4.2	5.4	55.4	57.2	51.7	…	…	…	Countries in transition
Developed countries	…	…	…	35.8	35.5	36.0	1.01	56.4	53.6	59.3	1.11	73.0	25.1	1.9	57.3	54.7	50.8	…	…	…	Developed countries
Developing countries	…	…	…	5.4	…	…	…	10.4	12.0	8.7	0.73	…	…	…	47.9	63.7	33.8	…	…	…	Developing countries
Arab States	…	…	…	12.4	…	…	…	22.1	20.8	23.4	1.13	86.0	11.9	2.1	48.7	48.0	42.0	…	…	…	Arab States
Central and Eastern Europe	…	…	…	24.6	21.5	27.7	1.29	36.3	32.9	39.8	1.21	86.8	11.3	1.9	56.2	58.7	48.7	…	…	…	Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia	…	…	…	23.4	…	…	…	31.8	26.1	34.0	1.30	98.8	.	1.2	50.7	.	62.0	…	…	…	Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	21.6	16.4	20.4	1.24	72.9	25.3	1.8	43.7	47.8	…	…	…	…	East Asia and the Pacific
Latin America and the Caribbean	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Latin America and the Caribbean
North America and Western Europe	…	…	…	34.2	35.1	33.2	0.95	55.0	53.3	56.8	1.07	73.9	23.8	2.4	54.9	53.4	46.7	…	…	…	North America and Western Europe
South and West Asia	…	…	…	4.7	5.6	3.8	0.68	6.6	8.5	4.6	0.55	99.3	.	0.7	33.9	.	23.9	…	…	…	South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa	…	…	…	1.6	2.4	0.9	0.38	2.5	3.3	1.3	0.48	80.0	19.4	0.6	34.8	…	…	…	…	…	Sub-Saharan Africa

1. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.
2. Data are included in ISCED level 5A.
3. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to inconsistencies between enrolment and United Nations population data.
4. National population data have been used to calculate enrolment ratios.
5. Enrolment ratios have not been calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.
6. Data are included in ISCED level 5B.
7. All values shown are medians.

Table 9
Tertiary education: field of study (%) and female share

Country or territory	General programmes		Education		Humanities and arts		Social sciences, business and law		Science		Engineering, manufacturing and construction		Agriculture		Health and welfare		Services		Not known or unspecified		Country or territory
	2000		2000		2000		2000		2000		2000		2000		2000		2000		2000		
	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	
Arab States																					**Arab States**
Algeria	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Algeria
Bahrain	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Bahrain
Djibouti	...	...	...	...	6.9	52.9	50.4	51.2	25.4	23.0	2.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	14.7	43.8	Djibouti
Egypt[w]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Egypt[w]
Iraq[1]	...	...	*22.9*	*50.7*	*20.3*	*24.7*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*6.0*	*34.5*	...	...	*28.1*	*32.1*	Iraq[1]
Jordan[w]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Jordan[w]
Kuwait	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Kuwait
Lebanon	...	...	2.3	93.5	19.6	68.2	41.2	54.0	15.2	40.1	11.3	20.0	0.4	44.3	6.6	63.2	2.5	35.2	1.0	60.4	Lebanon
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya[1]	...	...	*11.7*	...	*18.6*	...	*18.3*	...	*10.2*	...	*20.6*	...	*2.6*	...	*17.0*	...	...	...	*1.0*	...	Libyan Arab Jamahiriya[1]
Mauritania	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Mauritania
Morocco	...	...	5.0	49.4	25.3	50.5	44.8	43.3	15.3	32.2	5.3	34.4	0.7	22.3	3.4	61.3	0.2	55.0	...	...	Morocco
Oman	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Oman
Palestinian Autonomous Territories	...	...	10.3	69.7	14.3	67.5	28.2	34.6	11.0	46.9	5.2	25.4	0.3	19.4	10.1	47.1	0.2	29.5	20.4	46.5	Palestinian Autonomous Territories
Qatar	3.8	40.5	25.3	91.1	13.9	92.5	37.5	65.0	11.9	66.2	3.7	...	...	...	3.5	98.9	...	...	0.3	7.4	Qatar
Saudi Arabia[1]	*8.2*	*26.3*	*49.7*	*81.7*	*15.0*	*42.3*	*7.6*	*32.4*	*6.6*	*40.5*	*8.1*	*0.6*	*1.1*	*28.4*	*3.4*	*39.6*	...	...	*0.4*	...	Saudi Arabia[1]
Sudan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Sudan
Syrian Arab Republic	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Syrian Arab Republic
Tunisia[w]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Tunisia[w]
United Arab Emirates	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	United Arab Emirates
Yemen	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Yemen
Central and Eastern Europe																					**Central and Eastern Europe**
Albania[o]	...	...	35.9	77.5	8.6	70.4	34.8	49.2	2.0	63.5	6.6	24.0	2.7	33.4	8.1	72.4	1.2	56.4	...	...	Albania[o]
Belarus	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Belarus
Bosnia and Herzegovina[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Bosnia and Herzegovina[o]
Bulgaria[o]	...	...	10.6	76.9	9.3	66.9	39.6	60.9	4.8	55.1	21.4	36.9	2.1	43.0	6.1	63.9	6.0	40.9	0.1	52.6	Bulgaria[o]
Croatia	...	...	5.0	91.9	10.9	73.3	32.5	65.4	5.9	42.3	19.1	24.9	4.2	42.6	7.4	70.6	15.0	29.0	...	...	Croatia
Czech Republic[o]	...	...	12.2	71.7	8.3	59.6	24.3	56.0	14.0	24.0	16.0	25.8	3.9	47.3	12.5	73.1	4.4	35.5	4.4	62.7	Czech Republic[o]
Estonia[o]	...	...	10.1	87.6	11.4	74.6	39.3	60.6	8.7	38.9	12.7	28.1	2.3	45.2	9.8	85.7	5.8	45.0	...	...	Estonia[o]
Hungary[o]	...	...	14.8	72.3	8.9	63.6	36.6	60.4	4.8	31.7	15.5	20.1	3.6	46.1	7.9	74.3	7.9	52.6	...	...	Hungary[o]
Latvia[o]	...	...	18.0	83.3	6.7	77.1	49.9	62.1	6.4	38.8	9.9	24.9	1.7	44.7	4.4	83.6	3.0	41.2	...	...	Latvia[o]
Lithuania[o]	...	...	15.6	79.2	8.1	74.4	32.8	66.2	4.9	42.0	21.6	30.6	4.3	63.3	7.8	79.9	4.8	43.6	...	...	Lithuania[o]
Poland[o]	...	...	11.9	73.6	8.9	69.5	43.5	62.1	5.0	49.5	13.2	21.7	2.2	55.1	2.3	69.1	4.8	44.5	8.3	70.6	Poland[o]
Republic of Moldova	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Republic of Moldova
Romania[o]	...	...	1.6	50.9	10.9	66.6	43.2	60.2	5.0	59.8	20.4	26.6	3.8	41.7	6.3	64.7	3.0	51.6	5.7	65.4	Romania[o]
Russian Federation[w]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Russian Federation[w]
Serbia and Montenegro	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Serbia and Montenegro
Slovakia	...	...	17.6	73.8	5.5	52.8	26.5	57.5	7.7	31.9	20.6	27.1	4.1	36.5	10.7	73.6	7.2	37.4	...	...	Slovakia
Slovenia[o]	...	...	10.3	80.3	6.9	73.2	43.0	62.7	5.0	30.8	17.5	24.7	3.1	51.9	6.7	79.2	7.5	40.6	...	...	Slovenia[o]
The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia[o]	...	...	10.4	78.1	12.9	70.5	24.2	61.5	10.3	57.5	19.2	28.5	6.9	39.8	8.4	69.9	7.7	47.7	...	...	The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia[o]
Turkey[o]	...	...	18.1	47.5	8.7	50.9	26.6	43.3	10.4	40.1	19.4	21.7	5.0	35.5	8.4	54.8	3.5	34.3	...	...	Turkey[o]
Ukraine	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Ukraine
Central Asia																					**Central Asia**
Armenia	...	...	16.0	79.9	6.8	66.9	9.9	44.9	0.9	49.4	6.9	26.6	2.9	38.8	8.1	50.3	1.8	35.1	46.6	53.0	Armenia
Azerbaijan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Azerbaijan
Georgia	...	...	7.4	68.0	19.7	77.5	32.4	36.9	5.3	66.4	19.7	26.4	3.5	24.9	9.1	73.3	2.7	13.3	0.0	...	Georgia
Kazakhstan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Kazakhstan
Kyrgyzstan	...	...	20.4	80.4	7.2	66.6	40.5	44.2	6.4	65.0	11.2	28.8	1.7	15.9	3.3	62.0	7.2	11.8	2.1	52.8	Kyrgyzstan
Mongolia	...	...	13.7	76.8	12.2	68.7	36.1	66.7	6.0	53.9	17.2	47.5	3.4	58.5	6.0	84.4	5.3	32.0	...	...	Mongolia
Tajikistan	...	...	10.4	...	32.6	...	26.6	...	13.6	...	7.6	...	3.5	...	4.9	...	0.9	...	...	...	Tajikistan
Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Uzbekistan
East Asia and the Pacific																					**East Asia and the Pacific**
Australia[o]	...	...	8.2	75.9	14.9	66.4	32.9	54.3	12.3	37.3	11.6	18.4	2.0	43.4	13.3	75.0	3.8	57.0	1.0	52.4	Australia[o]
Brunei Darussalam	...	...	56.8	68.3	10.0	53.6	9.2	61.4	5.4	57.9	3.8	35.3	...	...	11.4	71.4	...	...	3.3	68.9	Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	...	...	1.3	32.4	11.5	32.8	58.0	30.6	12.3	16.1	2.8	5.5	2.9	10.3	3.7	28.2	1.5	38.2	6.0	23.0	Cambodia
China[w]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	China[w]
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Cook Islands
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Democratic People's Republic of Korea
Fiji	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Fiji

1. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.

Table 9 (continued)

Country or territory	General programmes 2000		Education 2000		Humanities and arts 2000		Social sciences, business and law 2000		Science 2000		Engineering, manufacturing and construction 2000		Agriculture 2000		Health and welfare 2000		Services 2000		Not known or unspecified 2000		Country or territory
	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	
Indonesia[w]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Indonesia[w]
Japan[o]	...	...	6.8	70.3	17.1	68.2	30.0	31.5	2.9	24.4	17.7	11.3	2.2	39.8	10.6	65.8	6.9	80.5	6.0	49.2	Japan[o]
Kiribati	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Kiribati
Lao People's Democratic Republic	...	...	19.8	44.3	17.2	43.6	10.4	30.8	1.4	28.1	10.0	11.5	8.8	17.2	3.1	51.6	4.2	23.2	25.2	46.0	Lao People's Democratic Republic
Macao, China	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Macao, China
Malaysia[w]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Malaysia[w]
Marshall Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Marshall Islands
Micronesia (Federated States of)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Micronesia (Federated States of)
Myanmar	...	...	0.7	*91.6*	32.2	*62.6*	22.9	*60.9*	36.6	*63.6*	5.4	...	0.8	...	1.4	...	0.0	...	...	...	Myanmar
Nauru	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Nauru
New Zealand[o]	...	...	12.1	79.8	19.9	63.0	29.3	55.4	12.2	43.8	6.7	29.5	1.4	42.2	10.0	79.9	4.2	55.5	4.0	50.8	New Zealand[o]
Niue	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Niue
Palau	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Palau
Papua New Guinea	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Papua New Guinea
Philippines[w]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Philippines[w]
Republic of Korea[o]	...	...	5.4	67.5	17.5	56.5	20.8	35.3	9.2	34.4	34.8	16.8	2.0	27.6	6.3	61.3	4.0	34.0	...	...	Republic of Korea[o]
Samoa	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Samoa
Singapore	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Singapore
Solomon Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Solomon Islands
Thailand[w]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Thailand[w]
Timor-Leste	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Timor-Leste
Tokelau	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Tokelau
Tonga	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Tonga
Tuvalu	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Tuvalu
Vanuatu	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Vanuatu
Viet Nam	6.2	53.7**	22.4	53.3**	3.7	65.1**	39.9	47.5**	...	...	18.4	13.7**	6.0	25.7**	3.4	39.4**	...	...	...	...	Viet Nam
Latin America and the Caribbean																					**Latin America and the Caribbean**
Anguilla	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Anguilla
Antigua and Barbuda	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Antigua and Barbuda
Argentina[w]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Argentina[w]
Aruba	...	...	12.9	84.3	...	...	43.3	71.3	...	...	26.8	12.1	...	...	16.9	92.1	...	...	...	...	Aruba
Bahamas	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Bahamas
Barbados[1]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*70.1*	...	*53.5*	...	...	...	...	...	*83.7*	...	*78.5*	...	...	Barbados[1]
Belize	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Belize
Bermuda	...	55.0	...	...	...	66.5	...	72.4	...	3.7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Bermuda
Bolivia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Bolivia
Brazil[w]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Brazil[w]
British Virgin Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	British Virgin Islands
Cayman Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Cayman Islands
Chile[w]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Chile[w]
Colombia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Colombia
Costa Rica	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Costa Rica
Cuba	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Cuba
Dominica	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Dominica
Dominican Republic	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Dominican Republic
Ecuador	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Ecuador
El Salvador	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	El Salvador
Grenada	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Grenada
Guatemala	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Guatemala
Guyana	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Guyana
Haiti	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Haiti
Honduras	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Honduras
Jamaica[w]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Jamaica[w]
Mexico[o]	...	...	13.0	65.8	3.6	56.7	40.0	55.4	11.8	41.8	17.5	22.3	2.1	27.7	7.9	60.7	1.5	55.2	2.5	49.4	Mexico[o]
Montserrat	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Montserrat
Netherlands Antilles[1]	...	...	*5.6*	*96.5*	*2.3*	*69.0*	*35.8*	*71.1*	...	...	*33.7*	*13.0*	...	...	*22.5*	*82.8*	...	...	...	...	Netherlands Antilles[1]
Nicaragua	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Nicaragua
Panama	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Panama
Paraguay[w]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Paraguay[w]
Peru[w]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Peru[w]
Saint Kitts and Nevis	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Saint Kitts and Nevis
Saint Lucia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Saint Lucia

1. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.

Table 9 (continued)

Country or territory	General programmes 2000		Education 2000		Humanities and arts 2000		Social sciences, business and law 2000		Science 2000		Engineering, manufacturing and construction 2000		Agriculture 2000		Health and welfare 2000		Services 2000		Not known or unspecified 2000		Country or territory
	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines
Suriname	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Suriname
Trinidad and Tobago	…	…	17.6	69.5	11.6	79.7	24.9	69.4	9.0	60.2	16.2	27.1	4.4	50.3	12.2	56.2	0.9	67.1	3.1	54.9	Trinidad and Tobago
Turks and Caicos Islands	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Turks and Caicos Islands
Uruguay[w]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Uruguay[w]
Venezuela	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Venezuela
North America and Western Europe																					**North America and Western Europe**
Andorra	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Andorra
Austria[o]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Austria[o]
Belgium[o]	…	…	12.0	70.2	11.0	59.7	33.4	52.5	9.8	30.8	11.4	18.5	2.2	45.9	18.4	71.7	1.6	52.6	0.2	66.0	Belgium[o]
Canada[o, 1]	…	…	*7.0*	*74.6*	*10.5*	*62.1*	*26.4*	*58.4*	*9.7*	*38.2*	*10.1*	*20.3*	*1.6*	*49.6*	*9.0*	*77.1*	*4.2*	*56.7*	*21.4*	*60.0*	Canada[o, 1]
Cyprus[o]	…	…	13.5	90.6	9.3	79.8	41.8	57.1	13.1	36.0	4.6	7.8	0.1	…	4.8	73.4	12.8	46.2	…	…	Cyprus[o]
Denmark[o]	…	…	11.0	68.5	17.5	64.9	23.3	47.2	9.9	33.2	10.5	26.2	1.7	51.7	23.9	81.0	2.1	26.0	…	…	Denmark[o]
Finland[o]	…	…	5.5	80.3	14.7	71.2	22.9	62.5	10.9	41.8	25.9	18.2	2.4	48.1	13.6	83.6	4.0	69.6	0.0	57.9	Finland[o]
France[o]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	France[o]
Germany[o]	…	…	7.6	69.3	16.4	63.8	27.2	45.2	13.6	32.6	15.5	18.8	1.5	46.2	15.8	71.7	2.3	53.8	0.1	51.0	Germany[o]
Greece[o]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Greece[o]
Iceland[o, 1]	…	…	*16.1*	*84.8*	*16.0*	*65.7*	*33.9*	*56.1*	*11.8*	*40.6*	*5.8*	*22.7*	*0.7*	*21.9*	*14.3*	*79.1*	*1.6*	*78.4*	…	…	Iceland[o, 1]
Ireland[o]	…	…	4.0	82.2	14.2	66.4	20.0	60.2	16.0	45.1	11.6	18.7	1.2	37.9	8.3	76.3	2.6	63.6	22.1	55.1	Ireland[o]
Israel[o]	…	…	17.3	84.7	12.7	67.4	34.7	61.6	11.7	36.9	19.6	26.9	0.5	52.8	2.6	67.2	…	…	0.9	58.3	Israel[o]
Italy[o]	…	…	6.0	84.0	16.3	74.5	38.9	56.7	7.5	49.6	16.5	26.5	2.0	42.5	11.1	62.9	1.4	48.5	0.1	62.8	Italy[o]
Luxembourg[o]	…	…	20.6	…	…	…	56.1	…	9.7	…	7.1	…	…	…	6.5	…	…	…	…	…	Luxembourg[o]
Malta[o]	…	…	22.0	70.9	11.5	54.9	35.4	49.9	4.8	31.6	6.2	23.3	0.6	36.6	19.1	62.1	0.4	44.8	…	…	Malta[o]
Monaco	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Monaco
Netherlands[o]	…	…	13.6	73.9	7.5	57.9	40.3	46.3	5.7	23.4	10.6	11.9	1.7	45.4	16.2	75.1	2.3	49.4	0.6	26.1	Netherlands[o]
Norway[o]	…	…	16.2	77.6	10.5	61.8	27.4	55.9	12.0	33.7	6.5	24.0	1.1	49.0	16.9	81.2	3.1	39.7	6.2	59.4	Norway[o]
Portugal[o, 1]	…	…	*14.4*	*79.9*	*8.0*	*67.3*	*35.6*	*59.7*	*9.4*	*40.8*	*17.9*	*29.5*	*3.1*	*54.9*	*7.6*	*73.8*	*4.1*	*49.3*	…	…	Portugal[o, 1]
San Marino	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	San Marino
Spain[o]	…	…	8.1	76.0	10.7	61.2	35.5	57.4	12.9	37.2	16.5	25.5	3.2	44.6	8.9	73.4	3.9	59.3	0.2	48.4	Spain[o]
Sweden[o]	…	…	13.2	77.3	12.9	65.5	25.6	61.2	10.9	45.4	19.1	29.3	0.9	54.2	15.6	80.6	1.7	60.2	0.2	73.3	Sweden[o]
Switzerland[o]	…	…	10.2	68.8	13.1	57.2	36.7	42.1	11.5	24.7	14.3	12.7	1.5	41.2	9.3	61.5	3.0	52.3	0.4	39.7	Switzerland[o]
United Kingdom[o]	…	…	8.0	70.7	17.5	59.7	24.1	52.4	17.4	40.0	10.5	16.6	1.2	54.0	20.1	78.2	1.1	62.8	…	…	United Kingdom[o]
United States[o]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	United States[o]
South and West Asia																					**South and West Asia**
Afghanistan	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Afghanistan
Bangladesh	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Bangladesh
Bhutan	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Bhutan
India[w]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	India[w]
Iran, Islamic Republic of	0.3	72.7	2.3	56.9	14.5	66.2	27.2	51.3	14.7	52.6	19.3	16.3	6.3	43.3	13.4	60.4	2.1	24.8	…	…	Iran, Islamic Republic of
Maldives	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Maldives
Nepal	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Nepal
Pakistan	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Pakistan
Sri Lanka[w]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Sri Lanka[w]
Sub-Saharan Africa																					**Sub-Saharan Africa**
Angola[1]	…	…	*34.6*	*42.7*	…	…	*37.0*	*37.3*	*9.7*	*37.6*	*8.6*	*20.5*	…	…	*7.4*	*57.5*	…	…	*2.7*	*27.3*	Angola[1]
Benin	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Benin
Botswana	…	…	24.4	55.3	22.6	57.7	29.4	47.4	15.6	26.4	4.7	22.2	0.7	15.1	2.4	63.5	0.3	46.2	…	…	Botswana
Burkina Faso	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Burkina Faso
Burundi	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Burundi
Cameroon	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Cameroon
Cape Verde	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Cape Verde
Central African Republic[1]	…	…	*9.1*	*6.6*	*32.7*	*15.4*	*18.9*	*14.5*	*13.3*	*13.2*	*1.7*	*2.8*	*0.5*	*11.8*	*23.8*	*19.0*	…	…	…	…	Central African Republic[1]
Chad	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Chad
Comoros	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Comoros
Congo	…	…	7.9	15.7	6.6	12.8	67.7	9.1	12.0	13.7	…	…	3.1	18.6	2.7	23.8	…	…	…	…	Congo
Côte d'Ivoire	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Côte d'Ivoire
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Democratic Rep. of the Congo
Equatorial Guinea	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Equatorial Guinea
Eritrea	35.2	15.5	18.5	8.8	7.0	16.4	12.8	22.8	8.8	9.0	8.2	4.9	5.8	11.0	3.6	11.5	…	…	…	…	Eritrea
Ethiopia	6.7	24.0	31.7	18.4	2.5	22.8	31.6	30.9	3.6	16.5	13.1	8.7	5.0	13.1	5.7	21.2	0.0	18.4	0.0	17.5	Ethiopia

1. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.

Table 9 (continued)

Country or territory	General programmes		Education		Humanities and arts		Social sciences, business and law		Science		Engineering, manufacturing and construction		Agriculture		Health and welfare		Services		Not known or unspecified		Country or territory
	2000		2000		2000		2000		2000		2000		2000		2000		2000		2000		
	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	
Gabon	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Gabon
Gambia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Gambia
Ghana	…	…	8.0	30.7	24.2	37.6	31.9	28.4	13.0	29.3	14.0	10.7	3.5	15.9	3.1	29.6	2.4	47.7	…	…	Ghana
Guinea	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Guinea
Guinea-Bissau	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Guinea-Bissau
Kenya	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Kenya
Lesotho	…	…	35.3	72.8	7.5	58.1	24.5	52.8	8.1	35.2	…	…	2.1	52.6	…	…	…	…	22.4	73.1	Lesotho
Liberia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Liberia
Madagascar	0.6	43.2	3.3	42.5	10.9	57.1	55.2	48.0	9.9	32.2	7.4	21.6	1.8	36.8	10.5	50.8	0.2	48.1	0.3	77.9	Madagascar
Malawi	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Malawi
Mali	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Mali
Mauritius[1]	…	…	*26.6*	*49.8*	*18.2*	*65.6*	*13.4*	*48.3*	*13.4*	*48.6*	*22.2*	*18.4*	*5.6*	*48.4*	…	…	*0.7*	*10.3*	…	…	Mauritius[1]
Mozambique	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Mozambique
Namibia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Namibia
Niger	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Niger
Nigeria	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Nigeria
Rwanda	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Rwanda
Sao Tome and Principe	…	…	49.2	25.8	21.0	60.5	29.8	35.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Sao Tome and Principe
Senegal	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Senegal
Seychelles	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Seychelles
Sierra Leone	…	…	43.3	32.7	18.1	31.0	11.0	21.4	6.8	27.4	0.9	25.0	15.3	19.6	4.0	28.5	0.7	34.5	…	…	Sierra Leone
Somalia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Somalia
South Africa	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	South Africa
Swaziland[1]	…	…	*28.2*	*51.2*	*16.3*	*59.5*	*32.9*	*46.3*	*5.1*	*40.4*	*6.9*	*5.8*	*4.6*	*29.5*	*5.2*	*99.2*	*0.4*	*27.8*	*0.5*	*18.2*	Swaziland[1]
Togo	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Togo
Uganda	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Uganda
United Republic of Tanzania	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	United Republic of Tanzania
Zambia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Zambia
Zimbabwe[w]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Zimbabwe[w]
World[2]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	World[2]
Countries in transition	…	…	12.2	71.7	8.9	69.5	34.8	49.2	5.9	42.3	17.2	47.5	3.5	24.9	7.8	79.9	4.8	43.6	…	…	Countries in transition
Developed countries	…	…	12.0	70.2	13.1	57.2	32.9	54.3	10.9	41.8	11.4	18.5	1.5	41.2	11.1	62.9	2.6	63.6	0.6	26.1	Developed countries
Developing countries	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Developing countries
Arab States and North Africa	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Arab States and North Africa
Central and Eastern Europe	…	…	12.2	71.7	8.9	69.5	36.6	60.4	5.9	42.3	19.1	24.9	3.8	41.7	7.9	74.3	5.8	45.0	…	…	Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia	…	…	13.7	…	12.2	…	32.4	…	6.0	…	11.2	…	3.4	…	6.0	…	2.7	…	…	…	Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	East Asia and the Pacific
Latin America and the Caribbean	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Latin America and the Caribbean
North America and Western Europe	…	…	12.0	70.2	12.7	67.4	33.9	56.1	10.9	41.8	11.4	18.5	1.5	46.2	13.6	83.6	2.3	53.8	…	…	North America and Western Europe
South and West Asia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Sub-Saharan Africa

1. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.
2. All values shown are medians.

Table 10
Teaching staff

Country or territory	PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION									PRIMARY EDUCATION								SECONDARY EDUCATION[1]									TERTIARY EDUCATION			
	Total teachers				Trained teachers (%)			Pupil/teacher ratio		Total teachers				Trained teachers (%)			Pupil/teacher ratio		Total teachers				Trained teachers (%)			Pupil/teacher ratio		Total teachers			
	1990		2000		2000			1990	2000	1990		2000		2000			1990	2000	1990		2000		2000			1990	2000	1990		2000	
	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female			Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female			Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female			Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F
Arab States																															
Algeria	…	…	1.7	88.2	…	…	…	…	28	151.3	39.1	169.6	46.6	…	…	…	28	28	127.0	39.0	157.7	47.8	…	…	…	17	19	…	…	…	…
Bahrain	0.3	100.0	0.7	99.9	…	…	…	26	21	3.1	48.2	4.6**	74.1**	…	…	…	19	17**	2.7	50.0	4.8**	55.5**	…	…	…	14	14**	0.6	29.3	…	…
Djibouti	…	…	0.0	100.0	…	…	…	…	24	0.7	37.1	1.2**	28.0**	…	…	…	43	36**	…	…	0.8**	18.3**	…	…	…	20	24**	…	…	0.04	15.0
Egypt[w]	8.0	95.4	17.3**	99.0**	85.7**	…	…	25	22**	279.3	51.6	352.9**	52.9**	…	…	…	24	22**	286.8	…	490.6**	40.4**	83.0**	…	…	18	17**	…	…	…	…
Iraq[2]	4.9	100.0	…	…	…	…	…	18	*15*	134.1	70.1	…	…	…	…	…	25	*21*	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	22	*20*	…	…	…	…
Jordan[w, 2]	1.9	99.9	…	…	…	…	…	23	*22*	36.9	61.7	…	…	…	…	…	25	…	6.9	46.9	…	…	…	…	…	15	…	…	…	…	…
Kuwait	2.3	100.0	4.2	100.0	…	…	…	16	14	7.0	61.4	9.5	84.9	…	…	…	18	15	…	…	23.3**	55.4**	…	…	…	10	10**	…	…	…	…
Lebanon	…	…	8.3	99.5	…	…	…	…	19	…	…	26.7	86.3	…	…	…	…	17	…	…	44.0**	52.1**	…	…	…	…	7**	…	…	9.5	30.1
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	…	…	2.4	100.0	…	…	…	…	7	85.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	14	…	…	…	63.0	…	…	…	…	15	…	…	…	11.6	13.2
Mauritania	…	…	0.3	98.5	…	…	…	…	…	3.7	17.8	8.6	23.7	…	…	…	45	42	…	…	2.7	10.0	…	…	…	17	28	0.3	…	0.3	…
Morocco[2]	39.8	20.3	41.5	46.0	…	…	…	20	18	91.7	37.2	136.6	40.8	…	…	…	27	28	79.7	29.2	…	…	…	…	…	15	*17***	…	…	17.7	22.2
Oman	0.2	100.0	0.4	100.0	…	…	…	20	19	9.6	47.0	13.4	58.0	…	…	…	28	24	6.9	37.4	14.4	49.4	…	…	…	15	18	0.9	…	…	…
Palestinian Autonomous Territories	…	…	3.5	98.4	…	…	…	…	20	…	…	12.9**	53.9**	…	…	…	…	31**	…	…	16.7**	49.8**	…	…	…	…	30**	…	…	3.7	13.3
Qatar	0.3	99.3	0.5	98.5	…	…	…	18	17	4.3	72.4	5.0	64.1	…	…	…	11	13	3.5	56.2	6.9**	65.4**	…	…	…	8	7**	…	…	0.6	33.6
Saudi Arabia	4.8	100.0	9.4	100.0	…	…	…	14	10	119.9	47.5	195.2	52.3	…	…	…	16	12	71.1	40.9	156.2	49.8	…	…	…	13	12	13.3	25.1	…	…
Sudan[2]	8.1	46.8	13.0	84.3	45.0	45.0	45.0	35	27	60.0	51.0	…	…	…	…	…	34	*27***	33.6	35.2	22.3	…	…	…	…	22	*23***	…	…	…	…
Syrian Arab Republic	3.1	98.2	4.9	98.8	…	…	…	27	25	97.8	64.1	117.5	67.6	…	…	…	25	24	54.1	41.4	62.8**	51.2**	…	…	…	17	18**	…	…	…	…
Tunisia[w, 2]	…	…	4.5	95.8	100.0**	…	…	26	*20*	50.6	44.8	60.5	49.8	…	…	…	28	23	33.1	31.8	61.9**	39.9**	60.7**	…	…	17	18**	4.6	21.6	11.4	35.2
United Arab Emirates	2.3	98.9	3.7	99.9	…	…	…	21	18	12.5	64.3	17.6	73.8	…	…	…	18	16	8.6	54.8	17.0	54.4	…	…	…	13	13	0.8	13.7	…	…
Yemen	0.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	15	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Central and Eastern Europe																															
Albania[o]	5.7	100.0	3.9	100.0	…	…	…	23	21	28.8	55.0	12.6	73.5	…	…	…	19	22	9.7	…	22.3	54.1	…	…	…	19	17	1.8	28.4	3.0	…
Belarus[2]	62.3	…	52.5	99.0**	…	…	…	7	5	…	…	32.2	99.2	100.0	100.0	100.0	…	17**	…	…	105.3**	78.3**	*92.9***	*90.9***	*93.5***	…	9**	40.4	…	40.5	…
Bosnia and Herzegovina[o]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Bulgaria[o]	28.8	100.0	17.5	99.8	…	…	…	11	11	62.5	77.3	21.2	91.5	…	…	…	15	18	27.3	61.1	57.2	76.6	…	…	…	14	12	23.7	39.5	21.5	…
Croatia[2]	5.6	…	6.4	99.7	80.6	94.1	80.6	13	13	23.3	75.3	10.7	89.4	*100.0**	*100.0**	*100.0**	19	18	13.9	…	37.0	65.7	*100.0**	*100.0**	*100.0**	13	11	6.6	…	7.7	35.0
Czech Republic[o, 2]	32.1	100.0	…	…	…	…	…	11	*18*	23.6	…	35.6	84.4	…	…	…	23	18	98.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	13	*14*	11.8	…	21.0	39.9
Estonia[o]	10.9	…	6.6	99.7	…	…	…	7	8	…	…	8.3	86.0	…	…	…	…	14	…	…	11.8	81.9	…	…	…	…	10	…	…	6.5	…
Hungary[o]	33.6	99.7	32.0	99.9	…	…	…	12	11	90.5	83.5	46.5	86.2	…	…	…	12	11	…	…	103.6	71.3	…	…	…	14	…	17.3	32.3	22.9	36.7
Latvia[o]	8.2	…	1.2	98.0	…	…	…	9	43	9.5	…	8.4	96.8	…	…	…	15	15	28.8	…	24.4	80.8	…	…	…	9	11	4.4	…	5.4	…
Lithuania[o]	22.0	99.9	11.6	99.5	…	…	…	7	8	11.3	93.6	13.3	98.1	…	…	…	18	16	…	…	37.7	78.6	…	…	…	12	11	11.4	…	12.9	…
Poland[o]	89.9	…	73.7	96.6	…	…	…	14	12	317.5	…	289.1	83.5	…	…	…	16	11	103.8	…	301.0	65.8	…	…	…	18	13	…	…	87.9	…
Republic of Moldova	28.1	100.0	8.5	95.2**	…	…	…	9	9	13.0	97.4	11.6	95.2	…	…	…	23	20	36.3	69.2	30.5	73.7	…	…	…	13	14**	…	…	7.3	51.7
Romania[o, 2]	37.0	100.0	34.0	99.9	…	…	…	20	18	57.1	84.0	…	…	…	…	…	22	*20***	157.5	61.1	…	…	…	…	…	18	*13***	13.9	28.0	28.0	39.0
Russian Federation[w]	770.0	…	608.7	98.7**	…	…	…	9	6	340.0	98.8	330.2	98.7	…	…	…	22	17	…	…	874.0**	76.0**	…	…	…	13	16**	…	…	542.1**	…
Serbia and Montenegro	…	…	11.9	…	95.1	…	…	…	14	…	…	19.2	82.2	100.0	100.0	100.0	…	20	…	…	56.4	61.2	100.0	100.0	100.0	…	14	…	…	11.6	38.2
Slovakia	18.6	…	15.6	100.0	…	…	…	12	10	…	…	15.4	93.2	…	…	…	…	19	…	…	53.9	71.4	…	…	…	…	12	…	…	12.3	38.5
Slovenia[o]	5.9	99.0	3.1	92.7	…	…	…	11	18	…	…	6.9	95.0	…	…	…	…	13	…	…	17.4	68.5	…	…	…	…	13	2.6	24.0	2.8	…
The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia[o]	…	…	3.0	99.1	…	…	…	…	12	13.0	…	5.7	68.3	…	…	…	21	22	4.2	…	13.6	50.7	…	…	…	17	16	2.1	…	2.7	…
Turkey[o]	7.1	99.6	…	…	…	…	…	17	…	225.9	43.3	…	…	…	…	…	30	…	159.4	38.7	179.1**	…	…	…	…	24	…	34.5	31.7	…	…
Ukraine	212.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	9	…	119.6	98.0	…	…	…	…	…	22	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	11	…	…	…	…	…
Central Asia																															
Armenia	12.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	9	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	7.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	11.3	46.9
Azerbaijan	18.5	100.0	11.1	100.0	…	…	…	7	10	…	…	40.5	83.6	…	…	…	…	17	…	…	122.9**	63.0**	…	…	…	…	8**	13.8	…	18.6	47.1
Georgia[2]	22.5	100.0	7.0	100.0**	*99.1*	…	*99.1*	7	10	20.5	92.3	17.7	92.2	*94.7*	*94.9*	*94.7*	17	16	82.9	60.2	…	…	*82.8*	*50.8*	*92.7*	7	*7*	15.6	…	14.5	49.8
Kazakhstan	92.6	…	20.5	…	…	…	…	11	7**	56.3	96.3	63.6	97.1	…	…	…	21	19	…	…	171.0**	84.2**	…	…	…	13	12**	…	…	29.6	58.5
Kyrgyzstan	…	…	3.6	100.0	44.7	…	44.7	…	13	22.1	80.5	18.8	95.1	48.4	48.9	48.4	16	24	…	…	50.1	68.5	…	…	…	14	14	…	…	10.0	36.9
Mongolia	3.7	…	3.1	99.4	98.4	…	…	26	26	5.9	89.7	7.8	92.5	92.9	92.8	92.9	28	32	16.5	61.9	12.3	85.8	88.7	87.6	89.2	18	21	2.7	42.5	6.6	49.0
Tajikistan	10.8	…	4.8	56.1**	…	…	…	10	11	23.8	48.6	31.2	60.1	…	…	…	21	22	…	…	54.6**	42.5**	…	…	…	…	16**	…	…	5.7	32.7
Turkmenistan	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Uzbekistan	89.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	15	…	73.8	78.7	…	…	…	…	…	24	…	302.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	11	…	23.1	…	…	…
East Asia and the Pacific																															
Australia[o]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	103.3	50.1	…	…	…	…	…	12	…	27.8	33.1	…	…
Brunei Darussalam	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	3.8	69.3	…	…	…	…	12	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.5	33.7
Cambodia	3.0	82.1	3.3	98.1	…	…	…	17	24	40.8	30.7	45.9	39.2	…	…	…	33	53	…	…	20.3	28.6	…	…	…	15	20	…	…	2.1	17.8
China[w, 2]	749.6	96.3	…	…	…	…	…	26	*26*	5 581.8	43.2	6 430.8	52.8	96.8**	…	…	22	20	3 631.5	31.1	4 792.8	42.6	…	…	…	14	19	…	…	679.9	45.4
Cook Islands[2]	…	…	0.0**	100.0**	*45.2*	…	*45.2*	…	14**	…	…	0.1**	86.1**	*95.1*	*95.0*	*95.2*	…	18**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…

1. Includes both lower- and upper-secondary education (ISCED levels 2 and 3, respectively).
2. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.
3. Policy change: implementation since 1999 of a programme aimed at improving the quality of education and the recruitment of teachers.

Table 10 (continued)

Country or territory	PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION									PRIMARY EDUCATION								SECONDARY EDUCATION[1]									TERTIARY EDUCATION			
	Total teachers				Trained teachers (%)			Pupil/teacher ratio		Total teachers				Trained teachers (%)			Pupil/teacher ratio									Pupil/teacher ratio		Total teachers			
	1990		2000		2000			1990	2000	1990		2000		2000			1990	2000	1990		2000		2000			1990	2000	1990		2000	
	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female			Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female			Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female			Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Fiji	0.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	20	...	4.3	...	4.0**	57.0**	...	...	...	34	29**	...	...	5.7**	49.0**	81.6**	80.4**	82.8**	...	17**	...	...	...	...
Indonesia[w]	92.4	...	102.5	98.1	71.3**	...	...	17	16	1 281.4	50.5	1 289.7	52.2	...	...	...	23	22	...	...	1 040.1	40.1	53.0**	...	...	13	14	...	...	217.4	40.8
Japan[o]	109.8	88.8	98.6	...	...	...	...	18	30	452.8	58.4	362.6	...	...	...	...	21	20	658.6	30.0	622.2	...	...	...	...	17	14	...	...	477.2	...
Kiribati[2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.5	57.4	...	...	...	...	...	29	*24***	0.2	32.0	...	...	...	...	...	12	...	...	...	...	...
Lao People's Democratic Republic	1.5	100.0	2.3	99.7	82.4	50.0	82.5	20	16	21.0	37.8	27.7	43.7	76.2	68.9	85.6	27	30	...	...	12.7	40.5	95.8	95.0	97.1	11	23	...	...	1.4	24.3
Macao, China	...	...	0.5	100.0	96.0	...	96.0	...	30	...	...	1.6	88.7	87.2	70.3	89.4	...	28	...	...	1.6	56.6	59.3	49.4	67.0	...	24	0.5	34.5	0.9	36.1
Malaysia[w, 2]	10.8	...	20.1	100.0	...	...	...	31	27	120.5	56.8	159.4**	64.6**	*95.9***	...	...	20	19**	75.3	51.4	120.0**	62.0**	52.7**	...	...	19	18**	10.2	...	20.5	38.1
Marshall Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Micronesia (Federated States of)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Myanmar	...	...	1.9**	...	...	...	...	...	...	111.5	61.8	148.2	74.0	85.4	85.4	85.4	48	32	100.0	71.0	75.3**	77.3**	...	...	...	13	31**	...	...	10.5	70.1**
Nauru	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
New Zealand[o]	...	...	7.5	98.7	...	...	...	...	...	17.7	78.6	23.0	80.6	...	...	...	18	16	...	...	34.5	57.2	...	...	...	15	13	11.3	33.6	11.3	...
Niue	...	...	0.01	100.0	...	...	...	...	*11*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Palau[2]	...	...	0.1**	98.4**	...	...	...	...	10**	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*11***	...	...	0.0	45.5
Papua New Guinea[2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*34***	13.1	32.3	...	...	...	...	...	32	*36***	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	22	*22***	...	...	...	...
Philippines[w]	9.6	...	19.7	96.9	...	...	...	41	30	317.0	...	362.4	87.3	...	...	...	33	35	121.9	...	148.0	76.4	...	...	...	33	36	...	...	94.0	...
Republic of Korea[o]	18.5	93.5	23.7	99.7	...	...	...	22	23	136.8	50.1	125.5	70.3	...	...	...	36	32	180.7	34.2	188.3	44.0	...	...	...	25	21	73.0	22.3	144.2	...
Samoa	...	...	0.1**	97.9**	...	...	...	...	22**	...	...	1.1**	72.2**	...	...	...	24	24**	...	...	1.1**	55.6**	...	...	...	...	20**	...	...	0.2**	40.6**
Singapore	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	10.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	26	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	18	...	...	...	...	...
Solomon Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	19	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Thailand[w, 2]	64.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	23	*25*	314.7	...	...	...	...	...	...	22	*21*	133.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	17	...	...	...	...	...
Timor-Leste	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tokelau	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tonga[2]	...	...	0.1**	100.0**	*62.8*	...	*62.8*	...	18**	0.7	68.9	0.8**	67.2**	*97.4*	*98.1*	*97.0*	24	21**	0.8	49.4	1.0**	...	*72.6*	...	...	18	...	...	...	0.1**	21.1**
Tuvalu	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.1	72.2	...	...	...	...	...	21	...	0.03	32.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu[2]	...	...	0.5**	81.6**	*74.3***	...	...	...	17**	...	...	1.6**	44.0**	*65.2*	*66.7*	*63.3*	27	22**	...	...	0.4**	46.8**	*78.0*	*79.3*	*76.4*	16	26**	...	...	...	...
Viet Nam	65.4	...	99.6	100.0	55.7	...	55.7	23	22	252.4	...	347.8	78.3	84.9	80.4	86.2	35	28	...	...	309.2	65.0	91.4	92.1	91.1	18	27	...	...	33.0	37.7
Latin America and the Caribbean																															
Anguilla[2]	...	...	0.03	97.0	54.5	100.0	53.1	...	14**	...	...	0.1	89.9	77.2	75.0	77.5	...	19	...	...	0.1**	64.6**	*50.7***	*70.8***	*40.0***	...	18**	...	...	...	...
Antigua and Barbuda[2]	...	...	...	...	*45.1*	...	*45.1*	...	*6*	...	...	...	...	*46.9*	*58.8*	*43.7*	...	*19*	...	...	...	...	*52.5*	*65.5***	*47.1***	15	*13*	...	...	...	...
Argentina[w]	...	...	59.6	96.0*	83.2**	...	...	...	21	...	...	244.4	89.1*	67.0**	...	...	20	...	...	...	311.3	69.0*	65.0**	...	...	...	12	...	...	112.7	54.4
Aruba	...	...	0.1	99.1	100.0	100.0	100.0	...	26	...	...	0.5	78.7	100.0	100.0	100.0	...	19	...	...	0.4**	50.5**	100.0**	100.0**	100.0**	...	15**	...	...	0.2	44.5
Bahamas[2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*9***	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*14***	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*26***	...	...	...	...
Barbados	...	...	0.2**	96.6**	81.7**	75.0**	81.9**	...	23**	...	...	1.5	76.9**	81.6**	74.4**	83.8**	18	16	...	...	1.2**	48.9**	71.5**	61.4**	82.0**	...	17**	...	...	0.6**	...
Belize	0.2	99.4	0.2	98.1	68.1	25.0	68.9	18	18	1.7	70.0	2.0	64.7	40.9	38.1	42.4	26	23	0.6	41.3	1.1	64.7	40.9	38.0	42.5	14	23	...	...	...	...
Bermuda	...	...	0.1	100.0	100.0	...	100.0	...	7	...	...	0.5	89.2	100.0	100.0	100.0	...	9	...	...	0.6	66.5	100.0	100.0	100.0	10	7	...	...	0.1	53.3
Bolivia	2.9	95.6	5.1	93.2	79.4	65.9	80.4	42	42	51.8	57.3	61.5**	61.2**	74.2**	70.0**	76.9**	25	24**	12.4	49.0	39.2**	52.0**	77.1**	74.1**	80.0**	18	22**	...	...	12.8	...
Brazil[w]	155.4	...	320.8	98.1	87.0**	...	...	21	19	1 260.5	...	815.1	92.6	91.9**	...	...	23	25	243.2	...	1 179.7	79.0	79.3**	...	...	14	22	131.6	40.6	183.2	40.8
British Virgin Islands	...	...	0.1**	100.0**	...	...	...	...	10**	0.1	...	0.2	89.2	...	...	...	19	17	...	...	0.2**	65.3**	...	...	...	12	11**	...	...	...	...
Cayman Islands[2]	...	...	0.0	100.0	...	...	*100.0*	...	14	...	...	0.2	85.0	*100.0*	*100.0*	*100.0*	...	15	...	...	0.2**	56.3**	*100.0*	*100.0*	*100.0*	10	10**	...	...	0.02	31.8
Chile[w]	...	...	18.6	99.1	90.5**	...	...	24	24	...	...	57.3	77.6	92.5**	...	...	29	31	...	...	51.2	63.3	87.7**	...	...	...	27	...	...	...	...
Colombia	...	...	53.4	94.1	...	...	...	24	20	141.9	...	197.4	77.3	...	...	...	30	26	...	...	185.6**	49.8**	...	...	...	20	19**	52.4	26.6	85.7	31.8
Costa Rica[2]	2.0	...	4.0	96.4	*92.1*	...	...	23	19	13.7	...	22.1	80.4	*92.7*	...	...	32	25	6.9	...	13.6**	53.1**	...	...	...	19	19**	...	...	...	...
Cuba	7.0	100.0	25.8	100.0	100.0	...	100.0	24	18	71.0	78.9	93.8	83.3	100.0	100.0	100.0	13	11	100.1	51.1	73.6	61.1	94.1	93.9	94.2	10	11	24.7	44.5	22.7	48.0
Dominica	0.1	100.0	0.1	100.0	*100.0*	...	*100.0*	22	18	0.4	80.6	0.6	80.6	68.3	59.8	70.3	29	21	...	...	0.4**	67.4**	31.6**	27.9**	33.3**	13	20**	0.03	32.4	...	...
Dominican Republic[2]	...	...	9.6**	94.0**	*59.8*	*57.6*	*59.9*	...	22**	20.9	...	34.2**	75.2**	...	...	...	...	40**	...	...	23.8**	57.5**	...	...	...	...	28**	...	...	...	...
Ecuador	6.3	...	13.8	87.1	83.6	74.3	84.9	18	15	61.0	...	84.8	67.9	86.9	86.8	87.0	30	23	...	...	79.2**	46.9**	73.4**	73.4**	73.4**	13	12**	12.9	...	15.3	...
El Salvador	...	...	7.6	...	...	...	...	...	27	...	...	36.7	...	...	...	...	...	26	...	...	7.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	4.2	26.0	7.3	32.2
Grenada	...	...	0.1	100.0	27.9	...	27.9	...	...	...	...	0.8	76.2	70.1	64.8	71.7	...	21	...	...	0.4**	61.5**	30.1**	30.2**	30.0**	27	19**	...	...	...	...
Guatemala	...	...	15.5	...	...	...	...	...	23	...	...	58.6	...	...	...	...	...	33	...	...	35.9	...	...	...	...	...	14	...	...	...	...
Guyana[2]	1.1	98.9	...	...	*37.6*	*13.6*	*37.8*	23	*17*	3.5	76.1	...	...	*51.4*	*51.5*	*51.4*	30	*26*	1.6	54.6	...	...	*61.9***	*50.0***	*69.5***	44	*20***	...	...	...	...
Haiti	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	24.1	44.7	...	...	...	...	...	36	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	19	...	...	...	...	...
Honduras	...	...	6.2	...	...	...	...	...	19**	25.5	73.4	32.1	...	...	...	...	...	34	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3.4	...	5.5	35.6
Jamaica[w, 2]	4.2	...	5.7	99.0**	67.0**	...	...	32	24	8.8	...	9.8	86.7**	79.5**	...	...	34	34	8.4	...	6.8**	...	86.0**	...	...	22	*19***	...	...	1.7	55.5
Mexico[o, 2]	105.0	98.5	...	...	...	...	...	26	*22*	471.6	...	542.7	63.3	...	...	...	31	27	402.5	...	452.1	45.3	...	...	...	17	21	134.4	...	208.7	...
Montserrat	...	...	0.01	100.0	100.0	...	100.0	...	12	...	...	0.02	90.0	95.0	100.0	94.4	...	21	...	...	0.0**	65.2**	...	...	...	13	13**	...	...	...	...
Netherlands Antilles	...	...	0.3	100.0	100.0	...	100.0	...	21	...	...	1.3	81.8	99.9	96.7	100.0	...	18	...	...	1.1**	52.1**	...	...	...	...	13**	...	...	0.3	46.4
Nicaragua	1.9	98.7	6.4	97.3	29.4	11.4	29.9	33	26	19.0	86.9	23.5	82.4	72.9	53.7	77.0	33	36	...	...	10.4*	56.5*	44.6*	38.8*	49.1*	33	32**	...	...	...	...
Panama	1.4	...	3.0	97.6	55.0	21.4	55.8	22	19	15.2	...	16.2	75.0	74.9	81.1	72.8	23	25	9.8	54.2	14.4	55.8	81.9	78.9	84.3	20	16	3.3	...	...	...

1. Includes both lower- and upper-secondary education (ISCED levels 2 and 3, respectively).
2. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.
3. Policy change: implementation since 1999 of a programme aimed at improving the quality of education and the recruitment of teachers.

Table 10 (continued)

Country or territory	PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION									PRIMARY EDUCATION				PRIMARY EDUCATION					SECONDARY EDUCATION[1]								TERTIARY EDUCATION			
	Total teachers				Trained teachers (%)			Pupil/teacher ratio		Total teachers				Trained teachers (%)			Pupil/teacher ratio		Total teachers				Trained teachers (%)			Pupil/teacher ratio		Total teachers			
	1990		2000		2000			1990	2000	1990		2000		2000			1990	2000	1990		2000		2000			1990	2000	1990		2000	
	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female			Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female			Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female			Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F
Paraguay[w]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	27.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	25	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Peru[w]	20.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	25	…	132.6	…	149.5	62.1	78.2**	…	…	29	29	86.2	…	114.4**	43.7**	76.1**	…	…	20	21**	41.8	…	…	…
Saint Kitts and Nevis	…	…	0.3	100.0	…	…	…	…	8	…	…	0.4	88.2	55.8	…	…	22	18	…	…	0.4**	58.2**	34.8**	…	…	15	14**	…	…	…	…
Saint Lucia	0.3	…	0.4	99.4**	…	…	…	16	12	1.1	82.6	1.1	84.1	…	…	…	29	22	…	…	0.7**	59.1**	…	…	…	19	18**	…	…	…	…
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	0.2	100.0	0.2**	98.8**	…	…	…	14	16**	1.1	66.7	0.8**	65.7**	…	…	…	20	24**	0.4	52.4	0.4**	60.5**	…	…	…	25	24**	…	…	…	…
Suriname	0.7	100.0	0.7	99.1**	100.0	100.0**	100.0**	25	22	2.7	84.1	3.3	82.3	100.0	100.0	100.0	22	20	2.5	62.0	2.7	58.1**	100.0	100.0**	100.0**	14	15	…	…	…	…
Trinidad and Tobago	0.1	100.0	1.8	100.0	20.4	…	20.4	14	13	7.5	70.3	7.9	74.5	78.1	79.7	77.6	26	20	…	…	5.5**	51.1**	55.4**	57.2**	53.6**	20	21**	…	…	0.5	31.9
Turks and Caicos Islands	…	…	0.1	94.6	…	…	…	…	14	…	…	0.1	87.8	100.0	100.0	100.0	…	18	…	…	0.1**	61.7**	…	…	…	…	9**	…	…	0.01**	36.4**
Uruguay[w]	1.5	…	3.7	…	…	…	…	30	28	15.8	…	17.4	…	…	…	…	22	21	…	…	20.8	…	…	…	…	…	15	…	…	11.2	…
Venezuela	26.1	98.7	…	…	…	…	…	24	…	177.0	74.5	…	…	…	…	…	23	…	30.8	51.4	…	…	…	…	…	9	…	46.1	…	…	…
North America and Western Europe																															
Andorra	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Austria[o, 2]	9.3	99.6	…	…	…	…	…	21	*16***	34.2	81.7	…	…	…	…	…	11	*13***	76.3	54.3	…	…	…	…	…	10	*10***	…	…	…	…
Belgium[o]	…	…	27.1	92.4	…	…	…	…	15	…	…	63.6	78.1	…	…	…	…	12	106.4	52.5	108.8	…	…	…	…	7	…	28.1	32.5	23.0	38.0
Canada[o]	15.5	69.8	28.6	68.1	…	…	…	31	18	154.7	68.7	141.0	68.1	…	…	…	15	17	164.1	53.5	147.9	68.2	…	…	…	14	18	61.7	26.1	133.5	41.2
Cyprus[o]	1.0	99.2	0.9	98.0	…	…	…	23	21	3.1	60.0	3.7	75.2	…	…	…	21	17	3.7	45.8	5.0	57.0	…	…	…	12	13	0.7	41.1	1.1	…
Denmark[o, 2]	…	…	45.4	…	…	…	…	…	6	…	…	39.9	64.0	…	…	…	…	10	…	…	43.9	48.1	…	…	…	…	*10*	…	…	…	…
Finland[o]	…	…	10.9	96.5	…	…	…	…	13	…	…	25.2	72.3	…	…	…	…	16	…	…	38.4	63.1	…	…	…	…	13	…	…	17.1**	45.1**
France[o]	…	…	132.4	79.8	…	…	…	…	18	…	…	204.7	79.8	…	…	…	…	19	441.5	57.3	506.3	59.9	…	…	…	13	12	…	…	127.2	45.7
Germany[o]	…	…	124.0	95.0	…	…	…	…	19	…	…	238.3	82.0	…	…	…	…	15	…	…	588.3	53.7	…	…	…	…	14	…	…	272.9	31.4
Greece[o]	8.4	99.8	10.1**	…	…	…	…	16	15**	43.6	52.2	50.0**	…	…	…	…	19	13**	60.3	53.2	79.0**	…	…	…	…	14	9**	…	…	23.9**	…
Iceland[o, 2]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*5*	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*11***	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*12***	…	…	1.7**	42.9**
Ireland[o, 2]	4.5	76.7	0.1	94.0	…	…	…	28	19	15.6	76.6	21.9	80.7	…	…	…	27	*22***	20.8	…	37.3**	57.9**	…	…	…	16	…	5.6	…	11.3	42.5
Israel[o]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	40.6	82.2	61.3	83.1	…	…	…	15	12	46.5	63.0	72.4	72.3	…	…	…	8	8	…	…	…	…
Italy[o]	108.3	99.1	123.4	98.1	…	…	…	14	13	265.6	90.6	262.7	94.8	…	…	…	12	11	589.7	62.3	441.2	64.8	…	…	…	9	10	55.8	…	80.8	39.3
Luxembourg[o]	…	…	0.8	97.2	…	…	…	17	18	1.8	50.8	2.8	66.5	…	…	…	13	12	…	…	3.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Malta[o]	0.7	100.0	0.9	99.1	…	…	…	16	11	1.8	79.3	1.8	85.8	…	…	…	21	19	2.7	35.6	3.6	51.1	…	…	…	12	10	0.3	10.7	0.6	…
Monaco	0.05	63.8	0.0	100.0	…	…	…	19	24	…	…	0.1	86.5	…	…	…	…	22	…	…	0.3	58.0	…	…	…	7	11	…	…	…	…
Netherlands[o, 2]	21.0	100.0	…	…	…	…	…	17	…	63.0	53.0	131.0	77.6	…	…	…	17	10	89.4	29.0	97.2	…	…	…	…	16	*15***	…	…	44.4	31.6
Norway[o, 2]	35.9	95.2	…	…	…	…	…	4	*5*	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	7	…	9.5	39.0	15.5	36.2
Portugal[o]	9.7	97.9	12.9	99.1	…	…	…	19	18	72.1	81.5	61.9	82.1	…	…	…	14	13	64.5	65.9	83.7	68.6	…	…	…	10	10	14.4	…	…	…
San Marino[2]	0.1	100.0	…	…	…	…	…	7	*8*	0.2	89.4	…	…	…	…	…	6	*5*	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*7*	…	…	…	…
Spain[o]	40.1	95.3	75.0	93.0	…	…	…	25	16	128.0	72.7	175.1	70.8	…	…	…	22	14	285.6	50.9	407.0**	52.0**	…	…	…	17	8**	65.7	29.4	119.3	38.0
Sweden[o]	…	…	35.5	97.2	…	…	…	…	9	92.8	68.9	68.9	79.9	…	…	…	10	11	…	…	66.9	56.0	…	…	…	…	14	…	…	30.9	39.1
Switzerland[o]	…	…	9.6	99.4	…	…	…	…	16	…	…	39.5	72.5	…	…	…	…	14	…	…	48.1**	39.7**	…	…	…	…	12**	…	…	27.3	26.6
United Kingdom[o]	30.9	95.5	49.0	97.1	…	…	…	26	24	229.1	78.0	252.7	81.6	…	…	…	20	18	…	…	471.4	59.1	…	…	…	11	18	86.2	20.9	96.5	33.9
United States[o]	…	…	337.5	94.7	…	…	…	…	22	…	…	1 638.0	86.5	…	…	…	…	15	…	…	1 522.6	55.6	…	…	…	…	15	833.8	35.2	1 029.8**	41.4**
South and West Asia																															
Afghanistan	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	15.1	58.7	11.7	…	…	…	…	41	43	7.4	44.4	…	…	…	…	…	25	…	1.3	24.1	…	…
Bangladesh	…	…	69.5	33.7**	…	…	…	…	39	189.5	19.4	309.3	33.7	65.0	64.2	66.4	63	57	130.9	9.6	269.2	13.5	…	…	…	27	38	22.4	12.7	47.1	19.0
Bhutan	…	…	0.02	50.0	…	…	…	…	22	…	…	2.1	34.5	94.8	94.8	94.8	…	41	…	…	0.7	34.2	95.0	95.1	94.7	…	33	…	…	0.2**	26.8**
India[w, 2]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*35*	1 636.9	28.7	…	…	…	…	…	47	*40**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	29	*34*	…	…	…	…
Iran, Islamic Republic of[2]	8.5	99.8	7.4**	97.0**	…	…	…	27	39**	298.8	52.9	321.0**	54.0**	96.5**	96.5**	96.5**	31	25**	216.3	40.6	194.0**	…	…	…	…	24	*23***	23.4	…	46.7	18.4
Maldives	…	…	0.4	93.9	47.2	24.0	48.7	…	31	…	…	3.2	60.4	66.5	67.7	65.6	…	23	…	…	1.3	29.3	…	…	…	…	15	…	…	…	…
Nepal[2]	…	…	11.8	35.9	…	…	…	…	22	71.2	…	97.9	25.3	*44.5*	…	…	39	37	22.8	…	45.7**	9.9**	…	…	…	31	30**	…	…	…	…
Pakistan	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	271.1	26.5	329.8*	37.1*	…	…	…	43	44*	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Sri Lanka[w]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	72.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	29	…	108.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	19	…	…	…	…	…
Sub-Saharan Africa																															
Angola	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	31.1	…	33.5**	40.8**	…	…	…	32	35**	…	…	19.8**	29.4**	…	…	…	…	20**	1.0	…	0.8**	20.4**
Benin[2]	0.6	54.8	0.8	71.7	…	…	…	23	30	13.6	24.7	19.7	19.9	*65.0*	*63.6*	*70.0*	36	54	…	…	7.0**	…	*37.4*	*36.8*	*41.5*	25	*23*	0.9	…	…	…
Botswana	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	9.0	79.8	12.1	80.6	89.2	83.3	90.6	32	27	3.7	39.9	9.4	45.8	87.4	88.2	86.6	17	17**	…	…	…	…
Burkina Faso[3]	0.2	85.0	0.5	66.4	…	…	…	28	29	8.9	27.0	19.0	22.9	80.4	80.1	81.4	57	47	…	…	6.4**	19.8**	…	…	…	27	31**	0.4	…	…	…
Burundi	…	…	0.2*	92.6*	…	…	…	…	33*	9.5	46.2	15.0*	54.0*	…	…	…	67	50*	2.0	21.2	5.5**	21.7**	…	…	…	22	21**	0.4	8.3	0.5	9.5
Cameroon	3.6	99.9	5.3	97.2	…	…	…	26	24	38.4	30.0	42.9	35.5	…	…	…	51	63	19.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	25	…	1.1	…	2.9	14.3**
Cape Verde	…	…	0.8	97.0**	…	…	…	…	25	…	…	3.2	64.5	…	…	…	…	28	…	…	1.0**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Central African Republic	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	4.0	24.9	6.2**	18.3**	…	…	…	77	74**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Chad[2]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	8.0	5.9	13.8	10.1	…	…	…	66	71	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	39	*32*	…	…	…	…
Comoros[2]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*26*	2.0	…	2.7**	16.5**	…	…	…	37	36**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	25	…	…	…	…	…

1. Includes both lower- and upper-secondary education (ISCED levels 2 and 3, respectively).
2. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.
3. Policy change: implementation since 1999 of a programme aimed at improving the quality of education and the recruitment of teachers.

Table 10 (continued)

Country or territory	PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION									PRIMARY EDUCATION							SECONDARY EDUCATION[1]								TERTIARY EDUCATION			
	Total teachers				Trained teachers (%)			Pupil/teacher ratio		Total teachers				Trained teachers (%)		Pupil/teacher ratio	Total teachers				Trained teachers (%)			Pupil/teacher ratio		Total teachers			
	1990		2000		2000			1990	2000	1990		2000		2000		1990	2000				2000			1990	2000	1990		2000	
	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female			Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female													
Congo[2]	0.6	100.0	0.7	99.6	*77.8*	…	*77.8*	9	14	7.6	32.4	9.9	41.1	*64.6*	*60.0*	*72.5*	65	51	6.9	…	7.7**	9.5**	…	…	…	27	26**	1.1	8.5	0.7	5.1
Côte d'Ivoire	…	…	2.1	80.3	90.8	90.4	90.8	…	20	39.0	18.8	44.4	20.5	99.1	99.1	98.7	37	46	…	…	23.2**	…	…	…	…	18	29**	…	…	…	…
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	…	…	1.6	87.7	…	…	…	…	25	114.0	24.0	…	…	…	…	…	40	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Equatorial Guinea[2]	…	…	0.6	81.5	…	…	…	…	28	…	…	1.8	25.7	…	…	…	…	42	…	…	0.1	…	…	…	…	…	*25***	0.1	12.1	…	…
Eritrea	…	…	0.3	97.5	64.7	50.0	65.1	…	38	2.9	45.3	6.7	40.6	70.5	80.1	56.5	…	45	…	…	2.7	10.5	62.0	61.2	68.3	…	52	…	…	0.3	12.2
Ethiopia	2.1	93.5	3.2	92.3	62.1	53.8	62.8	35	34	68.4	23.9	121.1	30.3	70.4	64.3	84.7	36	55	23.3	9.8	15.0	…	…	…	…	37	…	1.7	7.5	3.2	7.6
Gabon	…	…	0.5	98.1	…	…	…	…	30	…	…	5.4	47.8	95.3	95.8	94.6	…	49	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Gambia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	2.8	30.8	4.2	28.8	73.1	68.9	83.4	31	37	0.8	…	2.2	17.4	89.0	87.9	94.5	27	25	…	…	…	…
Ghana	…	…	26.5	91.2	23.9	18.3	24.5	…	24	66.9	35.8	75.1	34.8	68.6	59.4	85.9	29	33	…	…	55.5	22.7	73.8	69.9	87.3	19	19	1.5	…	3.5	12.4
Guinea	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	8.7	22.5	19.2	25.0	…	…	…	40	44	6.0	12.1	5.3	…	…	…	…	14	…	…	…	…	…
Guinea-Bissau[2]	…	…	*0.2*	*73.2*	*22.7*	*26.9*	*21.1*	…	*21*	…	…	…	…	*35.1*	*33.3*	*42.4*	…	*44*	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*21***	…	…	…	…
Kenya	22.0	99.1	42.6	55.0*	…	…	…	39	26	172.1	37.5	191.1**	42.0**	…	…	…	31	30**	…	…	48.0**	35.3**	…	…	…	20	26**	…	…	…	…
Lesotho	…	…	1.6	99.1	…	…	…	…	19	6.4	79.9	8.6	80.2	74.2	61.6	77.3	55	48	…	…	3.3**	51.0**	…	…	…	20	23**	…	…	0.4	…
Liberia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*36*	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.7**	16.1**
Madagascar	…	…	2.9**	98.0**	…	…	…	…	18**	38.9	…	46.5**	53.5**	…	…	…	40	50**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	21	…	0.9	26.7	1.4	30.1
Malawi	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	22.9	31.3	47.8	37.9	51.2	52.2	49.4	61	…	…	…	12.8**	19.8**	26.9**	26.1**	30.4**	28	38**	…	…	…	…
Mali	…	…	0.6	89.0	…	…	…	…	25	8.2	22.6	17.8	23.0	…	…	…	47	63	5.7	14.0	6.0	…	…	…	…	15	…	…	…	…	…
Mauritius	1.2	100.0	2.4	100.0	*100.0*	…	*100.0*	18	16	6.5	44.1	5.2	55.1	100.0	100.0	100.0	21	26	…	…	5.4**	48.2**	…	…	…	21	19**	0.4	19.6	…	…
Mozambique	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	23.1	…	36.2	25.9	…	…	…	55	64	4.7	…	10.4	…	…	…	…	34	…	…	…	…	…
Namibia[2]	…	…	1.3**	87.6**	*77.1*	*11.7*	*86.4*	…	27**	…	…	12.3	66.8	36.0	34.7	36.7	…	32	…	…	5.2**	46.3**	*64.4*	*60.7*	*68.7*	…	24**	…	…	…	…
Niger	0.3	100.0	0.6	98.3	100.0	100.0	100.0	37	21	8.8	32.6	15.7	33.1	84.1	85.7	80.9	42	42	2.8	17.7	4.6**	16.8**	…	…	…	28	24**	…	…	0.8	15.1**
Nigeria	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	331.9	42.9	…	…	…	…	…	41	…	141.4	32.6	…	…	…	…	…	21	…	…	…	…	…
Rwanda	…	…	0.5	85.8	…	…	…	…	35	19.2	46.3	28.7	51.1	…	…	…	57	51	2.8	20.2	…	…	…	…	…	14	…	…	…	1.3	15.0
Sao Tome and Principe	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.6	61.8	…	…	…	…	34	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.03	33.3
Senegal	0.7	75.2	1.4	82.2	100.0	100.0	100.0	26	22	13.4	…	22.8	22.1	100.0	100.0	100.0	53	51	…	…	11.2**	12.2**	…	…	…	22	23**	…	…	…	…
Seychelles	0.2	100.0	0.2	100.0	80.1	…	80.1	20	15	…	…	0.7	86.1	81.1	77.9	81.7	…	15	0.3	…	0.5**	52.5**	…	…	…	13	14**	…	…	…	…
Sierra Leone[2]	…	…	0.9	83.3	76.3	94.7	72.6	…	19	10.9	…	14.9	38.4	*60.7*	*62.7*	*57.6*	35	…	6.0	17.6	5.8	27.4	…	…	…	17	27	0.6	…	1.2	14.6
Somalia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
South Africa[2]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	222.5	75.2	*63.3*	*66.0*	*62.5*	…	33	…	…	140.9**	50.0**	…	…	…	…	29**	16.7	34.5	…	…
Swaziland[2]	0.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	19	…	5.1	79.2	6.5**	75.4**	*91.1*	*89.1*	*91.8*	33	33**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	19	…	0.4	37.6	0.4**	35.3**
Togo	0.4	100.0	0.6	93.0	61.3	82.2	59.7	29	16	11.1	18.8	27.5	12.5	80.0	82.2	64.5	58	34	4.5	11.8	9.3**	10.2**	…	…	…	28	31**	0.4	9.6	…	…
Uganda[2]	…	…	2.8	69.8	85.6	76.9	89.4	…	25	84.1	29.8	110.4	32.6**	…	…	…	29	…	…	…	31.0	…	…	…	…	17	*19***	1.6	…	4.1	19.2
United Republic of Tanzania	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	96.9	41.3	106.0**	45.3**	…	…	…	35	40**	7.9	24.3	…	…	…	…	…	21	…	…	…	2.2	14.3
Zambia[2]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	33.2	…	35.3	50.4	100.0	100.0	100.0	44	45	…	…	5.2	…	…	…	…	…	*29***	…	…	…	…
Zimbabwe[w]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	59.2	39.2	66.4	48.3	…	…	…	36	37	24.5	28.9	34.2	47.9	…	…	…	27	25	2.3	…	…	…
		% F		% F							% F		% F							% F		% F						% F		% F
World[4]	…	…	…	98.1	…	…	…	…	19	…	57.1	…	72.3	…	…	…	27	23	…	…	…	54.4	…	…	…	17	17	…	…	…	…
Countries in transition	…	…	…	99.6	…	…	…	11	11	…	83.8	…	91.9	…	…	…	21	18	…	…	…	71.3	…	…	…	14	13	…	…	…	…
Developed countries	…	97.9	…	97.2	…	…	…	19	16	…	76.6	…	79.9	…	…	…	17	14	…	…	…	57.5	…	…	…	12	12	…	…	…	39.1
Developing countries	…	…	…	98.1	…	…	…	…	22	…	46.2	…	61.5	…	…	…	31	28	…	…	…	49.8	…	…	…	19	20	…	…	…	…
Arab States	…	99.6	…	99.0	…	…	…	21	19	…	49.6	…	53.9	…	…	…	25	23	…	40.9	…	49.8	…	…	…	15	18	…	…	…	…
Central and Eastern Europe	…	…	…	99.5	…	…	…	11	12	…	83.8	…	90.5	…	…	…	20	18	…	…	…	71.4	…	…	…	14	13	…	…	…	…
Central Asia	…	…	…	100.0	…	…	…	10	11	…	85.1	…	92.3	…	…	…	21	20	…	…	…	68.5	…	…	…	13	13	…	…	…	47.1
East Asia and the Pacific	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	23	…	…	…	69.3	…	…	…	26	24	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	16	20	…	…	…	…
Latin America and the Caribbean	…	…	…	99.0	82.4	…	…	24	19	…	…	…	80.6	79.5	…	…	26	22	…	…	…	58.2	73.4	73.4	73.4	17	18	…	…	…	…
North America and Western Europe	…	98.5	…	97.1	…	…	…	19	16	…	76.6	…	79.9	…	…	…	15	14	…	…	…	57.9	…	…	…	12	12	…	…	…	39.1
South and West Asia	…	…	…	50.0	…	…	…	…	33	…	28.7	…	35.8	66.5	67.7	65.6	41	41	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	26	31	…	…	…	…
Sub-Saharan Africa	…	…	…	91.2	…	…	…	…	25	…	31.9	…	39.5	74.2	77.9	81.4	40	44	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	21	25	…	…	…	…

1. Includes both lower- and upper-secondary education (ISCED levels 2 and 3, respectively).
2. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.
3. Policy change: implementation since 1999 of a programme aimed at improving the quality of education and the recruitment of teachers.
4. All values shown are medians.

Table 11
Private enrolment and education finance

Country or territory	PRIVATE ENROLMENT AS % OF TOTAL ENROLMENT						EDUCATION FINANCE						EDUCATION FINANCE										Country or territory
	Pre-primary education		Primary education		Secondary education		Total public expenditure on education as % of GNP		Total public expenditure on education as % of total government expenditure		Public current expenditure on education as % of total public expenditure on education		Public current expenditure on primary education per pupil (unit cost) in current US$		Public current expenditure on primary education as % of GNP		Public current expenditure on primary education per pupil as % of GNP per capita		Public current expenditure on primary education as % of public current expenditure on education		Primary teachers' salaries as % of public current expenditure on primary education		Teachers' salaries as % of public current expenditure on education		
	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	
Arab States																									**Arab States**
Algeria	...	...	...	...	...	...	5.5	...	21.1	...	84.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Algeria
Bahrain	100.0	99.2	13.2	19.7	8.8	14.2	5.0	3.1	14.6	11.4	94.3	97.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	30.4	...	...	...	...	...	Bahrain
Djibouti	100.0	100.0	8.9	11.1	15.7	14.6	3.4	...	10.5	...	100.0	...	269	...	2.0	...	...	...	58.0	...	...	...	...	...	Djibouti
Egypt[w, 1]	86.6	48.5**	5.8	8.1**	...	*5.2***	4.0	...	...	...	86.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Egypt[w, 1]
Iraq[1]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*81.7*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Iraq[1]
Jordan[w, 1]	98.5	*99.6*	22.9	*30.0*	6.1	*16.5*	8.9	*5.0*	17.1	*20.6*	70.7	*86.8*	...	*210*	...	*1.9*	...	*12.6*	...	*43.4*	...	...	...	...	Jordan[w, 1]
Kuwait[1]	9.3	28.3	25.0	30.6	...	27.3**	3.5	...	3.4	...	...	...	...	...	1.5	...	...	...	43.1	...	...	...	...	...	Kuwait[1]
Lebanon[1]	...	74.3	...	63.6	...	51.1	...	2.9	...	11.1	...	96.3	...	*388***	...	*0.9***	...	*7.6*	...	*49.6***	...	...	...	...	Lebanon[1]
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya[1]	...	5.3	...	2.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*68.4*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*12.1***	...	...	...	...	Libyan Arab Jamahiriya[1]
Mauritania[1]	...	...	0.7	*2.8*	2.5	...	...	*3.6***	...	...	...	...	...	...	1.3	...	16.1	*4.7*	33.3	...	...	...	...	...	Mauritania[1]
Morocco[1]	100.0	100.0	3.6	4.6	2.7	*5.0*	5.5	5.6**	26.1	...	90.8	88.7**	...	203**	...	2.4**	...	18.6	34.8	48.0**	...	...	...	...	Morocco[1]
Oman[1]	100.0	100.0	1.7	4.5	0.7	0.9	3.5	...	11.1	...	92.0	*89.3***	628	*663*	1.7	...	11.9	...	54.1	*37.4***	...	...	...	...	Oman[1]
Palestinian Autonomous Territories	100.0	99.9	...	8.9	...	4.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Palestinian Autonomous Territories
Qatar	100.0	100.0	23.4	39.3	12.3	28.8	3.4	...	...	...	97.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Qatar
Saudi Arabia	78.7	48.5	4.1	6.6	2.8	6.3	6.0	...	17.8	...	94.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	78.8	...	...	...	...	...	Saudi Arabia
Sudan	...	90.4	1.0	4.2	21.0	17.2	0.6	...	2.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Sudan
Syrian Arab Republic	61.2	66.1	3.5	4.3	5.6	4.8	4.3	4.4	17.3	11.1	...	84.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	38.5	...	...	...	...	...	Syrian Arab Republic
Tunisia[w]	...	*84.6*	0.5	0.8	12.0	7.6	6.2	7.2**	13.5	17.4**	87.8	85.5**	...	317**	...	2.3**	...	16.2	39.8	38.3**	...	...	...	...	Tunisia[w]
United Arab Emirates[1]	63.8	69.5	32.2	46.5	20.6	33.7	1.7	...	14.6	...	95.4	*92.3***	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	United Arab Emirates[1]
Yemen	...	32.4**	...	1.3**	...	...	...	10.6	...	32.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Yemen
Central and Eastern Europe																									**Central and Eastern Europe**
Albania[o]	...	2.2	...	2.2	...	...	5.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Albania[o]
Belarus[1]	...	...	...	0.1**	...	0.1	4.9	*6.0*	...	...	84.0	...	...	...	1.6	...	...	...	38.1	...	...	...	...	...	Belarus[1]
Bosnia and Herzegovina[o]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Bosnia and Herzegovina[o]
Bulgaria[o]	...	0.2	...	0.3	...	0.7	5.6	...	...	...	92.6	...	...	...	2.6	...	24.0	...	50.5	...	...	...	...	...	Bulgaria[o]
Croatia[1]	...	6.3	...	0.2	...	0.9	7.2	*4.3***	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Croatia[1]
Czech Republic[o]	...	1.5	...	0.9	...	6.3	...	4.5	...	9.7	...	91.7**	...	594**	...	0.7**	...	12.2	...	18.2**	...	46.4**	...	41	Czech Republic[o]
Estonia[o, 1]	...	1.1	...	1.8	...	1.4	...	*7.6*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Estonia[o, 1]
Hungary[o]	0.1	3.6	...	5.1	...	...	6.1	5.2	7.8	14.1	90.4	90.7**	646	850**	2.3	0.9**	21.2	19.2	41.8	20.0**	...	...	...	...	Hungary[o]
Latvia[o]	...	1.4	...	0.9	...	1.0	3.8	5.9	10.8	...	91.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Latvia[o]
Lithuania[o]	...	0.3	...	0.3	...	0.2	4.6	...	13.8	...	93.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Lithuania[o]
Poland[o]	0.0	4.4	0.1	0.9	0.4	5.0	...	5.3	...	12.2	...	92.9**	...	1114**	1.8	2.3**	...	27.4	32.9	46.7**	...	...	...	...	Poland[o]
Republic of Moldova	...	...	...	...	...	...	5.6	3.8	17.2	15.0	78.9	94.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Republic of Moldova
Romania[o, 1]	...	0.7	...	0.1	...	0.5	2.8	*3.6***	7.3	...	98.4	...	...	...	1.2	...	23.1	...	45.0	...	...	...	...	...	Romania[o, 1]
Russian Federation[w]	...	...	...	0.4	...	0.3	3.5	3.1	...	10.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Russian Federation[w]
Serbia and Montenegro[1]	...	...	...	...	...	0.0	...	*5.1***	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Serbia and Montenegro[1]
Slovakia[1]	...	0.5	...	3.9	...	5.6	5.1	4.2	...	*13.8*	...	95.2**	...	404**	...	0.6**	...	11.5	...	15.9**	...	...	...	...	Slovakia[1]
Slovenia[o]	...	1.0	...	0.1	...	2.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Slovenia[o]
The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia[o, 1]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*4.2***	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia[o, 1]
Turkey[o, 1]	5.6	6.3	0.6	1.8**	2.8	...	2.1	3.4	...	...	89.1	*81.0***	246	366**	1.1	1.5**	9.1	12.2	58.1	*48.4***	96.3	...	86	...	Turkey[o, 1]
Ukraine	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	19.7	...	80.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	38.9	...	...	...	...	...	Ukraine
Central Asia																									**Central Asia**
Armenia	...	0.5	...	0.6	...	0.5	7.3	2.9	20.5	...	...	80.7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Armenia
Azerbaijan	...	...	...	...	...	...	7.0	4.1	23.5	17.3	...	99.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Azerbaijan
Georgia[1]	...	0.1	...	2.2	...	*2.2*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Georgia[1]
Kazakhstan	...	12.1**	...	0.5	...	0.7	3.2	...	17.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Kazakhstan
Kyrgyzstan	...	0.9	...	0.5	...	0.4	8.3	...	22.5	...	88.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Kyrgyzstan
Mongolia	...	3.0	...	2.2	...	1.4**	12.9	...	17.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Mongolia
Tajikistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	9.7	...	24.7	...	91.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Tajikistan
Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	4.3	...	21.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	9.5	...	20.4	...	79.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Uzbekistan
East Asia and the Pacific																									**East Asia and the Pacific**
Australia[o]	26.2	62.6**	24.9	27.2	31.9	23.9	5.3	4.9**	14.8	...	92.4	96.4**	...	3100**	...	1.6**	...	15.6	...	33.3**	...	...	...	...	Australia[o]
Brunei Darussalam	...	61.1	...	35.1	...	10.4	2.5	...	...	9.1**	90.4	98.3	...	...	0.5	...	...	...	24.1	...	73.5	...	34	...	Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	...	29.7	...	0.9	...	0.1	...	1.9	...	10.1	...	89.7	...	14	...	1.1	...	5.7	...	61.7	...	...	...	...	Cambodia
China[w]	...	...	...	...	...	...	2.3	...	12.8	...	93.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	China[w]

1. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.

Table 11 (continued)

Country or territory	PRIVATE ENROLMENT AS % OF TOTAL ENROLMENT						EDUCATION FINANCE						EDUCATION FINANCE										Country or territory
	Pre-primary education		Primary education		Secondary education		Total public expenditure on education as % of GNP		Total public expenditure on education as % of total government expenditure		Public current expenditure on education as % of total public expenditure on education		Public current expenditure on primary education per pupil (unit cost) in current US$		Public current expenditure on primary education as % of GNP		Public current expenditure on primary education per pupil as % of GNP per capita		Public current expenditure on primary education as % of public current expenditure on education		Primary teachers' salaries as % of public current expenditure on primary education		Teachers' salaries as % of public current expenditure on education		
	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	
Cook Islands[1]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*98.4*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*51.1*	...	...	...	...	Cook Islands[1]
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Democratic People's Republic of Korea
Fiji	100.0	...	...	...	...	...	4.7	5.9**	...	21.3**	99.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Fiji
Indonesia[w]	99.6	98.9	17.6	15.9	49.2	42.7	1.0	1.6	...	9.6	69.0	87.9**	...	27**	...	0.6**	...	4.1	...	39.9**	...	81.9**	...	99	Indonesia[w]
Japan[o]	78.1	65.2	0.7	0.9	16.5	18.6	...	3.5	...	10.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Japan[o]
Kiribati	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	18.3	...	100.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Kiribati
Lao People's Democratic Republic	...	19.6	...	2.1	...	0.8	...	2.4	...	8.8	...	52.7	...	14**	...	0.7**	...	4.4	...	55.5**	...	...	...	...	Lao People's Democratic Republic
Macao, China	...	91.6	...	94.1	...	93.3	...	3.6	10.7	13.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Macao, China
Malaysia[w, 1]	59.9	48.1	0.3	2.9	6.2	5.8	5.5	6.8	18.3	*25.2*	77.3	66.0**	...	378**	...	1.4**	...	10.2	34.3	30.9**	...	73.3**	...	53	Malaysia[w, 1]
Marshall Islands[1]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*13.8***	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Marshall Islands[1]
Micronesia (Federated States of)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Micronesia (Federated States of)
Myanmar[1]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*0.6*	...	18.1*	...	66.5	...	395	...	...	...	...	...	57.6	...	...	...	...	Myanmar[1]
Nauru	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	7.0**	...	95.3**	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	45.6**	...	...	...	...	Nauru
New Zealand[o]	0.4	...	2.5	2.0	4.9	10.2	6.5	6.6	...	...	95.5	99.8**	2142	2619**	1.7	2.0**	17.7	21.5	26.9	31.2**	71.7	...	40	...	New Zealand[o]
Niue[1]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*99.7***	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*32.7***	...	...	...	...	Niue[1]
Palau[1]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*20.0***	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Palau[1]
Papua New Guinea	100.0	...	2.4	...	...	...	...	2.4**	...	17.5**	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Papua New Guinea
Philippines[w]	58.2	47.9	6.7	7.3	36.4	22.7	2.9	3.4	10.1	...	92.4	90.9**	...	114**	...	1.8**	...	10.9	...	60.4**	...	87.5**	...	83	Philippines[w]
Republic of Korea[o]	69.3	77.6	1.4	1.5	45.2	39.6	3.4	3.8	22.4	17.4	89.2	80.3**	706	1527**	1.4	1.3**	12.0	15.5	44.3	43.5**	75.9	...	61	...	Republic of Korea[o]
Samoa[1]	...	...	11.7	...	...	...	4.2	*3.9*	10.7	*13.3***	94.0	*99.9*	...	...	...	...	...	...	52.6	...	...	...	72	...	Samoa[1]
Singapore	...	...	24.0	...	24.3	...	3.0	3.5	18.2	23.6**	87.3	72.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Singapore
Solomon Islands[1]	...	...	11.7	...	...	...	...	3.6**	...	*15.4***	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Solomon Islands[1]
Thailand[w]	...	19.2	9.6	13.2	16.2	6.6	3.6	5.5	20.0	31.0	83.6	...	204	...	1.7	...	13.4	...	56.0	...	75.3	...	62	...	Thailand[w]
Timor-Leste	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Timor-Leste
Tokelau	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Tokelau
Tonga[1]	...	*100.0*	7.4	*7.1*	*77.7*	*72.8*	...	5.3**	...	17.8**	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Tonga[1]
Tuvalu[1]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	16.2	*16.8***	100.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	35.9	...	90.2	...	58	...	Tuvalu[1]
Vanuatu[1]	...	...	22.4	...	...	...	4.4	7.7**	19.2	*17.4*	100.0	*83.7*	...	*157*	...	*2.5*	...	*14.0*	59.8	*38.9*	...	...	...	...	Vanuatu[1]
Viet Nam	...	51.5	...	0.3	...	...	2.1	...	7.5	...	90.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Viet Nam
Latin America and the Caribbean																									**Latin America and the Caribbean**
Anguilla[1]	...	*100.0*	...	*6.4*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Anguilla[1]
Antigua and Barbuda[1]	...	*100.0*	...	*38.2*	...	*20.1*	...	*3.5*	...	...	...	*100.0*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*56*	Antigua and Barbuda[1]
Argentina[w, 1]	...	28.2	...	19.9	...	25.1	1.1	4.7	10.9	13.6	96.0	97.7**	...	916**	...	1.6**	...	12.2	3.4	35.5**	89.9	49.2**	70	51	Argentina[w, 1]
Aruba[1]	...	*81.8*	...	*82.4*	...	*90.6*	5.0	...	18.0	16.0	81.2	*89.4*	...	*2190*	...	...	...	...	...	*30.0*	...	...	...	...	Aruba[1]
Bahamas	...	...	...	...	...	...	4.3	...	17.8	...	89.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Bahamas
Barbados[1]	...	*16.5*	...	*9.8*	...	*6.3*	7.9	7.3	22.2	18.5	81.0	85.6	...	2090	...	2.0	...	22.1	37.5	32.0	...	...	...	...	Barbados[1]
Belize[1]	...	100.0	...	87.1	...	74.1	4.8	6.8	18.5	20.9	94.4	...	...	*487*	2.7	*3.4*	11.3	*16.7*	60.3	...	...	...	...	...	Belize[1]
Bermuda	...	...	...	33.8	...	39.0	3.3	...	14.5	...	92.5	...	...	...	1.1	...	...	...	35.7	...	78.6	...	70	...	Bermuda
Bolivia[1]	9.8	*9.8***	10.4	*9.3***	*25.9*	*17.3***	2.5	5.7	...	23.1	...	85.5	...	113**	...	2.1**	...	11.7	...	43.0**	...	...	...	...	Bolivia[1]
Brazil[w]	33.6	27.8	14.2	8.3	34.7	11.3	...	4.0	...	10.4	...	95.1**	...	354**	...	1.3**	...	10.6	...	33.3**	...	...	...	...	Brazil[w]
British Virgin Islands[1]	100.0	*100.0*	15.3	*16.5*	...	*2.8*	4.8	...	12.2	...	89.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	35.5	...	...	...	...	...	British Virgin Islands[1]
Cayman Islands	...	93.4	...	39.1	...	25.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Cayman Islands
Chile[w]	47.7	45.7	38.8	45.5	49.0	49.7	2.7	4.3	10.4	17.5	97.0	88.8**	...	636**	1.4	1.7**	8.9	14.2	52.2	43.5**	...	...	...	...	Chile[w]
Colombia	...	40.8	15.2	18.7	...	30.1	2.5	5.2*	15.4	17.4*	90.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	39.3	...	...	...	...	...	Colombia
Costa Rica	10.9	15.9	4.7	6.9	7.9	13.2	4.6	4.8	20.8	...	96.9	99.6	...	588	...	2.2	...	16.1	...	46.5	...	...	...	...	Costa Rica
Cuba	...	...	...	...	...	...	8.9	8.7	12.3	15.1	93.1	92.6	...	...	1.5	2.9*	18.1	32.0	18.2	35.5*	...	...	...	...	Cuba
Dominica[1]	100.0	*100.0*	4.0	*26.3*	...	*37.5*	...	*5.6***	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Dominica[1]
Dominican Republic	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Dominican Republic
Ecuador	...	41.0	...	22.7	...	24.6	3.1	1.7	17.2	8.0	92.4	94.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	34.4	...	...	...	...	...	Ecuador
El Salvador[1]	...	...	...	...	...	...	2.0	*2.4***	16.6	*13.4***	...	*96.8***	...	*38***	...	*0.3***	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	El Salvador[1]
Grenada[1]	...	...	8.7	...	...	...	5.4	*4.5***	13.2	...	100.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Grenada[1]
Guatemala[1]	...	19.6	...	12.8	...	56.2	1.4	1.7	11.8	11.4	90.0	*88.5*	...	...	0.4	...	2.8	...	29.5	...	...	...	...	...	Guatemala[1]
Guyana[1]	...	...	...	...	...	...	4.8	*4.5***	4.4	*8.6***	82.7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Guyana[1]
Haiti	86.0	...	67.0	...	...	...	1.5	1.1**	20.0	10.9**	99.9	...	41	...	0.8	...	9.6	...	53.0	...	...	...	...	...	Haiti
Honduras	...	...	5.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Honduras
Jamaica[w, 1]	84.1	*88.2*	...	4.9	5.8	...	5.4	6.6	12.8	11.1	86.7	94.1**	191	422**	1.6	1.9**	11.8	14.7	34.7	30.2**	83.3	74.5**	58	68	Jamaica[w, 1]
Mexico[o, 1]	8.5	10.0	6.2	7.7	16.6	16.3	3.7	*4.5*	12.8	*22.6*	62.4	*97.7***	...	*567***	0.6	*1.8***	...	*11.8*	26.7	*40.4***	...	...	...	...	Mexico[o, 1]
Montserrat[1]	...	*14.0*	...	*37.0*	...	...	...	...	...	7.9**	...	*47.3*	...	...	...	...	...	...	23.8	...	...	...	...	*63*	Montserrat[1]
Netherlands Antilles[1]	...	*74.5*	...	*74.8*	...	*77.4*	3.4	...	...	13.6	...	90.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	36.7	...	...	...	...	...	Netherlands Antilles[1]
Nicaragua[1]	24.0	*17.5*	12.6	*16.4*	...	...	3.4	...	9.7	13.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Nicaragua[1]

1. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.

Table 11 (continued)

Country or territory	PRIVATE ENROLMENT AS % OF TOTAL ENROLMENT						EDUCATION FINANCE						EDUCATION FINANCE										Country or territory
	Pre-primary education		Primary education		Secondary education		Total public expenditure on education as % of GNP		Total public expenditure on education as % of total government expenditure		Public current expenditure on education as % of total public expenditure on education		Public current expenditure on primary education per pupil (unit cost) in current US$		Public current expenditure on primary education as % of GNP		Public current expenditure on primary education per pupil as % of GNP per capita		Public current expenditure on primary education as % of public current expenditure on education		Primary teachers' salaries as % of public current expenditure on primary education		Teachers' salaries as % of public current expenditure on education		
	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	
Panama	26.7	22.0	7.8	9.9	15.7	15.7	4.9	6.2	20.9	…	97.3	97.4	254	534**	1.8	2.3**	12.1	16.1	37.0	37.1**	97.1	…	60	…	Panama
Paraguay[w, 1]	54.7	*28.7*	15.0	14.8**	21.9	27.6	1.1	5.0**	9.1	11.2**	97.4	91.9**	…	…	0.5	…	3.0	…	43.9	…	…	…	…	…	Paraguay[w, 1]
Peru[w, 1]	18.1	15.1	12.6	13.0	14.6	16.9	2.3	*3.5*	…	*21.1*	…	*87.9*	…	*141*	…	*1.2*	…	*7.1*	…	*40.4*	…	…	…	…	Peru[w, 1]
Saint Kitts and Nevis	…	68.4**	…	15.3**	…	2.8**	2.8	3.3**	…	16.0**	100.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Saint Kitts and Nevis
Saint Lucia[1]	100.0	*100.0*	1.8	*2.8***	*12.0*	*3.7***	…	6.1	…	16.9	…	*78.5*	…	*611***	2.6	*2.4*	10.5	*14.2*	47.9	*38.7*	…	*92.1*	…	*60*	Saint Lucia[1]
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	100.0	…	3.2	…	…	…	…	9.9	13.8	13.4**	75.3	70.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	64.1	…	…	…	…	74	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines
Suriname	…	…	…	…	…	…	8.3	…	…	…	99.6	…	1 403	…	5.0	…	…	…	60.5	…	37.1	…	33	…	Suriname
Trinidad and Tobago[1]	…	*77.4**	…	*5.4*	…	*8.2*	4.0	4.3**	11.6	16.7**	92.2	*80.7***	374	*570*	1.6	*1.5*	9.7	*11.7*	42.4	*39.8*	…	*77.5*	70	*76*	Trinidad and Tobago[1]
Turks and Caicos Islands[1]	…	59.4	…	20.3	…	8.2	…	…	…	16.8	…	64.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*29.7*	…	*81.1*	…	54	Turks and Caicos Islands[1]
Uruguay[w]	29.8	19.7	16.2	14.0	14.0	11.8	3.1	2.8	15.9	11.8	91.8	94.8**	…	473**	1.1	0.9**	9.5	8.0	37.5	32.6**	…	80.5**	…	72	Uruguay[w]
Venezuela[1]	15.3	*15.7***	13.7	*9.0***	*25.9*	*27.5***	3.1	…	12.0	…	…	…	…	…	0.5	…	2.5	…	20.2	…	…	…	…	…	Venezuela[1]
North America and Western Europe																									**North America and Western Europe**
Andorra	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Andorra
Austria[o]	25.9	25.6	4.0	4.2	9.4	11.5	5.4	5.9	7.6	15.1	92.4	95.5**	3777	5212**	0.9	1.1**	18.3	22.6	17.7	19.6**	70.9	67.1**	51	58	Austria[o]
Belgium[o, 1]	56.8	54.1	56.0	54.4	65.8	…	5.0	*5.8*	…	*11.6*	98.8	…	3112	…	1.1	…	15.9	…	23.3	…	89.9	…	81	…	Belgium[o, 1]
Canada[o]	4.2	7.8	3.7	6.5	5.8	6.4	6.8	5.5	14.2	…	92.6	97.7**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	57	54	Canada[o]
Cyprus[o, 1]	67.9	46.6	4.8	4.3	13.1	10.6	3.4	5.7	11.3	…	94.9	*86.2*	1000	*2287*	1.1	*1.6*	12.0	*17.1*	34.2	*33.9*	87.0	…	82	…	Cyprus[o, 1]
Denmark[o, 1]	9.1	*2.7*	…	*10.8*	*41.4*	*11.5*	…	8.3	…	15.3	…	93.8**	…	6485**	…	1.6**	…	21.5	…	20.6**	…	47.1**	…	36	Denmark[o, 1]
Finland[o, 1]	…	7.3	0.9	1.2	5.9	8.2	5.7	*6.3*	11.9	*12.5*	93.0	*93.7***	5469	*4044***	1.6	*1.2***	20.8	*16.5*	30.5	*21.1***	56.4	…	52	…	Finland[o, 1]
France[o, 1]	12.3	12.6	14.8	14.6	22.0	25.1	5.4	5.8	…	*11.5*	93.1	91.2**	2545	3623**	0.9	1.1**	12.1	16.5	17.6	20.2**	…	…	…	…	France[o, 1]
Germany[o]	…	59.0	…	2.4	…	6.9	…	4.6	…	9.9	…	92.7**	…	3396**	…	0.6**	10.0	15.0	…	15.2**	…	…	…	…	Germany[o]
Greece[o, 1]	4.9	3.6	7.1	6.3	5.4	5.8	2.5	3.7	…	*7.0*	94.1	82.2**	670	*1713***	0.7	*0.9***	8.2	*14.2*	28.2	*31.0***	95.7	…	85	78	Greece[o, 1]
Iceland[o]	…	6.3	…	1.4	…	4.2	5.6	6.1**	…	…	73.9	87.3**	4995	5001**	2.5	1.9**	21.1	16.9	59.5	36.0**	48.6	…	54	…	Iceland[o]
Ireland[o, 1]	1.8	41.9	1.5	…	0.4	…	5.6	5.1	10.2	10.7	95.0	89.1**	1502	*3063***	1.5	1.5**	13.0	*14.2*	29.0	31.8**	89.0	80.9**	75	68	Ireland[o, 1]
Israel[o]	…	6.5	…	…	…	…	6.5	7.6	11.3	…	92.2	93.9**	1314	3463**	1.9	2.4**	11.9	19.7	31.0	34.1**	…	…	…	…	Israel[o]
Italy[o, 1]	29.4	27.3	7.1	7.0	6.4	5.4	3.2	4.7	…	*9.5*	98.9	94.2**	2933	3863**	0.8	1.0**	15.5	20.8	26.6	23.1**	90.3	67.4**	82	60	Italy[o, 1]
Luxembourg[o, 1]	…	5.3	0.7	6.7	…	17.8	2.6	*4.0***	10.4	*8.5***	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Luxembourg[o, 1]
Malta[o, 1]	37.6	38.2	29.2	36.5	23.3	27.3	4.0	*4.9***	8.3	…	94.4	…	639	…	0.9	…	9.1	…	25.1	…	69.8	…	42	…	Malta[o, 1]
Monaco	33.0	25.5	33.8	29.9	25.0	24.7	…	…	…	…	…	93.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	16.2	…	…	…	…	Monaco
Netherlands[o, 1]	68.6	69.0	68.7	68.4	82.9	83.6	6.0	*4.8*	14.8	*10.4*	95.1	*96.2***	2400	*3659***	0.9	*1.2***	12.7	*14.6*	16.2	*25.5***	74.4	…	64	…	Netherlands[o, 1]
Norway[o, 1]	36.0	40.0	1.2	1.6	5.2	7.2	7.3	6.9	14.6	16.2	86.3	91.3**	8988	*8427***	2.5	*2.3***	34.0	*24.7*	39.5	*34.9***	…	…	…	…	Norway[o, 1]
Portugal[o, 1]	64.1	51.2	6.7	10.0	8.2	13.6	4.2	5.9	…	*12.8***	91.7	*92.6***	1102	*2280***	1.6	*1.6***	15.9	*20.3*	42.3	*31.0***	93.8	…	86	…	Portugal[o, 1]
San Marino	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	98.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	32.2	…	…	…	…	…	San Marino
Spain[o, 1]	38.9	33.7	34.9	33.4	30.5	29.1	4.4	*4.6*	9.4	*11.3*	88.7	*91.1***	1567	*2727***	0.9	*1.2*	12.6	*18.4*	23.3	27.2**	…	…	…	…	Spain[o, 1]
Sweden[o, 1]	…	12.1	0.9	3.9	1.2	2.9	7.7	*7.9*	13.8	*13.6*	91.8	…	12955	…	3.4	…	49.7	…	47.6	…	…	…	…	…	Sweden[o, 1]
Switzerland[o, 1]	5.3	7.5	2.4	3.4	5.8	7.6	4.9	*5.2*	18.7	*15.2*	88.8	*90.2***	11879	6890**	2.0	1.5**	34.1	19.5	46.3	31.0**	73.2	…	61	…	Switzerland[o, 1]
United Kingdom[o, 1]	6.0	6.0	4.8	4.8	…	52.4	4.9	*4.4*	…	*11.4*	94.9	…	2587	…	1.2	…	15.5	…	26.1	…	59.7	…	51	…	United Kingdom[o, 1]
United States[o, 1]	37.6	*34.2*	10.4	11.6	9.6	9.7	5.2	4.9	12.3	15.5	90.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	38.9	…	…	…	…	…	United States[o, 1]
South and West Asia																									**South and West Asia**
Afghanistan	…	…	…	…	…	…	1.9	…	…	…	93.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	87.6	…	…	…	…	…	Afghanistan
Bangladesh	…	…	15.2	38.7	…	95.7	1.5	2.5	10.3	15.7	79.1	61.7	…	12	…	0.5	…	3.7	45.6	30.9	…	…	…	…	Bangladesh
Bhutan	…	100.0	…	1.7	…	0.3	…	5.1	…	12.9	…	67.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	*56.9***	…	…	…	…	Bhutan
India[w, 1]	…	*3.0*	…	*16.5*	…	*42.4*	3.6	*4.1*	12.2	*12.7*	98.7	*98.0***	…	*47***	…	*1.2***	…	*10.5*	38.9	*29.9***	…	*52.0***	…	…	India[w, 1]
Iran, Islamic Republic of	…	10.3	0.1	3.6	*0.3*	5.5	4.1	4.4	22.4	20.4	82.5	90.8	…	455**	…	1.1**	…	9.7	33.2	27.5**	…	…	…	…	Iran, Islamic Republic of
Maldives	…	34.0	…	2.3	…	…	6.6	…	10.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Maldives
Nepal	…	83.9	…	…	…	…	2.0	3.6	8.5	14.1	…	74.6	…	23	…	1.5	…	9.6	48.2	56.6	…	…	…	…	Nepal
Pakistan[1]	…	*34.8**	…	*34.8**	…	…	2.7	1.8**	7.4	7.8**	80.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Pakistan[1]
Sri Lanka[w]	…	…	1.5	…	2.5	…	2.7	…	8.1	…	81.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Sri Lanka[w]
Sub-Saharan Africa																									**Sub-Saharan Africa**
Angola	…	…	…	…	…	…	4.9	3.4	10.7	…	89.9	93.7	…	…	4.2	…	…	…	96.3	…	…	…	…	…	Angola
Benin[1]	8.0	31.4	3.4	8.0	…	*16.3*	…	3.2**	…	…	…	*93.8***	…	33	…	1.6	…	9.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	Benin[1]
Botswana[1]	…	…	5.2	4.9	68.9	4.2**	6.4	*8.1***	17.0	…	71.3	…	…	162	…	0.9	…	4.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	Botswana[1]
Burkina Faso[1]	29.4	*34.0***	8.6	*11.4*	41.1	34.4	2.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Burkina Faso[1]
Burundi[1]	…	52.1	0.8	1.3	…	…	3.4	3.5	16.7	…	97.0	*94.2***	27	*14***	1.6	*1.4***	13.4	*12.6*	46.8	*38.9***	88.6	…	58	…	Burundi[1]
Cameroon[1]	36.3	60.4	25.2	26.4	42.8	…	3.4	3.4	19.6	12.5	90.7	*85.8*	…	…	…	…	…	…	70.5	…	…	…	…	…	Cameroon[1]
Cape Verde	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Cape Verde
Central African Republic	…	…	…	…	4.1	…	2.2	…	…	…	96.9	…	53	…	1.1	…	10.7	…	52.7	…	97.4	…	68	…	Central African Republic
Chad[1]	…	…	6.0	*27.8*	…	*14.9*	…	*2.0***	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Chad[1]

1. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.

Table 11 (continued)

Country or territory	PRIVATE ENROLMENT AS % OF TOTAL ENROLMENT						EDUCATION FINANCE						EDUCATION FINANCE										Country or territory
	Pre-primary education		Primary education		Secondary education		Total public expenditure on education as % of GNP		Total public expenditure on education as % of total government expenditure		Public current expenditure on education as % of total public expenditure on education		Public current expenditure on primary education per pupil (unit cost) in current US$		Public current expenditure on primary education as % of GNP		Public current expenditure on primary education per pupil as % of GNP per capita		Public current expenditure on primary education as % of public current expenditure on education		Primary teachers' salaries as % of public current expenditure on primary education		Teachers' salaries as % of public current expenditure on education		
	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	1990	2000	
Comoros[1]	…	*100.0*	…	*10.7*	…	*52.1***	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	42.4	…	…	…	…	…	Comoros[1]
Congo[1]	…	74.8	…	18.0	…	…	6.0	*5.5***	14.4	*12.6***	97.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Congo[1]
Côte d'Ivoire[1]	66.5	45.7	10.4	11.3	…	…	…	4.9	…	21.5	…	94.0	…	*109*	…	*1.8*	…	*14.6*	…	*43.4*	…	*83.2*	…	*61*	Côte d'Ivoire[1]
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Democratic Rep. of the Congo
Equatorial Guinea	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	1.9	…	…	…	93.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Equatorial Guinea
Eritrea	…	94.5	31.4	9.3	…	6.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Eritrea
Ethiopia[1]	100.0	*100.0*	12.5	*5.5*	…	*1.1*	3.4	4.8	9.4	13.8	82.4	63.8	52	…	1.5	…	31.5	…	53.9	…	98.2	…	79	…	Ethiopia[1]
Gabon[1]	…	68.3	…	28.2	…	…	…	4.6**	…	…	…	*87.3***	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Gabon[1]
Gambia[1]	…	…	…	2.0	…	21.0	4.1	2.7**	14.6	14.2**	77.1	86.8**	45	*57*	1.3	*2.1*	14.1	*16.9*	41.6	…	82.1	…	43	…	Gambia[1]
Ghana[1]	…	33.0	7.3	17.1	…	10.5	3.3	*4.2***	24.3	…	86.7	…	25	…	0.8	…	6.5	…	29.2	…	…	…	…	…	Ghana[1]
Guinea	…	…	2.4	19.1	4.1	…	…	2.0**	…	25.6**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Guinea
Guinea-Bissau[1]	…	*62.2*	…	*19.4*	…	*12.8*	…	*2.3*	…	*4.8*	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Guinea-Bissau[1]
Kenya[1]	…	…	…	…	…	…	7.1	6.4	17.0	22.5	90.4	…	…	…	3.2	…	13.6	…	50.3	…	…	…	…	…	Kenya[1]
Lesotho[1]	…	100.0	100.0	…	…	…	3.7	*7.9*	12.2	*18.5*	82.1	*84.6*	…	*99*	…	*3.1*	…	*17.2*	…	*46.5*	…	*83.5*	…	*86*	Lesotho[1]
Liberia[1]	…	*18.0*	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Liberia[1]
Madagascar	…	93.6	17.8	21.6	…	…	2.2	3.2**	…	…	90.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	49.1	…	…	…	…	…	Madagascar
Malawi[1]	…	…	7.2	…	…	…	3.4	*4.1***	11.1	…	75.3	…	…	…	1.1	…	6.6	…	44.7	…	…	…	…	…	Malawi[1]
Mali[1]	…	…	3.3	*7.1*	…	…	…	*3.0***	…	…	…	*89.6***	…	*33***	…	*1.3***	…	*14.5*	…	*48.9***	…	…	…	…	Mali[1]
Mauritius[1]	…	82.6	…	23.9	79.4	67.7	3.6	3.7	11.8	13.3	93.0	91.0	236	*372*	1.2	*1.2*	9.5	*10.5*	37.5	*34.1*	73.1	…	54	…	Mauritius[1]
Mozambique[1]	…	…	…	1.6	…	6.8**	3.3	*2.5***	12.0	*12.3***	63.7	…	19	…	1.0	…	11.8	…	49.8	…	…	…	…	…	Mozambique[1]
Namibia[1]	…	*100.0*	…	*4.1*	…	*4.4*	7.5	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Namibia[1]
Niger	22.5	36.2	2.8	4.4	*7.3*	14.8**	3.2	2.8**	18.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Niger
Nigeria	…	…	…	…	…	…	1.0	…	…	…	85.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Nigeria
Rwanda	…	…	0.7	…	24.1	…	…	2.8**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Rwanda
Sao Tome and Principe	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Sao Tome and Principe
Senegal	57.7	73.4	9.2	11.2	…	…	4.1	3.2**	26.9	…	99.4	…	…	…	1.7	…	17.9	…	43.0	…	…	…	…	…	Senegal
Seychelles[1]	…	4.6	…	4.3	…	3.0	8.1	*7.9***	14.8	…	100.0	…	563	…	2.3	…	11.0	…	28.2	…	…	…	…	…	Seychelles[1]
Sierra Leone	…	58.7	…	…	…	1.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Sierra Leone
Somalia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Somalia
South Africa[1]	…	10.8	0.8	1.7	…	…	6.2	*5.8*	…	*18.1*	89.0	*94.3*	642	*423*	4.1	*2.6*	20.3	*14.1*	75.6	*47.9*	82.7	…	73	…	South Africa[1]
Swaziland[1]	…	…	…	…	…	…	5.5	…	19.5	…	81.9	*100.0*	…	…	1.4	…	6.7	…	31.1	…	…	…	…	…	Swaziland[1]
Togo	50.6	61.6	24.9	39.7	17.0	…	5.6	4.9	26.4	23.2	93.0	91.2	39	27**	1.6	2.1**	8.6	10.1	30.4	47.0**	98.3	*84.3***	55	*76*	Togo
Uganda[1]	…	100.0	…	…	…	…	1.5	*2.3***	11.5	…	91.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Uganda[1]
United Republic of Tanzania[1]	…	…	0.2	*0.2*	49.8	…	3.4	…	11.4	…	87.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	United Republic of Tanzania[1]
Zambia	…	…	…	…	…	…	2.6	…	8.7	…	87.0	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Zambia
Zimbabwe[w. 1]	…	…	87.8	*88.1*	…	*71.7*	8.0	*11.1***	…	…	99.2	…	172	…	4.3	…	20.0	…	54.1	…	94.5	…	76	…	Zimbabwe[w. 1]
World[2]	…	39.1	…	7.3	…	10.6	4.1	4.5	14.2	…	91.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	World[2]
Countries in transition	…	1.3	…	0.6	…	0.8	5.6	4.2	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Countries in transition
Developed countries	29.4	26.5	4.8	6.6	9.5	11.0	5.3	5.3	11.9	11.5	93.0	93.1	2545	3543	1.2	1.5	15.5	17.7	29.0	31.0	73.8	…	61	…	Developed countries
Developing countries	…	60.7	…	10.7	…	15.7	3.5	4.1	14.1	…	90.8	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Developing countries
Arab States	99.3	84.6	4.9	7.3	7.5	14.2	4.1	…	14.6	…	92.0	87.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Arab States
Central and Eastern Europe	…	…	…	0.9	…	0.9	5.0	4.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Central and Eastern Europe
Central Asia	…	0.9	…	0.6	…	0.7	7.8	…	20.7	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Central Asia
East Asia and the Pacific	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	3.7	…	17.1	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	East Asia and the Pacific
Latin America and the Caribbean	…	40.9	…	15.3	…	20.1	3.4	4.5	13.5	13.8	92.4	91.4	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Latin America and the Caribbean
North America and Western Europe	31.2	25.5	5.7	6.6	9.4	10.6	5.2	5.5	11.6	11.5	93.0	92.7	2566	3641	1.2	1.3	15.5	17.7	29.8	27.2	74.4	67.2	63	59	North America and Western Europe
South and West Asia	…	34.4	…	10.0	…	…	2.7	3.8	10.0	13.5	82.0	74.6	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	South and West Asia
Sub-Saharan Africa	…	61.9	…	10.9	…	…	3.5	3.4	…	…	89.9	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Sub-Saharan Africa

1. Data in italics are for 1999/2000.
2. All values shown are medians.

Glossary

Adult literacy/illiteracy rate (estimated). Number of literate/illiterate adults, expressed as a percentage of the total adult population aged 15 years and above. A person is considered literate/illiterate if he/she can/cannot read and write with understanding a simple statement related to his/her life.

Compulsory education. The age range during which children and young people are legally obliged to attend school.

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 as part of a non-formal child development programme. ECCE programmes are normally designed for children aged 3 and above and include organized learning activities that occupy on average the equivalent of at least 2 hours per day and 100 days per year.

Education for All Development Index (EDI). This composite index aims at measuring overall progress towards EFA. For the time being, the EDI incorporates only the four most quantifiable EFA goals – universal primary education (UPE), adult literacy, gender parity and the quality of education. Its value is the arithmetical mean of the observed values of four indicators measuring each of its different constituents.

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 of education, had studied full-time throughout and had 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.

Fields of study in tertiary or higher education.
General programmes: basic programmes, literacy and numeracy, personal development.
Education: teacher training and education science.
Humanities and Arts: humanities, religion and theology, fine and applied arts.
Social Science, 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.
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 educational programme in a country of which they are not permanent residents.

Gender parity index (GPI). Ratio of female-to-male value of a given indicator. A GPI of 1 indicates parity between sexes; a GPI that varies between 0 and 1 means a disparity in favour of boys; a GPI greater than 1 indicates a disparity in favour of girls.

Gender-related EFA index (GEI). This composite index measures relative achievement in 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 in primary and secondary education and in adult literacy.

Grade. Stage of instruction usually covered in one school year.

Gross enrolment ratio (GER). Number of pupils enrolled in a given level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population in the relevant official age group

Gross intake rate (GIR). Number of new entrants into first grade of primary education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the children of official entrance age to primary education.

Gross domestic product (GDP). Sum of gross value added by all resident producers in the economy, including distributive trades and transport, plus any product taxes and minus any subsidies not included in the value of the products.

Gross national product (GNP). Sum of gross value added by all resident producers in the economy, including distributive trades and transport, plus any product taxes, minus any subsidies not included in the value of the products plus net receipts of income from abroad. As net receipts from abroad may be positive or negative, it is possible for the GNP to be greater or smaller than the GDP.

Gross national product per capita. Gross national product in current US dollars divided by the total population.

HIV prevalence rate among a given age group. 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.

Infant mortality rate. The annual number of deaths of children under one year of age per 1,000 live births in a given year.

International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED). A classification system designed as an instrument for assembling, compiling and presenting comparable indicators and statistics of education both within individual countries and internationally. The system, introduced in 1976, was revised in 1997.

Life expectancy at birth. Theoretical number of years that a child will live if the age-specific mortality rates in the year of birth are taken as constant. It is the sum of the survival rates by age.

Net attendance ratio. 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 total population in that age group.

Net enrolment ratio (NER). Number of pupils in the official age group for a given level of education enrolled in that level, expressed as a percentage of the total population in that age group.

Net intake rate in primary education (NIR). Number of pupils at the official school entrance age who are new entrants to the first grade of primary education, expressed as a percentage of the children of official admission age to primary education.

New entrants. Pupils entering primary education for the first time.

Number of children orphaned by AIDS. Estimated number of children aged 0–14 who have lost one or both parents to AIDS.

Out-of-school children. Children in the official school-age range who are not enrolled in school.

Percentage of new entrants to primary education with ECCE experience. Number of new entrants to primary education who have attended some form of organized ECCE programmes equivalent to at least 200 hours, expressed as a percentage of the total number of new entrants to primary education.

Percentage of repeaters. Number of pupils who are enrolled in the same grade (or level) as the previous year, expressed as a percentage of the total enrolment in the given grade (or level) of education.

Post-secondary non-tertiary education (ISCED Level 4). Includes programmes that straddle the boundary between upper secondary and tertiary education from an international point of view. These programmes are often not significantly more advanced than programmes at ISCED 3 (upper secondary) but they serve to broaden the knowledge of participants who have already completed a programme at Level 3. The students are usually older than those at that level. ISCED 4 programmes typically have a duration of between six months and two years.

Pre-primary education (ISCED Level 0). Refers to programmes at the initial stage of organized instruction, which are primarily designed to introduce very young children, usually from age 3 or so, to a school-type environment, to provide a bridge between home and school. Such programmes are variously referred to as infant education, nursery education, pre-school education, kindergarten, or early childhood education. They are the more formal component of early childhood care and education (see ECCE).

Primary education (ISCED Level 1). Sometimes called elementary education. Refers to educational 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 science, social science, art and music. In

some cases religious instruction is also featured. These subjects serve to develop pupils' ability to obtain and use information they need about their home, community, country, etc.

Private enrolment. Number of children enrolled in an institution (school or college) that is not operated by a public authority, but rather controlled and managed on either a profit or non-profit basis by a private body such as a non-governmental organization or association, religious body, special interest group, foundation or business enterprise.

Public current expenditure on primary education as percentage of total public current expenditure on education. This indicator shows the relative share of public current expenditure on primary education within overall public current expenditure on education.

Public current expenditure on primary education per school pupil (unit cost). Measures the average cost of a pupil in primary education.

Public current expenditure on primary education per school pupil as percentage of per capita GNP. Measures the average cost of a pupil in primary education in relation to the country's per capita GNP. In other words, the per capita share of primary education unit cost in GNP.

Public expenditure on education. Total public finance devoted to education by local, regional and national governments, including municipalities. Household contributions are normally excluded. Public expenditure on education includes both capital and current expenditure. Capital (public) expenditure includes expenditure for construction, renovation and major repairs of buildings and the purchase of heavy equipment or vehicles. Current (public) expenditure includes expenditure for goods and services consumed within the current year and which would have to be renewed if there were a need for prolongation the following year. It includes expenditure on staff salaries and benefits; contracted or purchased services; other resources including books and teaching materials; welfare services; and other current expenditure such as furniture and equipment, minor repairs, fuel, telecommunications, travel, insurance and rents.

Public expenditure on education as percentage of GNP. Total public expenditure on education at every level of administration according to the constitution of the country, i.e. central, regional and local authorities, expressed as a percentage of GNP.

Public expenditure on education as percentage of total government expenditure. Total public expenditure on education at every level of administration according to the constitution of the country, i.e. central, regional and local authorities, expressed as a percentage of total government expenditure on all sectors (including health, education, social services, etc.).

Pupil. Refers to a young person who is enrolled in an educational programme. For the purposes of this report, 'pupil' refers to a child enrolled in primary school, whereas children or adults enrolled at more advanced levels are referred to as students.

Pupil/teacher (P/T) ratio. Average number of pupils per teacher at the level of education specified in a given school year. When data are available the calculation of the pupil/teacher ratio is based on teachers and pupils expressed in full-time equivalent.

Purchasing power parity (PPP). The rate of currency conversion into US dollars that eliminates the differences in price levels among countries. Thus, when expenditure on GNP for different countries is converted into a common currency by means of the PPP it is, in effect, expressed at the same set of international prices so that comparisons between countries reflect only differences in the volume of goods and services purchased. In other words, a given sum of money, when converted into US dollars at the PPP rate (PPP$), will buy the same basket of goods and services in all countries.

Repetition rate by grade. Proportion of pupils enrolled in a given grade in a given school year who study in the same grade the following school year.

School life expectancy. Number of years a child is expected to remain at school or university, including years spent on repetition. It is the sum of the age-specific enrolment ratios for primary, secondary, post-secondary, non-tertiary and tertiary education.

School-age population. Population of the age group which officially corresponds to the relevant level of education, whether or not enrolled in school.

Secondary education. Includes two levels: lower secondary education (ISCED Level 2), generally designed to continue the basic programmes of the primary level. Teaching at lower secondary level 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. Upper secondary education (ISCED Level 3) is the final stage of secondary education in most countries. At this level, instruction is often organized more along subject lines than at ISCED Level 2 and teachers typically need to have a higher or more subject-specific qualification than at ISCED Level 2.

Survival rate. Percentage of a cohort of pupils who enrolled in the first grade of an education cycle in a given school year and who reach a given grade either with or without repeating a grade.

Teacher or teaching staff. Number of persons employed full time or part time in an official capacity for the purpose of guiding and directing the learning experience of pupils and students, irrespective of their qualifications or the delivery mechanism, i.e. whether face-to-face and/or at a distance. This definition excludes educational personnel who have no active teaching duties (e.g. headmasters, headmistresses or principals who do not teach) or who work occasionally or in a voluntary capacity in educational institutions, such as parents.

Teachers' salaries as a percentage of public current expenditure on education. The share of teachers' salaries and other remuneration in the total public current expenditure on education.

Technical and vocational education. Designed mainly to prepare pupils 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 in the country in which it is obtained (ministry of education, employers' associations, etc.).

Tertiary or higher education. Includes two stages: the first stage of tertiary education, ISCED Level 5, includes programmes with an educational content more advanced than those offered at ISCED Levels 3 and 4. This first stage of tertiary education is composed of ISCED Level 5A, which includes largely theoretically-based programmes intended to provide sufficient qualifications for gaining entry to advanced research programmes and professions with high skills requirements; and ISCED 5B, which includes programmes generally more practical/technical/occupationally specific than ISCED 5A. The second stage of tertiary education, ISCED Level 6, is reserved for tertiary programmes leading to the award of an advanced research qualification. The programmes are devoted to advanced study and original research.

Total debt service. Sum of principal repayments and interest actually paid in foreign currency, goods or services on long-term debt, or interest paid in short-term debt, as well as repayments (repurchases and charges) to the International Monetary Fund (IMF).

Total fertility rate or average number of children per woman. Theoretical number of births to a woman during her child-bearing years, taking the given year's age-specific birth rates as constant. It is the sum of the age-specific birth rates for all women of childbearing age (15–49).

Trained teacher. Teacher who has received the minimum organized teacher training (pre-service or in service) normally required for teaching at the relevant level in a given country.

Transition rate to secondary education. Number of pupils admitted 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.

Youth literacy/illiteracy rate (estimated). The number of literate/illiterate young adults aged 15–24, expressed as a percentage of the total population aged 15–24. A person is considered literate/illiterate if he/she can/cannot read and write with understanding a simple statement related to his/her life.

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Acronyms

ABLE	Adult Basic Learning and Education
ACORD	Agency for Co-operation and Research in Development
ADB (CERC)	Asian Development Bank (Comparative Education Research Centre)
AED	Academy for Educational Development
AED-SARA	Academy for Educational Development – Support for Analysis and Research in Africa
ANCEFA	African Network Campaign on Education for All
BDP	Bureau of Development Policy (UNDP)
BEDC	Basic Education Development Committee
BEGIN	Basic Education for Growth Initiative
BEPS	Basic Education and Policy Support
BMZ	Ministry for Economic Co-operation and Development (Germany)
BRAC	Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee
BREDA	Bureau régional de l'UNESCO pour l'éducation en Afrique [*UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Africa]*
CAMPE	Campaign for Popular Education (Bangladesh)
CCHDM	College of Community Health Development and Management (Philippines)
CCNGO	Collective Consultation of Non-Governmental Organizations
CDN	Canadian dollar
CDTN	Confédération démocratique des travailleurs du Niger [Niger Democratic Workers' Confederation]
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women
CENAFOD	Centre africain de formation pour le développement [African Centre for Development Training]
CERI	Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (OECD)
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
COBET	Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania
COFEG	Coordination des ONG féminines de Guinée [Federation of Guinean Women's NGOs]
COFINTEA	Conférence Internationale sur l'éducation des Adultes [International Conference on Adult Education]
CONFEMEN	Conférence des Ministres de l'Education des Pays Ayant le Français en Partage [Conference of Ministers of Education of French-Speaking Countries]
CPD	Centre for Policy Dialogue Task Force (Pakistan)
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
CRS	Creditor Reporting System
CSO	Civil society organization
CSVR	Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation
CSW	Commission on the Status of Women
CUC	Comité de Unidad Campesina [Committee of Peasant Unity] (Guatemala)
DAC	Development Aid Committee (OECD)
DDRR	Disarmament, Demobilization, Rehabilitation and Reintegration programmes
DeSeCo	Definition and Selection of Competencies
DfES	Department for Education and Skills (UK)
DFID	Department for International Development (UK)
DHS	Demographic and health survey
DWNRO	Disabled Women Network and Resources Organization
E9	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
ECLA	United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America
ECLAC	United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean
EDI	Education for All Development Index
EFA	Education for All
EP1	Education primaire 1 (Primary Education 1)

EQO	Essential quality-oriented education
ERD	Economics and Research Department
ERP	Education for Rural People
ESIP	Education Strategic Investment Plan
ESSP	Education Sector Support Programme
ESTEEM	Effective Schools through Enhanced Management
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization (UN)
FAWE	Forum for African Women Educationalists
FCND	Food Consumption and Nutrition Division
FEG/FAWE	Forum des éducatrices de Guinée/ Forum for African Women Educationalists [Guinean Women Teachers' Forum]
FFE	Food for Education
FGM	Female genital mutilation
FGRM	Funda Garantia de Renda Minima [Minimum Income Assurance Programme]
FORCES	Forum for Childcare and Crèche Services
FRESH	Focusing Resources on Effective School Health
FTI	Fast-Track Initiative
FUNDEF	Fund for Primary Education Development and Maintenance and Enhancement of the Teaching Profession
G7	Group of seven countries (Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, United Kingdom and United States) and representatives from the European Union who meet to discuss economic and foreign policies.
G8	Group of eight countries (Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Russia, United Kingdom and United States) and representatives from the European Union who meet to discuss economic and foreign policies
GAC	Gender-appropriate curriculum
GAD	Gender and Development
GDP	Gross domestic product
GEI	Gender-related EFA index
GEM	Gender empowerment measure
GER	Gross enrolment rate
GIR	Gross intake rate
GMC	Global Movement for Children
GNP	Gross national product
GOR	Government of Rajasthan
GPI	Gender parity index
GTZ	Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit [German Agency for Technical Cooperation]
HDI	Human Development Index (UNDP)
HIES	Household income and expenditure survey
HIPC	Highly Indebted Poor Countries
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
HPI	Human Poverty Index
HSC	High-school certificate
IALS	International Adult Literacy Study
IATT	Inter-Agency Task Team
IBE	International Bureau of Education (UNESCO)
IBRD	International Bank for Reconstruction and Development
ICCPR	International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
ICDS	Integrated Child Development Service
ICESCR	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
ICPD	International Conference on Population and Development
ICRC	International Committee for the Red Cross
ICT	Information and communication technologies
IDA	International Development Association (World Bank)
IDPs	Internally displaced persons

IDRC	International Development Research Centre (Canada)
IDS	Institute of Development Studies (UK)
IEA	International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IFPRI	International Food Policy Research Institute
IIEP	International Institute for Educational Planning (UNESCO)
IIZ/DVV	Institut für Internationale Zusammenarbeit des Deutschen Volkshochschul-Verbandes [Institute for International Cooperation of the German Adult Education Association]
ILO	International Labour Organization
ILO/CINTERFOR	Inter-American Research and Documentation Centre on Vocational Training (ILO)
IMF	International Monetary Fund
INEE	Inter-Agency Network on Education in Emergencies
INEP	Instituto Nacional de Estudos e Pesquisas Educacionais [National Institute for Educational Studies and Research] (Brazil)
INGO	International non-governmental organization
IQEA	Improving the Quality of Education for All
IRD	Institut de recherche pour le développement (ex-ORSTOM) [Research Institute for Development] (France)
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
IWGDD	International Working Group on Disability and Development
IWGE	International Working Group on Education
JHU/CCP	Johns Hopkins University Center for Communication Programmes (US)
JICA	Japan International Cooperation Agency
JOCAS	Jornadas Communitarias de Conversación sobre Afectividad y Sexualidad [Community Days of Conversation about Emotional and Sexual Life] (Chile)
KAPE	Kampuchean Action for Primary Education
LAC	Latin America and the Caribbean
LAMP	Literacy Assessment and Monitoring Programme
LR	Literacy rate
LSGIs	Local self-government institutions
LSMS	Living standard measurement surveys
LTTE	Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam (Sri Lanka)
MARG	Multiple Action Research Group (India)
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
MIE	Malawi Institute of Education
MINEDAF	Conferences of the ministers of education of African member states, organized by UNESCO
MLA	Monitoring Learning Achievement
MOVA	Movimento de Alfabetização de Adultos [Adult Literacy Programme] (Brazil)
MOVAP-SP	Movimento de Alfabetizaçao de Jovens e Adultos da Cidade de São Paulo [Literacy Movement for Young People and Adults in São Paulo]
MYWO	Maendeleo Ya Wanawake Organization (Kenya)
NAFRE	National Alliance on the Fundamental Right to Education
NCEFA	National Council on Education For All
NDPES	National Development Program for the Education Sector
NEDCAP	Non-conventional Energy Development Corporation of Andhra Pradesh (India)
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NER	Net enrolment ratio
NFE-MIS	Non-Formal Education Management Information System
NFHS	National family health surveys
NFPE	Non-formal primary education
NGIS	Nigerian Girls into Sciences
NGO	Non-governmental organization
NIACE	National Institute of Adult Continuing Education (UK)

NIR	Net intake rate in primary education
NORAD	Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation
OA	Official aid
OAU	Organization of African Unity
ODA	Official development assistance
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OLS	Operation Lifeline (Sudan) (UNICEF)
OREALC	Oficina Regional de Educación de la UNESCO para America Latina y el Caribe (UNESCO Regional Bureau for Education in Latin America and the Caribbean)
ORSTOM	Organisme de recherche scientifique pour les territoires d'outre-mer [Overseas Territories' Scientific Research Body], now Institut de Recherche pour le Développement (IRD) [Development Research Institute] (France)
PAPs	Priority action programmes
PASEC	Programme d'analyse des systèmes éducatifs des pays de la CONFEMEN [Programme for the Analysis of the Educational Systems of CONFEMEN Countries]
PBO	Plan and Budget Organization (Iran)
PCAR	Primary curriculum and assessment review
PCDP	People's Campaign for Decentralized Planning
PCR	Primary completion rate
PDDE	Programme décennal de développement de l'éducation [Ten-year Education Development Programme]
PEDP	Primary Education Development Programme
PETI	Programa de erradicação do trabalho infantile (Programme for the Eradication of Child Labour] (Brazil)
PGRM	Programa de Garantia de Renda Minima [Minimum Wage Guarantee Programme] (Brazil)
PIRLS	Progress in reading literacy study
PISA	Programme for International Student Achievement
PLA	Participatory learning and action
PPAC	Philippines Plan of Action for Children
PPCR	Proxy primary completion rate
PPP	Purchasing Power Parity
PRELAC	Proyecto Regional de Educación para America Latina y el Caribe [Regional Education Project for Latin America and the Caribbean]
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
PSA	Public service agreement
PTAs	Parent-teacher associations
PTSAs	Parent-teacher-student associations
SACMEQ	Southern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SADTU	South African Democratic Teachers' Union
SAGE	Strategies for advancing girls' education
SARA	Support for Analysis and Research in Africa
SERNAM	Servicio Nacional de la Mujer [Ministry of Education and Women's National Service] (Chile)
SEWA	Self-Employed Women's Association (India)
SGBs	School governing bodies
SIDA	Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency
SIMCE	Sistema de Medición de la Calidad de la Educación [Educational Quality Measurement System] (Chile)
SIMPOC	Statistical Information and Monitoring Programme on Child Labour
SIPRI	Stockholm International Peace Research Institute
SSC	Senior school certificate
STI/AIDS	Sexually-transmitted infection/AIDS
SWAs	Sector-wide approaches
TDP	Telugu Desam Party (India)
TGE	Transitional Government of Ethiopia

TIMSS	Third International Mathematics and Science Study
UEE	Universal elementary education
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UN	United Nations
UNAIDS	Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS
UNDESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs.
UNDP	United Nations Development Fund
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNGEI	United Nations Girls Education Initiative
UNHCR	United Nations High Commission for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNICEF-TACRO	The Americas and Caribbean Regional Office of UNICEF
UNIFEM	United Nations Development Fund for Women
UNLD	United Nations Literacy Decade
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
UNRISD	United Nations Research Institute for Social Development
UNWRA	United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East
UPE	Universal primary education
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WCEFA	World Conference on Education For All
WEDO	Women's Environment and Development Organization
WEI	World Education Indicators
WHO	World Health Organization
WID	Women In Development
WOM (UN)	Advancement of Women (UN division)

Gender and Education for All
THE LEAP TO EQUALITY

All countries have pledged to eliminate gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005. This was agreed at the World Education Forum in Dakar in 2000, a year when a significant majority of the 104 million children not in primary school were girls and almost two-thirds of the 860 million non-literate people were women.

But ensuring the right to learn is not just a question of numbers. It is part of a much broader agenda to achieve gender equality so that girls and boys, women and men, enjoy the same learning opportunities and outcomes, personally, professionally and politically. This intention is enshrined in the 2015 goal to achieve gender equality which covers rights to, within and through education.

This new edition of the EFA Global Monitoring Report paints a picture of where countries stand in their efforts to achieve these goals, highlights innovative and best practice, suggests priorities for national strategies and looks at how the international community is meeting its commitments towards EFA.

Cover photo
Pumla studying in front of her home,
Khayelitsha, South Africa, 2003.
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