


2000

Thematic paper on **MDG 2** 

**ACHIEVE UNIVERSAL
PRIMARY EDUCATION**

2005

2010

2015

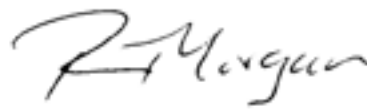
FOREWORD

I am extremely pleased to introduce this set of analytical papers on the Millennium Development Goals¹. The papers were produced by the member agencies of the UN Development Group Task Force on the MDGs, working in clusters. Each paper had one or more lead agencies and a set of member agencies in support. The Task Force was also able to draw on the ideas, experience and advice of a considerable range of other agencies and experts, including from Non-Governmental, academic and other sectors. A peer review process was held to move towards the final versions, which incorporated detailed and rich discussions on the ideas generated by the papers.

In this effort, the central intention of the Task Force was to try to identify promising or successful experiences in country efforts to move towards the various Goals, and to gain understanding of the factors contributing to this progress. The focus of the papers is therefore on the national and local level; on country-led (rather than UN) efforts; and on a range of immediate and underlying factors that appear to be important or essential in enabling progress under differing conditions and country circumstances.

The papers do not present or represent formal, official UN policy positions. Rather, they reflect the collective analytical efforts of the MDG Task Force, as endorsed by the UN Development Group, in an effort to bring ideas and suggestions, based on country and field experience, to the attention of UN Member States and development practitioners everywhere. We hope that, as such, the papers provide a valuable contribution to the continuing discussions on policies, programmes, advocacy, financing and other conditions which are needed to achieve broad-based and sustained progress towards development goals, particularly for the poorest and most vulnerable people and families.

As Chair of the Task Force, I wish to thank and acknowledge the very many colleagues in the United Nations and in many agencies and capacities beyond, who contributed – with constant enthusiasm and great insight – to the development of these papers. Particular thanks to my Co-Vice Chairs from UNDP and FAO, and to Debbie Landey and all her team at UN DOCO for their unfailing support.



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¹ These papers cover MDGs 1 – 7. The UN's Gap Task Force issues reports and assessments on MDG8.



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1. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY



1.1 INTRODUCTION

- A completed primary education is a basic human right and is necessary for enjoying many other rights. It is transformative and empowering, and a means for accessing broad economic, social, political and cultural benefits. Primary education is a powerful driver for realizing all of the MDGs and for sustainable development more generally.
- MDG2 – providing a full course of primary schooling for everyone in every country – will not be attained everywhere by the target date of 2015. However, significant achievements in expanding access to schooling have been made in many countries during the past decade. For instance, enrolments in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) increased by 51 per cent between 1999 and 2007 and the net enrolment rate in South and West Asia (SWA) had reached 84 per cent by 2007. The global number of primary school-aged children not in school fell during the period by 33 million.
- However, progress has not been universal. In 2007, the net enrolment rate was below 80 per cent in at least 29 countries with little improvements in this rate made in many countries since 1999, including having fallen in at least 20. Both retaining children in the primary cycle and providing them with a decent education remain problematic. In 2007, at least 72 million primary-aged children were not in school and if the enrolment trends between 1999 and 2007 continue, a predicted 56 million children will not be in school in 2015.
- A lack of primary education in recent decades has led to high levels of adult illiteracy. Overall, one sixth of the world's population, approximately 760 million persons, cannot read or write. Targets for basic education must go beyond universal primary education (UPE) as the broader Education for All (EFA) goals illustrate with their emphasis on early childhood care and education, quality of learning, gender equality, and learning skills for young people, and adult literacy.
- Disparities in access, quality of education enjoyed by learners and in learning outcomes among populations and groups exist due in large part to social, economic and cultural factors. Marginalized individuals and groups do not just accumulate fewer years of education, but often received a poorer-quality education that results in low levels of learning achievement. Underlying causes are diverse and interconnected, with household poverty being one of the strongest and most persistent factors for educational marginalization, gender is another important barrier, especially when these are combined with other factors such as culture, language, ethnicity, race, geographical location, disability, health and other socio-political contexts.
- Emerging concerns, such as global warming and the impact of recent economic downturn on national and household financial capacities, have underscored that primary education is struggling to be recognized as a major priority for additional policy attention and resources. There are proven multiple benefits of education on other aspects of development. It is important to remind the international community and policy-makers of the importance of primary education in strategies addressing a range of other developmental goals, including the other MDGs, and, in turn, the impact which other sectors have on educational outcomes. In the years leading to 2015, these aspects need to be emphasized.
- Education is increasingly linked with other sectors, with the impact of basic education felt strongly across a number of sectors and goals. Similarly, progress in education depends on advances in achieving other public goals, including the MDGs not related to education. It is important that policies recognize the inter-linkages between education and other areas, and that synergies are created in order to achieve the different internationally agreed upon goals.

1.2. SUCCESSFUL STRATEGIES AND MEASURES

1.2.1 Partnerships and coordination of partners' efforts

- MDGs and EFA goals were formulated and agreed upon at international meetings. Since then, there has been a plethora of multilateral agency initiatives (particularly UN agencies) at global, regional and national levels, including those for gender, literacy, child labour and the abolition of school fees.
- Very few bilateral donors give priority to primary education. Total aid commitments to primary education increased considerably between 2000 and 2004 but have stagnated since then with an equal share of total aid which goes to education. This aid remained the same in 2007 as in 1999. In comparison, during that same period, the share of aid allotted to health doubled.

1.2.2. Prioritizing, planning and financing primary education

- While the whole international community has encouraged the adoption of the MDGs, including for primary education, it is national governments who have been given primary responsibility for developing and implementing appropriate measures. The drive for UPE must come first and foremost from political leaders, and should then be translated through legal, governance, and bureaucratic structures with sufficient capacities and adequately resourced policies and plans, into greater action. Poverty Reduction Strategies through which budgetary priorities are set have been effective in this respect in several African countries. Quality has improved, and more realistic and costed-plans have been developed, making increasing use of government education and management information systems (EMIS). This can create a virtuous circle where good and demanding planning practices require higher quality information, and vice versa.

- The evidence on public expenditures is moderately positive. The share of GDP for education has increased in approximately 60 per cent of low income countries, and particularly in SSA countries, since 1999. However, this share ranges considerably from more than 6.0 per cent of GDP in some large African countries to less than 3 per cent in some large South Asian countries. Looking at expenditures more broadly, there appears to have been no increase in the share of overall education expenditure which goes to primary education, though there are some exceptions such as Burundi, Mali and Swaziland.

1.2.3 Sector policies for expanding and improving primary education

- Educational policies and programmes aimed at making primary education more available, affordable, accessible and culturally appropriate rely on information that both identifies the characteristics of specific groups of children who are currently not yet taking part in the education system in order to develop policies and programmes that respond to their particular needs. Experiences of the past decade demonstrate that setting carefully derived targets and focusing on the outcomes of government programmes, including holding organizations or individuals responsible for reaching them, are strong determinants of success. Once targets have been set, they need to be followed up by well-resourced policies and programmes – that are integrated into or aligned with broader national policies and programmes.
- In addition to providing additional public expenditure, many governments have diminished or altogether removed the burden of schooling costs on households (for example, by abolishing school fees and providing compensatory grants to schools) and have introduced more accessible forms of schooling (such as community schools, mobile schools, distance learning), and through contracting out their responsibilities to various



types of NGOs). Both of these approaches are important steps to increase the access of education for poor and marginalized learners.

- Several governments have also given greater attention to ensuring, through careful sector planning across all levels, the availability of secondary school options, which is an important determinant of primary school completion as well as a general provision of quality education at least until children reach the minimum age of employment. Evidence has shown that it is at the secondary level that the stronger impact of education on other sectors is more clearly observed. Moreover, recent renewed interest in post-primary education further underscores the necessity to look beyond primary education in the achievement of the other MDGs.
- Setting specific enrolment and retention targets for different groups of marginalized and vulnerable learners has proved effective in forcing policies and strategies to be developed with the particular needs of these learners in mind.
- MDG2 and the EFA primary education goals are not only about access to school but also about learning. There has been growing international interest and concern regarding the importance of the quality of education including indicators of quality as well as learning assessments. Results of assessments depict the low levels of student learning achievements, particularly in developing countries.
- Efforts to make children more ready for school and vice versa have increased during the past decade through the expansion of early childhood programmes in pre-primary, through nutrition and health programmes and initiatives to make schools more welcoming and effective.
- The quantity and quality of teachers is central to achieving the education goals. Massive enrolment expansion in some countries has led to the recruitment of para or contract teachers, often from the community of varying professional quality.

Their quality varies. However, as the crisis of numbers has receded, governments and NGOs are often actively providing more systematic training to these teachers so as to eventually absorb them into the regular teaching cadre. Several governments have also expanded and improved in-service training on new curriculum and teaching materials across all teaching levels, many using the cluster school model. There are other relevant issues that require comprehensive teacher policies to address recruitment, retention, professional development, employment and teaching conditions, and teacher status.

- Overall, the promotion of conducive learning environments and quality education is addressed in various ways, including through the expansion of pre-schooling and other early child care programmes, the introduction of effective and comprehensive teacher strategies, the development of appropriate curriculum, teaching and learning materials, and pedagogy, the promotion of local languages of instruction and multicultural education as well as through appropriate school management and leadership.
- Expanding and improving primary education requires more than just additional resources and good sector policies – it requires better ways of organizing and managing the sector. During the past decade, following earlier experiences in Latin America, there have been widespread efforts to decentralize decision-making to lower levels of government or administration, often accompanied by policies to increase community participation. Responsibility of communities increased from fund-raising to areas such as preparing school plans, overseeing school budgets, appointing contract teachers and allocating scholarships.
- Many external factors affect the likelihood of a child enrolling in school, remaining enrolled and concretely mastering aspects of the curriculum. Some of these can be influenced directly by public policy. Therefore, education sector policymakers

and practitioners need to be aware of the inter-connectedness across sectors. Educational performance is affected by, for instance, policies related to child labour, nutrition, child and maternal health, and social protection and employment guarantees. Similarly, international and national legal instruments can enhance education not just by setting standards for public policy, but also by enabling people to claim entitlements. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights and many other instruments operating under the UN auspices set standards for rights in education and provide a backbone for MDG2 and the EFA goals. These cross-sector engagements are in addition to those addressing finance, planning and public sector employment

1.3. FACTORS UNDERPINNING SUCCESSFUL STRATEGIES AND MEASURES

- The most important determinant of acceleration towards UPE is political will at the highest level focusing on poverty reduction, while recognizing the crucial role education plays in development. This will then needs to be demonstrated legally and through appropriate planning and budgeting procedures, underpinned by evidence-based policymaking and results based management. Moreover, as it is usually more expensive and difficult to implement initiatives aimed at enrolling the last 10 per cent of children currently not in school, an explicit commitment of financial resources for these children is needed.
- A sector-wide approach to education policy and planning helps focus on the interactions between levels and assists in maximizing their synergies. Similarly, more support for primary education will come from a more thorough understanding of broad cross-sector outcomes, and success of primary education programmes will come from increased coordination of activities with other sectors that have an impact on education outcomes.

- Good governance, defined as greater accountability, transparency and participation, can improve the efficiency with which resources, financial and otherwise, are used. One of the most important ways in which this debate has affected the education sector is through the advocacy of greater decentralization of political and/or bureaucratic decision-making in the sector, coupled with efforts to give increased responsibility to the community and their engagement in effective dialogue with policy-makers and partners.
- A comprehensive approach to capacity development across the education sector is essential, especially in countries which have decentralized decision-making and management.
- Increased public pressure placed on governments to expand and improve primary education results in a greater likelihood of this becoming a reality.

1.4. CRITICAL GAPS

- The remarkable achievements in enrolling large numbers of young children in school in many countries shows that rapid progress can be made, such as in the case of Tanzania, in which NER increased from 50 per cent to 98 per cent between 1999 and 2007. Poor results in several other countries, however, suggest that critical constraints, or gaps, remain.
- Financial scarcities are often pinpointed as the most important constraint. As a group, low income countries spend a lower share of GDP and of total expenditure on education than do middle and high income countries, with wide variations between country figures. However, the political economy of each country is different and it cannot be assumed that large increases can be obtained on demand. While aid is a very small part of total spending on primary education overall, it does play a key role in some, particularly poor, countries and is often an important source of funds for non salary items. Trying to quantify the global 'financing gap' is risky.



The *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010* estimates a financing gap of USD 24 billion a year to 2015 of which USD 16 billion would be 'required' from aid. Aid to basic education in 2008 is estimated at around USD 3 billion. More aid for basic education would require a substantial increase in total aid.

- **Financing is not the only, or necessarily always the most important, constraint.** Capacities of national education systems matter enormously and are often inadequate. The capacity to plan, manage, implement, and account for the results of policies and programmes is critical for achieving development objectives. However, in practice, few countries have put in place comprehensive capacity development programmes. Most discussion in this area is of 'gaps' in the capacity to plan and formulate policy, linked to the 'gap' in good quality data and monitoring and evaluation systems. Of equal importance, however, is the constraint resulting from inadequately designed bureaucratic systems, organizations and institutions that can restrict the effective implementation of activities.

1.5. KEY LESSONS FOR SHARPENING FOCUS AND SCALING-UP GOOD PRACTICES

- Variations in achievement towards UPE across countries suggest that **political commitment supported by appropriate policies and coordinated provision of technical and financial resources can make a difference.**

- **Primary education needs to be developed within a holistic approach to education**, one which incorporates stronger planning and implementation processes and linkages between education and broader policy and budgetary frameworks.
- **In developing strategies, it is important to keep in mind that "One shoe does not fit all"**. Disaggregated initiatives, programmes and interventions based on an inclusive education sector analysis and explicit commitments to equity are needed.
- **Social protection and safety net programmes can cushion the poor and marginalized and provide strong incentives for enrolling and remaining in school.** On a more general level, wherever possible, there should be an increased focus on cross-sector influences and on contributions of primary education to other MDGs.
- While both domestic and external financial resources must be increased, **there is a need to build robust education systems that are resilient to external pressures** by focusing on capacity development and improving governance and efficiency.

2. INTRODUCTION



MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOAL 2: Achieve universal primary education

TARGET 2.A: Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling

2.1 Net enrolment ratio in primary education

2.2 Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach last grade of primary

2.3 Literacy rate of 15-24 year-olds, women and men

Primary education is a basic human right, both transformative and empowering¹. Beyond this intrinsic importance, it is also indispensable for the enjoyment of other human rights and is a means for accessing broader social, economic, political and cultural benefits. Education contributes to building more just societies through reducing poverty and inequalities. No country has ever climbed the human development ladder without steady investment in education. Primary education is a powerful driver for the realization of all the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and for sustainable development more broadly.

2.1 GLOBAL PROGRESS AND THE STATUS ON MDG2

The achievement of universal primary education (UPE), which is the second of the MDGs and the subject of one of the Education for All (EFA) goals², requires that every child enroll in a primary school and completes the full cycle of primary schooling. For this to be achieved by 2015, every child in every country would need to be currently attending school. As this is not the case, these goals will not be universally achieved by the target date. It is important to note, however, that considerable progress has been made in this regard in many countries, particularly in encouraging enrolment into the first tier of schooling. Some of the world's poorest countries have dramatically increased enrolments, narrowed gender gaps and extended opportunities for disadvantaged groups. Enrolments across South and West Asia

(SWA) and sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), in particular, soared by 23 per cent and 51 per cent respectively between 1999 and 2007³. The primary education net enrolment rates (NER) increased at a much faster pace than in the 1990s and by 2007 rose at 86 per cent and 73 per cent respectively in these two regions. For girls, the NER rates in 2007 were a little lower at 84 per cent and 71 per cent respectively. The global number of primary school-age children out-of-school fell by 33 million compared to 1999.

Progress has not been universal. The primary education NER remains below 70 per cent in at least 15 countries and below 80 per cent in at least 29 countries⁴. There was little improvement in the NER between 1999 and 2007 in several countries and in at least 20, the enrolment rate even fell. Even in middle income countries there are often large numbers of children from marginalized social and economic groups who do not participate in primary schooling. In addition to the large number of children who live in conflict-affected countries and regions, and in other situations where governments and administrations are particularly weak, groups of children most at risk include indigenous and minority ethnic/language populations, those living in slums and in very sparsely populated areas, migrants, nomadic populations, individuals with diverse learning needs, children with disabilities and, in general, the poor. Within each of these categories, girls' participation tends to be lower than that of boys. Inequalities, disparities and multiple combined forms of exclusion persist and are often hidden.



Progression through the school system continues to pose a challenge in many countries. While existing data is not able to provide an accurate and complete picture, it appears that in spite of significant success in initially enrolling children into primary school, nearly one in three of those who do enroll in SSA and SWA drop out. Although some re-enroll at a later stage in life and eventually complete the cycle many others do not. Even in several countries in Latin America approximately one-fifth of children do not reach the last grade of the primary cycle. Again, these children tend to be members of marginalized groups. Overall, at least 72 million primary school aged children worldwide were not in school in 2007, one-third of whom live in conflict-affected states⁵. Girls comprise 54 per cent of the total amount and 58 per cent in SWA. Projections based on recent progress in school enrolments show that at least 56 million primary-age children are still unlikely to be in school in 2015 (figure 1). A new impetus to achieving the basic education goals is

urgently required by governments in those countries which have either not given an overall priority to basic education or have not focused sufficiently on groups of disadvantaged children.

Failure to provide universal schooling in all regions of the world during the last few decades has led to large numbers of illiterate youth and adults. According to figures for 2000-2007 some 125 million youth (age 15-24) and around 760 million adults (age 15 and over) are illiterate, two-thirds of whom are women. More than half of youth and adult illiterates live in SWA and one-third of youth illiterates and one-fifth of adult illiterates are in SSA. Assessing the progress in reducing the number of illiterates is difficult, but best estimates suggest a fall of the youth and adult illiterates by around 15 per cent and 13 per cent respectively over the past 15-20 years. The adult population has increased by around 30 per cent during this time period, suggesting a positive, although clearly

FIGURE 1: A CHILD'S PROGRESS OF ENTERING AND STAYING IN SCHOOL VARY BY COUNTRY

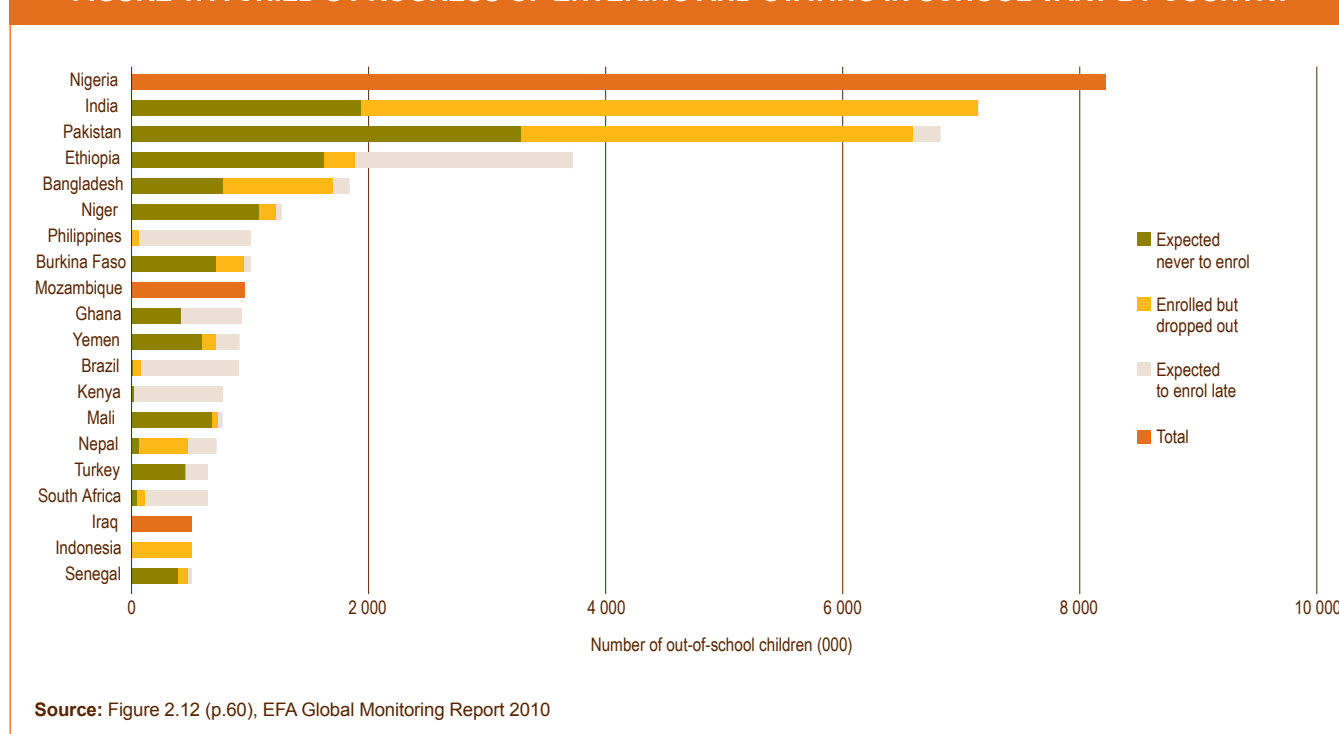
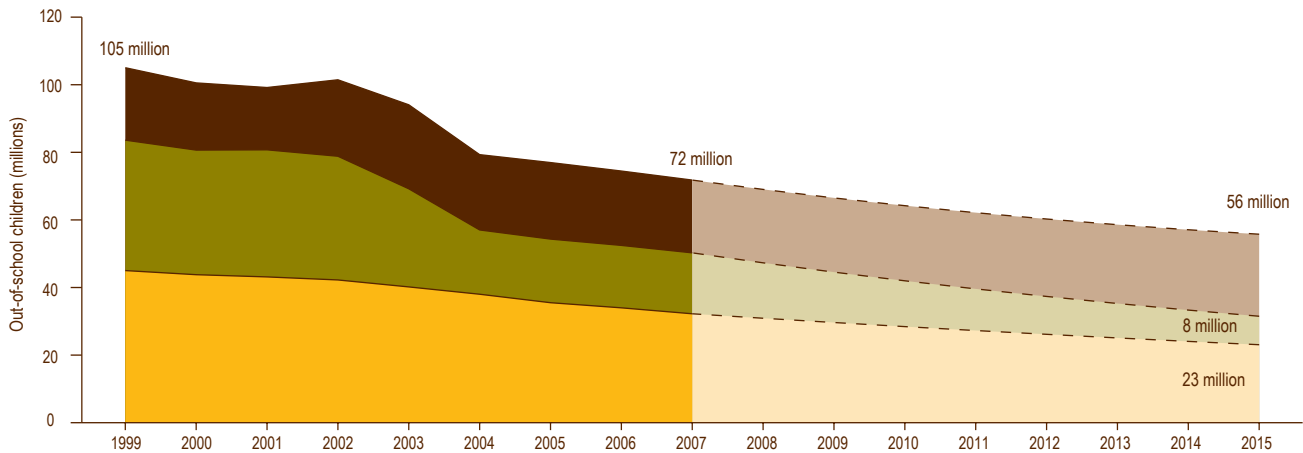
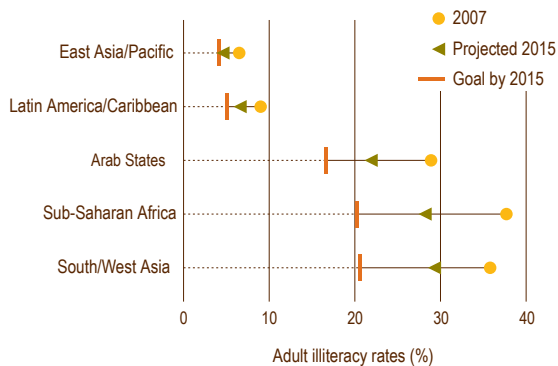


FIGURE 2: MISSING THE TARGET – OUT-OF-SCHOOL TRENDS PROJECTED TO 2015



Source: Figure 2.8 (p.57), EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010

FIGURE 3: AT THE PRESENT RATE, REGIONS FURTHEST BEHIND WILL MISS THE LITERACY TARGET FOR 2015



Source: Figure 2.35 (p.101), EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010

inadequate, trend in reductions of the number of illiterate persons. However, most of this reduction has been a direct result from the expansion of primary education rather than through the implementation of widespread and successful adult literacy programmes. By 2015, youth illiteracy rates are anticipated to average almost 18 per cent, 13 per cent, and 7 per cent across both SSA, SWA and the Arab States respectively, while the estimated illiteracy rates for adults are 28 per cent and 29 per cent and 22 per cent respectively (figure 3).

2.2 DISPARITIES IN ACCESS AND THE QUALITY OF EDUCATION

To achieve universal primary education and the other EFA goals by 2015, this global picture should also be looked at through an equity lens. There are disparities in access, quality of education enjoyed by learners and learning outcomes among populations and groups due to social, economic and cultural factors. According to the Deprivation and Marginalization in Education (DME) data (GMR 2010), while the vast majority of adults in



rich countries will have accumulated 10 to 15 years of education, nearly one out of three in the 22 countries covered by the DME have fewer than four years of education. In eleven of these countries, the figure rises to 50 per cent. In 26 countries, 20 per cent or more of those aged 17 to 22 have fewer than two years of schooling. The achievement deficit is widely spread across individuals and groups facing broader educational disadvantages. This is found predominantly in the poorest countries, but also exists in richer countries. Marginalized individuals and groups do not just accumulate fewer years of education, but often receive a poor-quality education that results in low levels of learning achievement.

Underlying causes of educational marginalization are diverse and interconnected. Given that nearly 1.4 billion people live on less than USD 1.25 a day, household poverty is one of the strongest and most persistent factors contributing to educational marginalization and, therefore, a formidable barrier to reach the MDG 2 and the other EFA goals. The effects of poverty are strongly conditioned by social attitudes. Moreover, the poorest households often cannot ensure their children continue to receive schooling when faced with external shocks such as droughts, floods or economic downturns. Gender, along with poverty, constitutes the strongest barrier and has negative effects on education, especially when combined with other factors such as culture and language. In Turkey, for instance, 43 per cent of Kurdish-speaking girls from the poorest households have fewer than two years of education, while the national average is 6 per cent. In Nigeria, 97 per cent of poor Hausa-speaking girls have fewer than two years of education. With 166 million children aged 5 to 14 engaged in labour in 2004, child labour remains a barrier to education. Group-based identities such as ethnicity, race, language and culture are also among the deepest fault lines in education, and are often reflected in human geography. People living in slums, remote rural areas or conflict-affected zones are typically among the poorest and most vulnerable in any society, and are underserved in education.

Disability remains one of the least visible but most potent factors in educational marginalization, with an estimated 150 million children facing associated difficulties. HIV and AIDS also have a wide-ranging impact on education, as an estimated 33 million people were living with the pandemic in 2007. Although these different groups face distinct challenges, they share discrimination and stigmatization that limit their education opportunities.

2.3 MULTIPLE BENEFITS OF EDUCATION FOR ACHIEVING THE OTHER MDGS AND BEYOND

Efforts to achieve universal primary education and other aspects of the Education for All (EFA) agenda have to be addressed in harmony, or in some cases have to fight for attention, politically and publically, with other permanent and transitional national and international priorities such as food and fuel shortages and price increases, climate change, disasters triggered by natural and man-made hazards, infrastructure, livelihoods, and health. While many of these issues are inter-related and interventions in one may have positive multiplier effects on others, in practice, as countries emerge from the deepest world-wide economic recession since the 1930s, political attention and the allocation of any additional government revenues will be closely fought for. Although signs of economic recovery have started to emerge, it is feared that the aftershock of economic turmoil will be felt sharply across the social sectors and continue beyond 2010. The effects of the crisis on education have already been felt and case studies conducted in 12 countries in August 2009 by UNESCO give reason for concern. Education budgets were still resilient in most surveyed countries, but several governments were planning to decrease their future budgets to reflect anticipated declines in revenue. Other UNESCO studies showed that the effects of the crisis on education seem more visible at the community levels than is indicated by government budget statistics and that vulnerable households were facing difficulties in meeting school

costs. There were a number of accounts of increased absenteeism, school dropouts and child labour. In some countries, educational quality and equity in public schools were being jeopardized and the demand for education was expected to be affected due to declining household incomes and increases contributions required from families to counteract the fall in government allocations.

Protecting the gains made in primary education in many countries during the past decade and ensuring further progress towards the goal of universalization will require governments to increase the priority given to this sector and donors to expand and improve the effectiveness of their aid programmes. For this to occur in these difficult times, stronger cases emphasizing the need for inclusive basic education of reasonable quality in order for gains to be made in many other areas including poverty reduction, public health, gender equality, environmental sustainability, and participation and democratization. Arguments to make include:

- Links between increased education and higher productivity and incomes in agriculture are now well established. As this is the sector in which many of the poor participate, strengthening education within this sector is a goal to reducing poverty.
- Public returns of education are higher for low-income countries, for lower levels of schooling and for women.
- Given that the level of a mother's education (primary and secondary) is one of the strongest determinants of mother and child well-being and of daughters' enrollment in school, increased female access to education generates cumulative social benefits.
- Ensuring children's access to school is an important aspect of HIV prevention, as higher levels of education are associated with safer sexual behaviour, delayed sexual debut and overall reductions in girls' vulnerability to HIV.

- The Programme for International Student Assessments (PISA) of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) shows how science teaching equips young people with greater awareness of environmental issues and a stronger sense of responsibility for sustainable development. For the link between education and environment, science education is a vital first step to ultimately drive political solutions on these issues and to hold governments accountable for addressing environmental problems.
- Education is conducive to democracy and peace in that it can facilitate the development of informed judgments about issues that need to be addressed through national policies. This is particularly important at a time of growing inequality within economies and societies and when around one third of out-of-school children live in conflicted affected states.
- Increased levels of good quality primary and secondary education contribute to improving the understanding of the notion of peace, tolerance and human rights, conflict and mitigation. Additional years of formal schooling tend to reduce a boy's risk of becoming involved in conflict.

These and the many other social benefits result directly from an extension of primary education and indirectly from behaviours associated with higher levels of education where primary education provides the base.

While the impact of basic education across sectors and goals is wide, it is also the case that progress in education in turn depends on advances in achieving other public goals, including the non-education MDGs. It is important that policies recognize the inter-linkages between education and other areas to create synergies in achieving different internationally agreed upon goals.



The remainder of this paper describes some of the successful strategies and measures which particular governments have undertaken during the past decade in order to move towards the achievement of universal primary education. While many were undertaken within the education sector itself, important steps were also taken across other parts of government reflecting a broader commitment to education as part of an overall effort to reduce poverty. From the initiatives, it is possible to identify some of the underlying factors which underpin the many successful education sector

programmes which have been implemented during the past decade, and which other countries might learn from. However, the large number of children that remain out-of-school, the continuing high dropout rates and the widely reported low average levels of learning achievements in schools indicate that several constraints still need to be overcome. Some of these are described below. The paper ends by suggesting some of the lessons which have been learned for sharpening the focus on the MDGs and EFA goals and scaling up successful initiatives.

3. SUCCESSFUL STRATEGIES AND MEASURES

3.1 PARTNERSHIPS AND COORDINATION OF PARTNERS' EFFORTS

The sets of MDGs and EFA goals were derived at meetings convened by multilateral organizations, notably bodies of the United Nations (UNDP, UNESCO, UNFPA, UNICEF, and The World Bank), and attended by governments of developing and developed countries and by representatives of civil society. At the global level, frameworks were created to help promote collaboration across the international community towards the achievement of UPE (and the other EFA goals) through mobilizing political commitment and technical and financial resources. These included the High-Level Group (HLG) on EFA, promoted by UNESCO, and the EFA-Fast Track Initiative (EFA-FTI) created in 2002 to promote the expansion of donor financial support. To address issues and needs of particular groups, several international initiatives have been developed, many, again, by UN agencies. These include the UN Literacy Decade (2003-2012), UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (2005-2014), UN Girls' Education Initiative (UNGEI), Interagency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE), Global Task Force on Child Labour and Education, International Task Force on Teachers for EFA, School Fee Abolition Initiative (SFAI), the Global Initiative on Education and HIV & AIDS (EDUCAIDS), and Focusing Resources on Effective School Health (FRESH). The multilateral agencies that convened the World Education Forum in 2000 in Dakar, Senegal and oversaw the development of the EFA goals have taken recent steps to harmonize their activities in the education sector, in line with the broader global efforts to improve aid effectiveness and the UN's "Delivering as One" process.

Region-specific platforms have contributed to addressing regional needs, sharing knowledge and strengthening policies, including the Conference of Ministers of Education of African Member States (COMEDAF), the Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA) and its working groups,

the Regional Education Project for Latin America and the Caribbean (PRELAC)⁶, the Arab League Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organization (ALECSO) and the South East Asian Members of Education Organization (SEAMEO).

Bilateral and multilateral donors have been important partners of many governments in efforts to reach UPE during the past decade. In the meetings surrounding the development of the MDGs and EFA goals, financial commitments were made by donors and promises of good governance and effective policymaking were made by governments. Total aid commitments for primary education increased considerably between 2000 and 2004 but have largely stagnated since then. Only a small number of donors give priority to primary education within their education aid and some of the largest donors provide relatively little investments. With regard to distribution of aid, there is a limited relationship across low-income countries between per capita aid commitments and measures of educational need. In spite of these aspects of the aid picture, several developing countries have received aid at a level which has enabled them to implement access and quality programmes which would have otherwise been delayed. In addition, the impact of donors and the international community more generally is not limited to financial flows. International partners have strongly influenced several countries in the adoption of priorities and measures such as girls' education, early childhood care and development (ECCD), youth and adult literacy, education in conflict and post-conflict situations, abolition of child labour, child-friendly schools, quality education, assessment of learning achievement, and education for marginalized population groups

Notwithstanding the efforts of the broad set of donor organizations to drive the entire international community to set goals for basic education and to encourage the adoption of policies aimed at moving countries towards them, it is national governments which have been mainly responsible for implementing (or not



implementing), financing, and sustaining the appropriate measures, some of which are described below.

3.2 PRIORITIZING, PLANNING AND FINANCING PRIMARY EDUCATION

It is clear that in each country the drive for UPE must come from the top of the political hierarchy and must be made a personal priority of senior politicians. In SSA, there are several country examples of this having been achieved, such as in Tanzania, Ethiopia, Burkina Faso and Benin. In India, universal schooling has again been driven by strong political leadership in several of the state governments, including Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, Kerala and Uttar Pradesh. Political will requires that legal, governance and bureaucratic structures are in place which can translate this will through to government expenditures and other resources allocations, including trained teachers. In several countries, particularly across SSA where Uganda was an early successful example, governments have put in place formal Poverty Reduction Strategies (PRSs) which provide an instrument and route for policy priorities, such as UPE, to be supported through additional government resources.

Political support for UPE plus a resource allocation framework through which it is possible to translate this support into increased resources requires effective sector policies and implementation capacity. These in turn need strong sector planning procedures and plans. Some improvement in these areas has been seen during the past decade, partly as a result of Finance Ministries requiring sector departments to be more realistic in budget submissions, partly as a consequence of several donors' desire to provide financial support through sector-wide plans (SWAps) and direct budget support, and partly due to the requirement that countries prepare costed education sector plans in order to be considered for funding through the EFA - FTI process. Sector plans have been particularly useful when they have been

prepared within realistic cost constraints and when ministries have been required to consider trade offs and to set detailed priorities. Such plans are of greatest benefit when they are prepared within a coherent planning and budgeting system which covers all government activities and which is used for the explicit purpose of funding government priorities based on broad-based consultations.

A demand by finance and planning ministries that ministries of education improve their planning and budgeting activities has, in turn, resulted in a greater demand for accurate information on both the inputs to the education sector and the resulting outputs and outcomes. Education monitoring and evaluation units exist in many education ministries in various forms, but have often been given little focus, importance or resources. In the past decade, this situation has begun to change as accurate information is regarded as necessary for supporting arguments for additional financial support.

Globally, the vast majority of education financing is raised domestically. For countries to accelerate progress towards UPE and other EFA goals, extra public resources need be made available. In particular, it is important that governments provide free and compulsory education for all. While households can and do contribute to the costs of schooling, public expenditure is key. The amount allocated to primary education depends largely on how effectively the government can raise overall revenues, partly through higher rates of economic growth and partly through reforms of fiscal policies to maximize returns from all potential sources of economic activity – including attacking corruption and non-payment of tax revenues, tracing deposits in tax havens, and raising contributions from the informal economy. The allocation of these revenues to the education sector in general and then to primary education itself reflects governmental priorities.

The shares of GDP spent on education vary considerably across developing countries, for instance 6.9 per cent in Kenya and 6.0 per cent in Ethiopia

compared to 2.7 per cent in Pakistan and 2.6 per cent in Bangladesh. Shares of total government expenditure allotted to education similarly vary. Overall, according to data from 105 countries, the trend in education expenditures has been moderately positive. Between 1999 and 2006, as a share of GDP, they increased in 65 countries and fell in 40. The Addis Ababa Declaration adopted at the Ninth Meeting of the High-Level Group on EFA in February 2010 urgently called on national governments *“to increase the current level of domestic spending to education to at least 6 per cent of GNP and/or 20 per cent of public expenditure, with greater focus on good policy, cost-effective use of resources, transparency, accountability and equitable allocations of resources according to need”* - too many countries are still missing these targets. Within the education sector, although on the whole there appears to have been no increase in the share being allocated to primary education, there are some exceptions such as Burundi, Mali and Swaziland. Across SSA almost half of all education expenditures are for primary schooling but, with an expanding focus on secondary and higher education in many countries, primary education budgets are being squeezed even before the goal of UPE has been reached.

3.3 SECTOR POLICIES FOR EXPANDING AND IMPROVING PRIMARY EDUCATION

3.3.1 Identifying marginalized learners and making education more affordable, accessible and culturally appropriate

Educational policies and programmes developed to make primary education more available, affordable, accessible and culturally appropriate require an identification of the characteristics of specific groups of children who are not yet taking part in the education system and responding to their particular constraints. Policies and measures to make education available and affordable may include, among other policies, abolishing school fees, providing subsidies for other costs (textbooks, uniforms, transportation, and school

meals), delivering schooling through innovative approaches (community schools, mobile schooling, distance learning, multi-grade teaching, education in emergencies, support for non-state providers). It is important to ensure that the provision, delivery and content of education is culturally appropriate.

Identifying and including the marginalized children, youth and adults

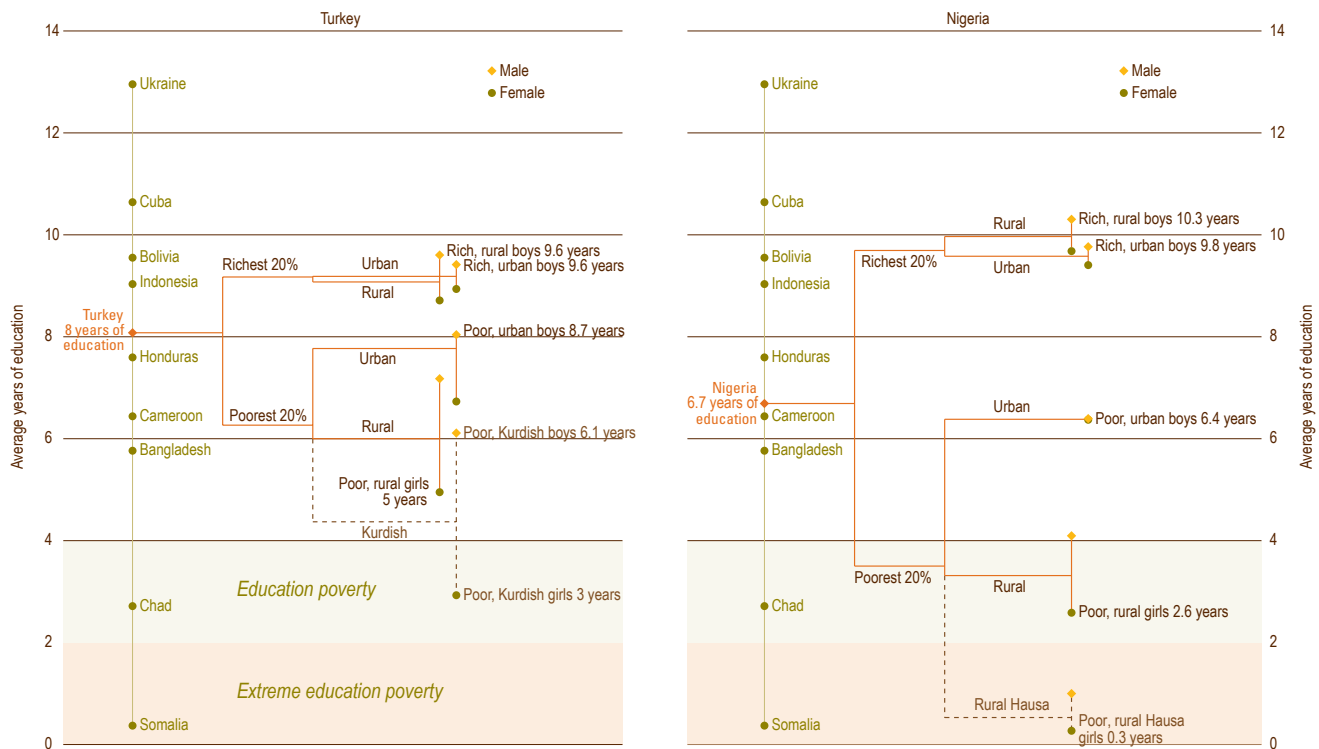
As countries move closer towards universal primary schooling, those left behind are increasingly the most economically and socially marginalized and the hardest to reach (figure 3). They are also often members of indigenous populations and from disadvantaged ethnic/linguistic and other social groups. Reaching these children will require very specific and targeted measures as well as greater funding. The Gambia, for example, has explicitly acknowledged the extra costs necessary and allocated incremental funding for reaching these ‘hardest to reach’ groups.

Experiences of the past decade demonstrate that setting carefully derived targets and focusing on the outcomes of government programmes, including holding organizations or individuals responsible for reaching them, are strong determinants of success. This is particularly true for enrolment and school retention targets. Targets need to be set individually for separate social groupings – rural children, children of poor families and urban slum households, members of marginalized ethnic or language groups, pastoralists, the disabled, orphans, migrants and so on. While at the regional levels the differences between participation rates in primary schooling for boys and girls are not wide, particularly when compared to those for other characteristics, this is not the case in all countries. Furthermore, within each of the marginalized groups of children, participation rates for girls tend to be below those for boys.

Once targets have been set, they need to be followed up by well-resourced policies and programmes— that are integrated into or aligned with broader national



**FIGURE 4: THE EDUCATION INEQUALITY THREE:
MAPPING MARGINALIZATION IN TURKEY AND NIGERIA**



Sources: See Figure 3.4 and Figure 3.12 in the *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010*.

policies and programmes. Part of the reason for the success of India's District Primary Education Programme in the 1990s (followed by the similarly successful Sarva Shiksha Abiyan) was that enrolment and retention targets were set separately for girls, scheduled caste children and scheduled tribe children and resources were provided for programmes to reach them. In some states, additional groups of children were also individually identified (for instance, religious minorities). In addition to lower rates of initial enrolment, children from marginalized groups tend

to drop out earlier than other children because of a stronger divide between home and school environments. Basic school practices can bridge this divide by ensuring inclusive practices, and culturally responsive gender-sensitive learning environments that build the connections between marginalized children and more mainstream basic school contexts. This is particularly important for the early years of school. In general, if a strong emphasis is placed on children from the most marginalized groups, greater levels of access and retention will spread to other more favoured groups largely as a matter of course.

Reducing household costs of schooling

Everyone has a right to a free and compulsory primary education. Particularly in cash-poor communities, abolishing primary school fees and charges can have a significant effect on enrolment and attendance. UNICEF has supported this policy through the School Fee Abolition Initiative, as has the World Bank. Countries which have abolished school fees over the past decade with positive effects include Kenya, Tanzania, Malawi, Ghana, Ethiopia and Mozambique. In Kenya, enrolments increased in weeks by 1.3 million. The abolition of fees is at least partly credited with Tanzania's success in raising the primary net enrolment ratio from a reported 50 per cent in 1999 to 98 per cent in 2007. Abolishing school fees cannot exist in a vacuum, and experience has shown that effective planning for accommodating the large influx of new learners into education systems is a requirement, while enhancing or at least maintaining the quality of education through, for instance, the construction of additional classrooms and recruitment of qualified teachers to avoid disruption to learning. This, in turn, requires significant extra funding. Another necessity of school fee abolition policies is government payments to schools to compensate for foregone income from fees. Without this, essential materials that ensure schools are effective places of learning will dry up. It is interesting to note that this form of compensation has often been financed by donors. Moreover, experience shows that stakeholder involvement at local and school levels does make a positive difference.

Eliminating other costs associated to schooling

School fees are not the only cost of primary schooling to households. Expenditures on books, uniforms, transportation and other items may be required, and in some communities the loss of income or assistance from even a young child's labour may prove to be an obstacle to their attendance at school. Several countries, particularly in Latin America, have gone beyond abolishing school fees and have anti-poverty,

or social protection, programmes which provide cash payments to households conditional on behaviours such as enrolling children in schools. Ambitious schemes of this type have been implemented widely including in Brazil, Chile, Cambodia, Colombia and Mexico and have been piloted in Kenya and Burkina Faso. Other less ambitious but still important programmes, such as school meals, have been provided in several countries including Ghana, Nigeria and India, where the Federal and state Governments have jointly developed a universal programme. By freeing up resources within households for other types of spending, these schemes aim to increase enrolment, reduce dropout and improve learning outcomes as well as enhance nutrition and child health.

Increasing the benefits of schooling

While school fee abolition and social protection payments are measures to reduce the costs of primary schooling, several governments have also attempted to increase its benefits. While it is not in governments' powers to ensure that there will necessarily be positive economic returns to completing a primary education (though on average the returns have been shown to be positive), many governments have responded to the results of studies which show that one of the main determinants of a child completing a primary cycle is the expectation that he/she can enter a secondary, or lower secondary, school. Currently, however, at least 75 million children at junior secondary level are out-of-school world-wide. This obviously raises issues about the appropriate share of government expenditure for primary and secondary education. There is a strong need to ensure through sector planning across all levels, the availability of secondary school options, which is an important determinant of primary school completion as well as in the general provision of quality education at least until children reach the minimum age of employment. Evidence shows that it is at the secondary level that stronger impacts of education on other sectors are more clearly observed. For instance, as cases in almost all countries show,



having a mother with a secondary education dramatically reduces the risk of child mortality, in comparison to a mother with just a primary education. Moreover, recent renewed interest in technical and vocational education and training (TVET) and higher education further underscores the necessity to look beyond primary education, and recognized the importance of ECCE and post-primary education in the achievement of MDGs other than UPE. This means that primary education should be addressed with a sector-wide perspective, and not in isolation from other levels and areas of education.

Providing schooling

Increasing the incentives to enroll and attend primary schools needs to be accompanied by the provision of facilities which match the characteristics of the children. Not all children live in towns and villages in which conventional schools exist. Many live in remote areas and there have been a variety of innovative responses to often small populations of learners. Equitable allocation of school and classroom infrastructures that address the needs of the marginalized areas and populations can reduce distances and bring schools closer to these hard to reach learners. This is of particular importance for girls' education since the distance between home and schools, and the concern for girls' safety, is a significant factor affecting participation. In addition, it is important to ensure the safety of school infrastructures by adhering to building codes and hazard resistant standards.

The largest financial expenditure required for the expansion of primary school enrolments is classrooms and teachers. The prevailing norms for what physical structures are required for an adequate teaching environment vary across countries and even within them. Some locations require separate classrooms with a desk and chair for each child. Some require a space which can be sub-divided in different ways and for children to sit on mats. Beyond such norms, climatic differences - high temperatures, low temperatures, rain, winds - also have an impact on what is regarded

as appropriate. Cultural and religious norms also play a role and may require separate classrooms for girls. Again, the surge in enrolments has often led to innovative policies and designs and changes in the ways in which schools are built, often with more community input and considerations of alternative building materials. Such variations and innovations have often been linked to wider efforts to decentralize the management of primary education and place more power in the hands of communities (e.g. Nepal, Mongolia).

Other modes of provision include community schools, mobile schools, distance learning, the contracting of NGOs and the use of boarding hostels. Many of these initiatives require multi-grade teaching, which escalated following the publicity given to the Colombia's Escuela Nueva in the 1980s. Additionally, "village" or "community schools" and Community Learning Centres, supported by legislative and governance reforms for decentralization, have long been a popular form of non-formal education in Latin America and parts of Asia and Africa, and are becoming even more instrumental in primary education provisions.

Non-formal education providers

There is a growing realization on the part of several governments that they cannot achieve universal primary education alone. This may result from difficult physical situations where it is not possible to recruit qualified teachers, where class sizes are necessarily very small, where schools may have to operate only in a particular part of the agricultural season and so on, and from situations where administrative systems and infrastructures are very weak (for instance in conflict and post-conflict countries or regions). In both of these situations, socially marginalized groups of children will be at particular risk of not accessing primary education. Non-formal education providers have traditionally offered a pragmatic solution for marginalized children in situations where integrated and targeted approaches play a major role in dealing with a host of issues at the community level that

cannot be accommodated within the formal system. Non-formal education providers, including community-based organizations, cultural fora, church, women's groups and the private sector, are increasingly seen as key partners in the delivery of primary education at the local level. Non-formal education providers also offer an opportunity for the education system to create linkages to qualitative improvements in various dimensions of individual and community life – from the generation of sustainable livelihoods and food security, to disease prevention, reproductive health and awareness and intercultural understanding – in other words, poverty reduction goals.

Non-formal education, and its provision by non-state providers, has potential benefits and has demonstrated these in particular settings but requires some qualification. In many other settings the provision of non-formal education is sub-standard, provided cheaply, and used as an excuse by governments to disengage from their financing responsibilities, perpetuating second class education for marginal groups. Several successful cases have demonstrated that non-formal education as a means of addressing the unmet educational needs on a transitional basis is effective, in particular when it ultimately integrates learners into formal education settings.

3.3.2 Improving the learning environment and quality of education

The MDG 2 emphasizes the completion of '... a full course of primary schooling', the EFA Goal 2 calls for a 'primary education of good quality', and the EFA Goal 6 calls for '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'. Currently, however, many children leave school without being literate, numerate or possessing basic life skills.

Assessing education quality

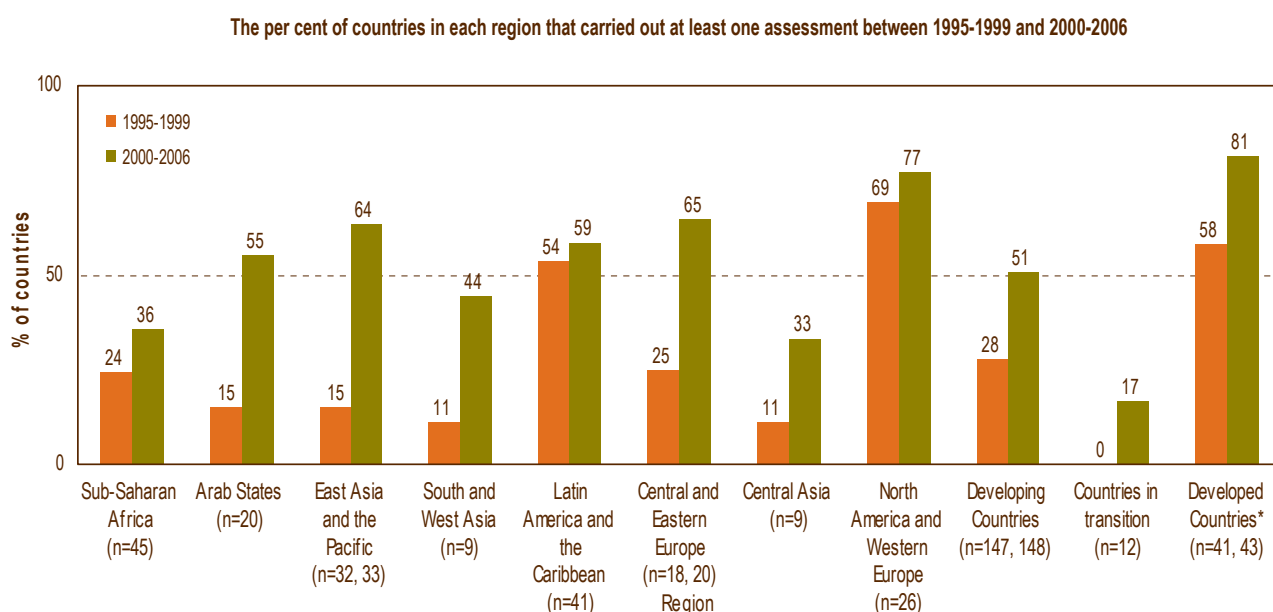
In the last decade, there has been growing international interest and concern regarding the importance of the quality of education. An outgrowth of that concern is an interest in indicators of quality and in learning assessments. This is demonstrated by the increasing number of high-level meetings and initiatives on this issue, as well as by the fast growth in the number of countries participating in international learning assessments such as the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS), PISA, and regional assessments such as the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ), the Program on the Analysis of Education Systems (PASEC), and the Latin American Laboratory for Assessment of the Quality of Education (LLECE) (see Figure 5).

These assessments depict the low levels of student learning achievements, particularly in developing countries, indicating that there is a growing need for the international community and developing countries to begin to more seriously fulfill the learning outcomes and quality MDG and EFA agendas. UNESCO, other international bodies such as the EFA-Fast Track Initiative (EFA-FTI) and individual experts have observed that the definition and broad adoption of concrete and actionable indicators – such as the Net Enrolment Ratio (NER), the Gender Parity Index (GPI) and the Primary Completion Rate (PCR) – has had a positive impact on the ability of countries, and development partners, to move forward in their efforts to reach the MDG 2 and the EFA access and equity goals.

However, indicators useful for measuring progress toward the *quality* goal remain far more elusive, particularly when it comes to learning outcomes and processes that lead to such outcomes. While some of the planning and implementation frameworks (such as EFA-FTI) have defined some indicators for quality



FIGURE 5: THE PER CENT OF COUNTRIES IN EACH REGION THAT CARRIED OUT AT LEAST ONE EDUCATIONAL ASSESSMENT (INTERNATIONAL/NATIONAL) BETWEEN 1995-1999 AND 2000-2006.



Source: Benavot and Tanner. The growth of national learning assessments in the world, 1995–2006. Background paper for EFA *Global Monitoring Report*. UNESCO, 2007.

– such as pupil-teacher ratios, instructional time and expenditure ratios – they are widely regarded as being proxy indicators at best.

There is a need for coordination within the international community to do for the quality goals what has already been done for the access goals: develop indicators that can stimulate investment and policy actions to enable education systems to better assess and improve learning, as well as to set priorities for, and facilitate, capacity building in this area. UNESCO, along with other international and bilateral organizations - including the World Bank, OECD, the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), the European Commission and EFA-FTI - has launched a process to define these additional indicators that take into consideration the

system, school, classroom and individual levels, and propose a space where countries can look for guidance concerning educational assessments.

Increasing the school readiness of children

The first of the EFA goals stresses an improvement in the amount and quality of early childhood care and education (ECCE) which leads to enhanced physical well-being, motor development, social and emotional development and basic cognitive skills. School readiness is a viable means to improved academic achievement in primary and secondary school, positive social and behavioural competencies in adulthood and achieving lifelong learning. Children who enter school 'ready to learn' after having attended quality early learning programmes are more likely to stay in school,

succeed at school and achieve learning goals. Many benefits have been claimed for these programmes and in the overall context of UPE.

There is a large amount of evidence that ECCE programmes are instrumental in improving the retention and learning achievement of children attending primary school. This is particularly the case for poor and disadvantaged children who often do not benefit from supportive parenting and/or as stimulating environments as do wealthier children. In a disadvantaged district of Nepal, more than 95 per cent of children attending an ECCE programme progressed to primary school, compared to 75 per cent of non-participants, and the grade 1 repetition rate of participants was one-seventh that of non-participants, while participants had significantly higher marks on grade 1 exams.

By contributing significantly to reducing drop-out and repetition, ECCE helps improve the internal efficiency of primary education, particularly in the crucial first years of primary schooling. Holistic ECCE programmes go beyond pre-schooling activities and include nutritional and health components and parenting programs that have a substantial impact on future learning capacities. Across developing countries, ECCE programmes are most developed in Latin America but they have also been implemented for several years across India and on a smaller scale in SSA countries including Tanzania, South Africa and Cameroon. School readiness is a successful strategy not only because of the associations with learning achievement but also because it is linked with increased efficiency of primary schools. It is also important to consider the roles of teachers, caregivers and parents, which have implications for ECCE policy and programme design.

Providing more, better trained and motivated teachers

Despite the impact of any continuing economic and social constraints, once children are in school the

decisions around whether to continue attending and the amount of learning which takes place depends largely on the teachers and the quality of classroom instruction. The rapid acceleration of enrolments in many countries in SSA and SWA over the past decade has led to several problems regarding the availability of trained teaching forces, in large part due to the investment in time needed to both develop a pool of secondary school graduates from which to recruit for teacher training as well as the training itself. There are also additional financial constraints and budget limitations to invest in teachers' salaries. In some cases, governments have not been able to increase the number of teachers to compensate for the increase in pupils, leading to explosions in pupil-teacher ratios, including many reports of schools with ratios of over 100:1.

Several countries have had to adopt emergency measures such as hiring school leavers from the local communities and providing them with some form of short-term training and support. Such schemes have been implemented widely across West Africa (particularly in French-speaking countries) and in many states of India. The evidence on the effectiveness of these (commonly termed) contract-teachers varies considerably. Advocates of such policies point to their success in enhancing enrolments, particularly for girls and those in rural areas, and the necessary short-term support they have provided to classrooms. Critics, often including parents of learners taught by contract-teachers, have referred to the increasing permanency of this kind of teacher recruitment as a depiction of a decline in the quality of instruction provided. Following an initial surge in enrolments resulting from the abolition of school fees or other initiatives and the short-term need to recruit less qualified people as teachers, governments have often attempted to provide more systematic training to these contract-teachers in order to eventually absorb them into the regular teaching cadre. However, in practice, the remedial professional development that was promised is often not provided due to a lack of resources and organizational capacity.



Alongside the implementation of emergency measures in countries where enrolments exploded, governments have also tended to expand pre-service teacher education and to reform its content, often in-line with more child-centred teaching methodologies, new curricula, and improved and increased amounts of classroom materials. Additionally, the number of countries offering systematic in-service support programmes for teachers has increased considerably. For these programmes, teachers from surrounding schools often meet regularly in a central location and together receive new information, practice new methods of teaching, develop new teaching materials and share experiences of classroom problems and successes. It is important to note that similar support programmes for teachers need to be designed to better address gender issues. They should help teachers master teaching methods and classroom management techniques that encourage girls to participate and to aspire to educational levels equal to their boy classmates, or vice versa. Moreover, the programmes should ensure a sufficient number of women teachers who provide positive role models for girls, or men for boys.

In developing countries, the social composition of schools and classrooms is changing with more first generation learners entering schools. Multi-grade, multi-age and multi-ability classrooms are no longer the exceptions – they are the reality. There is a need to undertake more studies to understand the dynamics of learning in such settings. It is also necessary to transform teacher education curricula to incorporate such understanding, and to introduce responsive and inclusive pedagogies.

Attention to understanding structured learning processes as they occur in formal schools and classrooms has to continue. However, it is essential that alternative frameworks for imparting learning in varied classrooms and schools contexts need greater analysis and understanding.

Reading ability is a fundamental requirement for learning in formal settings, and becomes even more important with the emergence of greater self-learning platforms through ICT.

To be effective, teachers need to be confident and respected both in schools and communities. This respect partly comes from their own behaviours and partly from the status of teachers more broadly in a particular country/community. They also need to be in a school which is well managed. Again, several countries, particularly in SSA, have experimented with ways of improving school leadership through the training of head teachers. Moreover, it is crucial to ensure decent working conditions and adequate salaries for teachers to raise their professional status and address absenteeism issues, particularly in areas where salaries are so low that teachers must also engage in additional work to ensure proper living conditions for themselves and their families.

Addressing the above-mentioned issues requires comprehensive teacher policies which address recruitment, retention, professional development, employment and teaching conditions, and teacher status. A critical element in renewed teacher policies is to increase salaries and incentives to levels that compare favourably with other occupations requiring similar skills and competencies, which may require greater investments in education from domestic and external resources. It is also important to listen to the voices of classroom teachers on what works and what does not. Past experience shows that social dialogue with teachers and their representatives can significantly enhance the ownership, implementation and success of policy reform.

Improving the learning environment

Overall, the promotion of conducive learning environments and quality education is addressed in various aspects, including expanding pre-schooling and other early child care programmes, introducing effective and comprehensive teacher strategies,

developing appropriate curriculum, teaching and learning materials, and pedagogy, promoting the use of local languages of instruction and multicultural education as well as appropriate school management and leadership. A programme of child-friendly schools is an example of how the quality of education can be addressed through a multi-sectoral approach.

The improved quality and effectiveness of education rests on the re-examination of the purpose of learning and the revisiting of what can be expected through education pedagogy, a gender-sensitive and culturally relevant curriculum, and a broad learning environment. Particularly in low-income and post-conflict countries, increasing attention is being given within UPE to practical life skills and others necessary to earn a living as well as transversal competencies such as HIV awareness and reproductive health. This development is especially important for young people in precarious life circumstances where education may otherwise be seen to have little intrinsic value. In addition, an increasing number of countries are focusing on education for sustainable development and citizenship education for learners to be active democratic citizens and to cope with current global challenges such as climate change, increasing disaster risks, food security and the financial and economic crisis. Finally, schools need to be safe, protective and non-violent environments for children. In many societies this is a key requirement for parents to send their children to school, particularly for girls.

Enhancing learning requires attention to transforming the learning environment of schools where learning is to be orchestrated. There is no tested formula for transforming schools in varying contexts and conditions – but there is no dearth of cross-cultural experiences. More research has to be initiated in developing countries, in order to understand the dynamics of improving learning in difficult conditions – including crowded classrooms as well as small, under-funded and multi-grade schools

3.3.3 Delivering educational services: governance

Promoting decentralized decision-making and community involvement

There have been several initiatives to decentralize government decision-making and resource allocation to lower political or administrative levels, notably in highly populated, geographically large and/or culturally differentiated countries. Outside of federal low-income countries such as India and Nigeria, perhaps the most ambitious programmes were implemented in Latin America during the 1990s. In the past decade or so, calls to decentralize and provide regional and provisional governments and administrations with more autonomy have increased based on the argument that decisions made closer to those who will be affected by them result in more efficiency in their implementation. While it is probably the case that local knowledge is capable of leading to more rational decision-making, there are also several potential areas of concern, including the almost inevitable increase in inequality between geographical areas, the greater likelihood of local elites ‘capturing’ resources, the abandonment of national standards, and the possibility of lower level governments taking decisions which may be at odds with national priorities.

Another aspect of decentralization is the recent move to increase community participation in school management, in some cases back to levels which existed a few decades ago. Policies vary from establishing school or village education committees whose functions are largely limited to efforts to improve enrolment levels and to provide free labour for school maintenance or expansion through to giving the committees power to prepare school plans and to oversee school budgets (Nepal), allocate scholarships (Tanzania) and appoint and supervise teachers (several Indian state governments). Additionally, although there are many general questions regarding the level of community representation of these committees, the



capability of the members, how meritorious the teacher appointments are, etc, there have been many documented positive results arising from a closer involvement of the community in school operations.

Issues of governance at all levels need greater attention – from the school level to policy-making. Many studies have demonstrated the importance of empowering the community in improving school functioning. However, more empirical studies are needed to understand the scope and limits of community involvement as a means of influencing learning.

3.3.4 Cross-sectoral support

Primary education cannot be expanded and improved in a vacuum. Many factors outside of school affect the likelihood of a child enrolling, continuing through the cycle and mastering a good proportion of the curriculum. And some of these can be influenced by other areas of government with supportive policies and activities.

International and national legal instruments can enhance education not just by setting standards for public policy, but also by enabling people to claim entitlements. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights and many instruments operating under the UN auspices set standards for rights in education and provide a backbone for the MDG2 and the EFA goals. It is crucial to improve national legislation and constitutions based on the international instruments and translate them into concrete policies and programmes. During the first five years since 2000, 23 countries had passed compulsory education laws, which as a consequence, led to that 95 per cent of 203 countries were with compulsory education laws by 2005. Many countries, however, still provide no constitutional guarantee of free primary education and, even those that nominally do so, may have policies in effect that contradict this principle. Roughly one in five countries did not constitutionally guarantee free and compulsory primary education in 2005, and this

proportion rises to one in three if North America and Western Europe are excluded. Laws and their enforcement are most effective when linked to social and political mobilization on the part of marginalized people and the development of broad-based alliances to advance EFA. In India, a landmark ruling by the Supreme Court in 1993 led to civil society mobilization calling for effective guarantees to the right to education. The court ruled that the right to education up to age 14 according to the Constitution was a fundamental right, enforceable by the law, and that parents whose children lacked access to government schools could sue the government. A 2002 law amended the Constitution to this effect, guaranteeing free and compulsory education to children aged 6 to 14.

Social protection is a critical pathway to mitigating the vulnerability that could give negative impacts on education. Conditional cash transfer programmes in Latin America, for example, have had a strong track record in improving school attendance and progression. Several countries in sub-Saharan Africa are also investing in social protection programmes, including the Productive Safety Net Programme in Ethiopia that provides guaranteed employment for drought-affected communities. School feeding programmes also play a role, as does enhancing support to maternal and child health and nutrition through equitable access to pre-school provision. Moreover, social protection provides a mechanism for integrating the child labour issue into wider national poverty reduction efforts. The development of these types of interventions, however, requires particular attention to equity and cost-effectiveness.

Simultaneous public action across a broad front, with education interventions integrated into wider policies for social inclusion, is the most effective way forward for reducing inequality. Poverty Reduction Strategies (PRSs) can play an important role in addressing the concerns of marginalized populations and in coordinating health and social welfare issues that affect educational opportunities and learning outcomes

of the marginalized. Many PRSs emphasize the importance of governance reform, often presenting it as a separate pillar of poverty reduction, while this type of reform has also become increasingly prominent in education sector planning itself.

These illustrations of cross-sector support necessary for the promotion of inclusive education are over and above those required from the Finance and Planning ministries and those agencies dealing with public service appointments, including teachers. National budgets, for instance, can play a vital role in equalizing educational opportunities and increasing access to

educational opportunities of reasonable quality. Redistributive public spending is one of the keys to expanded entitlements and opportunities. Although most countries have a redistributive element in their public finance, they are generally underdeveloped. The federal government transfer programmes to states in Brazil is an example of an attempt to narrow large state-level financing gaps in education, with some positive effects. Within the framework of its ten year education plan (2006-2015), Benin is equalizing imbalances, including affirmative action for girls and disadvantaged groups and regions with strong budgetary commitments.



4. FACTORS UNDERPINNING SUCCESSFUL STRATEGIES AND MEASURES

High-level political will focused on poverty reduction and recognition that education is central to poverty alleviation lay the foundation for designing and implementing successful strategies and measures to accelerate the movement towards UPE. This is reinforced by a country's strong commitment to human rights, including access to basic education. A demonstration of such a will is a motivation to act against all forms of discrimination in education brought about by gender, religion, ethnicity, race, social status and language and to guarantee the right to education through *effective* legislation and the judicial system. Since it is usually more expensive and more difficult to implement initiatives to enroll the last 20 per cent of children, an explicit commitment to these children is needed. The impact of political will for primary education is strengthened through healthy public expenditures and effective planning processes that allow for the prioritization of poverty reduction expenditures, including education. Emphasis on evidence-based policymaking and results-based management is a further factor in turning political will into concrete results.

A strength of the EFA agenda is its comprehensive approach to basic education that incorporates a broad aim of providing education to all children, youth and adults. It emphasizes the importance of ensuring that young people can follow-up their acquired literacy skills through livelihood programmes and that the many millions of adults who were previously denied education are provided with the opportunity to access literacy courses. Together with an expansion of ECCE programmes, such initiatives bolster a life-long learning approach which aims to strengthen the role and relevance of basic education in societies.

A sector-wide approach to education planning which help focus on the interactions between education levels required for the expansion of primary education is another factor facilitating the development and implementation of good practices. Tertiary educated teachers and administrators, as well as sufficient

secondary school places, are incentives to completing primary education. To be useful, plans must set precise time-bound targets that are differentiated by the population groups being targeted.

A strong partnership between government and development partners in countries where financial aid and multinational forms of support play key roles is important if the maximum benefit is to be gained from international development partners. To be effective, this partnership requires government and development partners to work together towards one set of targets, within a coordinated framework and with minimum transaction costs. In virtually all countries, governments are the main financier of primary education and, within the principle of joint respect, they need to set the policy agenda. The principles of aid effectiveness, as defined in the Paris Declaration (2005) and expanded during meetings in Accra, are widely accepted as the basis for the most effective relationships.

In the decade following the formulation of the MDGs and the EFA goals, there has been much debate about the role of 'good governance' in improving the effectiveness of public programmes. While the interpretation of the term varies, there is a general consensus that it must involve greater accountability and transparency, broader participation and a commitment to equal opportunity. One of the most important ways in which this debate has affected the education sector is through the advocacy of greater decentralization of political and/or bureaucratic decision-making in the sector. This has been coupled with efforts to give greater powers to the community and to engage in more effective dialogue. Experience suggests that such approaches can indeed improve the quality of decision-making (for instance over teacher allocations, school hours, adaptation of curricula) and increase financial support for schools from both local governments and community groups. However, decentralization policy needs to be supplemented by additional measures which reduce inequalities between regions and schools.

Many of the countries that have most strengthened their system of primary and basic education have understood the widespread need for strengthening the capacity of staff involved in the planning, implementation and monitoring of developments. This is particularly necessary in those countries which have attempted to decentralized decision-making. A comprehensive approach to capacity development is perhaps the most important component of a national strategy aimed at project and programme sustainability.

Experience has shown that increased pressure placed on governments to expand and improve primary education leads to the greater likelihoods of this occurring. Civil society, including the press, religious groups, and single-issue pressure groups, can influence governments in many ways. Parliamentarians can also play a vital role.



5. CRITICAL GAPS

The past decade has been marked by major advances towards UPE and, to a lesser extent, the other EFA goals. In the next five years, conscious international efforts to accelerate progress will result in many more countries reaching UPE by 2015. However, conditions in other countries suggest that the overall ambition that all children will be able to complete a full course of primary education by 2015 is unlikely to be met. Some countries began the decade with very low net enrolment rates (for instance, it was 35 per cent or less in Burkina Faso, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia and Niger) and even though many have made significant progress, much remains to be done. Even in those countries where tremendous achievements have been made in raising the primary net enrolment rate to within a range of UPE, the need to ensure completion of good quality schooling continues to pose challenges. Studies examining learning achievements across developing countries show wide differences between children, but on the whole the overall results are poor.

Being five years from the target date set for the attainment of the MDG 2 of UPE and the EFA goals, it is urgent to consider the critical gaps which continue to hinder performances and which require immediate and significant efforts if they are to be narrowed. Below is a discussion on several critical gaps, including gaps in financing (both domestic and external), capacity, policy and planning, data, monitoring and evaluation and governance.

5.1 FINANCING GAP

Accelerating the pace of primary education in situations conducive to learning requires an increase in financial resources – both domestic and external – at rates higher than in the past. There also needs to be a more effective use and redistribution of financial resources where appropriate. While information is limited across countries, available data show that government spending on education is increasing. Since 1999, 70 per cent of the 68 developing countries for which

relevant data is available have increased public expenditures on education at a faster pace than increases in national income. While this information is encouraging, the downside is that 30 per cent of countries have not followed this pattern. As a group, low-income countries spend not only smaller amounts on education than middle and high-income countries, but also a lower share of their GDP and of total government expenditure. This is partly the result of these governments struggling to raise taxes and other revenues, and also because governments in poor countries finance activities largely by the private sector. However, it is clear that if developing country governments are to follow through with their public commitment to the universalization of primary education, they will need to give greater priority to providing funding than in previous years. It is also worth noting that reaching marginalized groups require additional financing, with potentially higher unit costs than that for reaching better-off households. The new study estimates that additional programmes and measures to extend primary school opportunities to social groups facing extreme and persistent deprivation will cost US\$3.7 billion annually.

Even if governments are able to significantly increase their funding for primary education, and if the funds can be used more effectively, in many instances, the required increases are above those feasible. Far-reaching impacts of the global economic crisis, particularly on the poorest countries, are contributing to making the picture even worse. While external aid for education is a small part of total spending on primary education in developing countries, it nonetheless plays a key role in some, particularly in poor countries. External aid is often an important source of funding for education expenditures beyond teacher salaries, such as for school buildings, education materials and in-service staff training. In those few countries which have been receiving budgetary support (in general or specifically for the education sector) aid has also helped with teacher salary payments. In the same way that governments in general will need to increase their

own expenditures, aid donors should also expand their contributions. It is important to point out that aid commitments to basic education have virtually stagnated since 2004 (figure 6).

Trying to quantify the ‘financing gap’ for achieving UPE is very risky and the results depend on many assumptions. The 2010 *EFA Global Monitoring Report* estimates that the achievement of UPE and wider EFA goals across low-income countries by 2015 would require an additional USD 24 billion a year compared to an estimated expenditure of USD 12 billion in 2007⁷. Of this ‘requirement’, roughly USD 7 billion a year could be made available to the sector if governments increased their expenditures on education by 0.7 percentage points of GDP and increased the public expenditure priority given to primary education. This would leave an external financing gap of around USD 16 billion a year. Total aid to basic education in 2007 was around USD 3 billion. Aid for primary education would increase if donors increased their overall aid budgets and allocated a constant share to primary education. It would increase further if the share percentage also increased. Given that the share of total aid allocated to education was the same in 2008 as in 2000, when the MDGs and EFA goals were set and commitments to help accelerate progress were made, it is highly unlikely that the share will increase dramatically between now and 2015. Significantly,

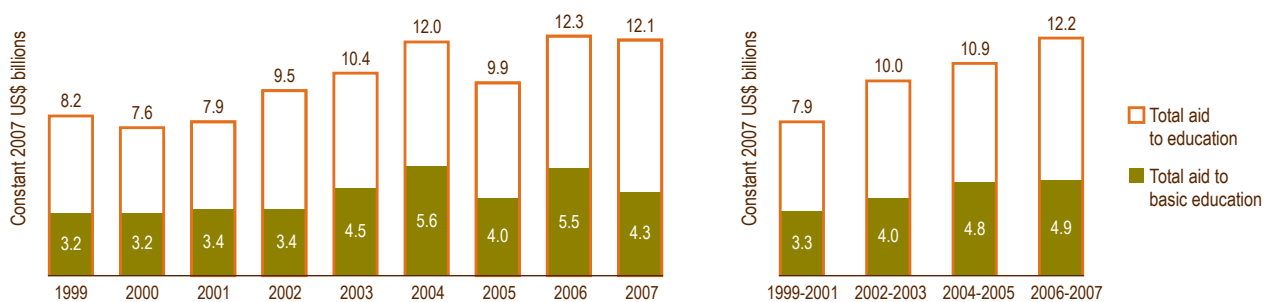
more aid for primary education would require considerable increases in total aid in general.

5.2 POLICY AND PLANNING

Provision of additional financial resources is a necessary but not sufficient condition for accelerating the movement towards UPE and the other EFA goals. Another constraint is in the general area of policies and planning. Progress has been made in developing a sector-wide approach, but emphasis has thus far been placed on the preparation of plans, leaving gaps in attention given to their implementation and monitoring. This situation in part has arisen from guidelines stipulated by donors from which plans are to be formulated. An important example is the EFA-FTI, which has had an important influence on education sector planning during the past few years, and which is now in need of significant reform if its effectiveness and relevance are to be increased.

Although it is difficult to evaluate the implications, there tends to be a large gap during planning processes between the stated intention of governments to consult widely with stakeholders and the amount of consultation actually undertaken. Also, there is rarely any sufficient involvement from civil society organizations and parliamentarians at key stages of planning.

FIGURE 6: AFTER RISING IN THE EARLY PART OF THE DECADE, AID COMMITMENTS TO BASIC EDUCATION ARE STAGNATING



Plans tend to lack clarity regarding the emphasis that should be given to the UPE goal in relation to other EFA goals including adult literacy and youth programmes. Equally important is the widespread lack of integrating planning for primary education with that of other levels of the education sector.

A further example of a gap in the policy formulation and planning process is that between the goal of universalization and the general, undifferentiated policies that are often identified. The remaining out-of-school children are from various population groups and therefore separate considerations are needed regarding appropriate responses and initiatives required to bring these children to school and provide them with effective schooling. It is absolutely imperative that such targeted responses are well-funded and resourced, aligned with broader national policies. There cannot be a second-best response to the needs of the most marginalized and disadvantaged learners.

5.3 DATA, MONITORING AND EVALUATION

Despite some examples of improvements in the way in which data are gathered, analyzed and used, major gaps remain. Data gaps often include fundamental information for planning purposes such as the number of children actually attending school, the characteristics of those not in school or who have dropped out, the distribution of teachers in classrooms, availability of education materials and their use, and languages of instruction. There is a critically large gap in the extent to which learning outcomes are monitored. The need for more disaggregated data has been pointed out for better-targeted planning and monitoring. The gaps in information make it difficult to devise appropriate policies, plans and initiatives as well as to subsequently judge the extent to which specific initiatives have been effective. Strong systems of monitoring, let alone evaluation, rarely exist, and those that do are often heavily donor influenced. There is a critical need to strengthen national capacity in this field.

5.4 CAPACITY STRENGTHENING

The need for capacity development more generally is commonly stated. The EFA-FTI has repeatedly argued that the returns to additional financing in education will not increase without parallel capacity development in service delivery. Financing for UPE is not simply a matter of inputting “more money” into national Ministries of Education. It must take place in the context of a much broader discussion about the challenges of education provision, and how to put the best formulated plans into practice. Capacities of national education systems matter. Thus, capacity development strategies are needed at country and local levels to transform rhetoric into reality and to increase the probability of implementation of plans addressing UPE. The Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness in 2005 further underlined this idea at the national level, “the capacity to plan, manage, implement, and account for results of policies and programmes is critical for achieving development objectives”. In practice, however, few countries have developed and implemented comprehensive capacity development plans.

With more than 90 per cent of education budgets often spent on salaries and financial resources scarce, it is important that education ministry staff at all levels have the training and experience to enable them to be effective and to efficiently use additional resources. The availability of critical resources – not just trained and motivated Ministry staff and teachers, but effective organizational processes, infrastructure, management systems and supporting institutions – are critical to making education reforms work and enable the scaling-up good practices.

5.5 IMPROVED GOVERNANCE

Gaps in finance, policy and planning, data and capacity development have been identified by the EFA-FTI as the major factors inhibiting acceleration towards the international basic education goals. Additionally, inadequately designed bureaucratic

systems and poor quality governance often lead to another gap between what could be and what is actually achieved. As depicted in the 2009 *EFA Global Monitoring Report* , “Bad governance leaves parents and communities facing education provision that is unaccountable and unresponsive to their needs. It contributes to education systems that are ineffective in raising learning achievements. It leaves communities and regions with children sitting in classrooms lacking basic teaching materials and in the charge of untrained and demotivated teachers. In some cases, bad governance also means that financial resources allocated to schools do not arrive” (p 128).



6. KEY LESSONS LEARNT FOR SHARPENING FOCUS AND SCALING-UP GOOD INITIATIVES

As the 2010 *EFA Global Monitoring Report* notes, “Drawing up global blueprints for accelerated progress towards the EFA goals and the MDG2 is ineffectual. Every country faces different challenges, opportunities and constraints, and has to chart its own course through national political processes. There are, however, opportunities for learning across countries.”

The fast pace of progress in expanding primary education made by many countries since Dakar compared to that in the 1990s shows that political commitments supported by appropriate policies and coordinated provision of technical and financial resources make a difference. Variations across countries in their priority given to primary education, including through government budgets, suggest that currently under-performing governments can improve their performance.

Experiences of the past decade strongly emphasize the need for developing primary education within broader holistic approaches to education (of which primary education is an important but single element), strengthening planning and implementation processes and, crucially, linking education to broader policy and budgetary frameworks. Primary education will not expand and improve solely by its own volition. It is dependent on policies in many other areas of government and needs to make alliances and to be strongly represented in central decision-making forums.

Even within a country, a single approach to expanding access to primary schooling and to ensuring that children complete the cycle will not be effective. Disaggregated initiatives, programmes and interventions, based on an inclusive education sector analysis and on an explicit commitment to equitable policy-making, are needed.

It is also paramount to ensure the existence and functioning of social protection mechanisms and safety nets that cushion the negative impact of crises such as the recent fuel and food price and the current financial crisis. Such crises threaten access to basic schooling

- in particular for the poor and marginalized households - whose coping mechanisms include pulling children out-of-school. The attainment of MDG 2, for example, is as closely linked to the broader social protection agenda as it is to the success of the education system.

The relatively slow growth of aid for primary education plus the current economic crisis underscores the need to build robust education systems that are resilient to external pressures, by focusing on capacity-building and improving governance and efficiency.

External financial aid is a small part of overall expenditures on primary education in most countries. However, there is great variation among countries: aid tends to be incredibly important in some while insufficient in others, particularly conflict-affected poor countries where around one third of all out-of-school children live. A key issue for aid in the next few years is how to develop modalities which can increase the effective use of aid in such countries. When the MDGs were adopted universally there were high expectations that aid for primary education would increase substantially. This has not occurred. After an initial burst in 2004, the amount of aid for primary education has been roughly constant and only a few donors give priority to this sector. As the countdown to 2015 draws closer, it is a fortuitous time for the UN to make one more effort to persuade donors to honour their previously-made commitments and increase their future contributions. In this context, government-donor experiences highlight the value of quality dialogue and partnerships, based on the principles of the Accra Agenda for Action (AAA) (2005), including the role that the UN system can play in supporting national efforts towards UPE and beyond.

MDG 2 refers to primary education and the goal is universal coverage. This level of education, together with early childhood interventions, is taken as the priority for education systems. However, primary education cannot expand without the complementary development of secondary and tertiary education

which is, in particular, required for training school teachers and administrators, and for providing important incentives for pupils to complete primary level schooling and beyond. Furthermore, the goal of UPE is not enough if significant progress is to be made towards several of the other MDGs such as those dealing with poverty, gender equality, child mortality, maternal health, communicable diseases and environmental sustainability – each of which is strongly affected by the spread of secondary and tertiary education. Planning for UPE needs to be done within the framework of an overall education sector plan.



7. RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations highlight some of the most important recommendations to accelerate progress towards the achievement of MDG2.

- Strengthen and maintain national political commitments to the provision of free and compulsory primary education for all and support such commitments through coordinated provision of technical and financial resources.
- Promote primary education through a holistic approach to the entire education sector, with stronger planning and implementation processes and through linking education to broader development policy and budgetary frameworks.
- Develop and strengthen inclusive and efficient education systems that are resilient to external pressures by reinforcing capacities and improving governance and efficiency.
- Commit to reducing disparities and inequalities through fostering inclusive education policies and disaggregated initiatives, programmes and interventions aligned with broader policies in education and beyond.
- Increase access to educational opportunities at primary level through removing all barriers, outside and within education systems, including cost and distance barriers as well as providing more accessible and flexible schools and classrooms.
- Raise quality standards in primary education through ensuring appropriate policies and measures to address different elements of the quality of education including teachers, curriculum, pedagogy, and learning and teaching materials, language of instruction, school management and leadership, and assessment of learning outcomes.
- Level the playing field through promoting multi-sectoral approaches, including social protection measures, and programmes that link education with health, nutrition, labour, environment, and other areas.
- Increase financial resources – both domestic and external – for education, in particular for basic education, and use and redistribute available resources effectively.
- Promote quality dialogues and partnerships among stakeholders - including national governments, bilateral and multi-lateral organizations, NGOs, the private sector, schools, teachers, communities and parents - for designing, implementing, monitoring and evaluating policies, programmes and activities.
- Revitalize existing mechanisms and initiatives, where necessary, for better coordination and enhancement of the collective efforts, enhanced delivery capacities and also for greater accountability of partners.

ANNEX 1:

STATISTICAL TABLE ON PROGRESS ON MDG2 – TRENDS IN BASIC OR PROXY INDICATORS TO MEASURE MDG2 AND OTHER RELATED INFORMATION

Country	EFA Development Index (EDI) in 2007	MDG 2 Indicators (2008)					Income group [*: Least Developed Countries]	Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC)	Total public expenditure on education (2007) as % of total government expenditure	Recipients of aid to Education		Country status and political situation (Fragile State)
		Adjusted Net Enrolment Rate (ANER) in primary	Survival rate to last grade in primary	Youth Literacy rate (15-24)	Total aid to educ. (2007) / US\$ millions	Total aid to basic educ. (2007) / US\$ millions						
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA												
Angola	72,9	Lower middle income*	-	...	28	10	Fragile State		
Benin	0,647	▼	92,82	...	53,3	Low income*	HIPC	18 (2006)	76	32	-	
Botswana	0,869	◊	89,54	...	95,1	Upper middle income	-	21,0	3	1	-	
Burkina Faso	0,602	▼	64,45	71,13	39,3	Low income*	HIPC	15,4 (2006)	112	69	-	
Burundi	0,719	▼	99,42	53,68	75,9	Low income*	HIPC	17,7 (2005)	55	32	Fragile State	
Cameroon	88,30	56,71	85,8	Lower middle income	HIPC	17,0	120	9	Fragile State	
Cape Verde	0,875	◊	84,78	87,13	98,0	Lower middle income	-	16,4	40	4	-	
Central African Republic	66,91	45,64	64,2	Low income*	HIPC	...	14	4	Fragile State	
Chad	45,4	Low income*	HIPC	10,1 (2005)	12	5	Fragile State	
Comoros	84,9	Low income*	HIPC	...	11	1	Fragile State	
Congo	63,85	70,19	...	Lower middle income	HIPC	8,1 (2005)	33	1	Fragile State	
Côte d'Ivoire	89,54	66,1	Lower middle income	HIPC	...	65	9	Fragile State	
Democratic Rep. of Congo	79,50	65,3	Low income*	HIPC	...	261	196	Fragile State	
Eritrea	0,602	▼	40,18	73,28	87,8	Low income*	HIPC	...	2	0	Fragile State	
Ethiopia	0,598	▼	79,03	40,31	...	Low income*	HIPC	23,3	186	89	Fragile State	
Gabon	97,4	Upper middle income	-	...	35	0	-	
Gambia	0,678	▼	71,58	70,32	64,1	Low income*	HIPC	...	6	5	Fragile State	
Ghana	0,791	▼	76,97	83,43	79,3	Low income	HIPC	...	188	125	-	
Guinea	0,622	▼	72,33	54,91	...	Low income*	HIPC	...	24	1	Fragile State	

(cont'd) ►



◀ (SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA cont'd)

Country	EFA Development Index (EDI) in 2007		MDG 2 Indicators (2008)				Income group [*: Least Developed Countries]	Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC)	Total public expenditure on education (2007) as % of total government expenditure	Recipients of aid to Education		Country status and political situation (Fragile State)
			Adjusted Net Enrolment Rate (ANER) in primary	Survival rate to last grade in primary	Youth Literacy rate (15-24)	Total aid to educ. (2007) / US\$ millions				Total aid to basic educ. (2007) / US\$ millions		
Guinea-Bissau	69,6	Low income*	HIPC	...	12	4	Fragile State	
Kenya	0,839	◉	82,33	...	92,3	Low income	-	17,9 (2005)	69	47	Fragile State	
Lesotho	0,788	▼	72,96	45,76	91,9	Lower middle income*	-	29,8 (2005)	18	11	-	
Liberia	74,8	Low income*	HIPC	...	108	59	Fragile State	
Madagascar	0,762	▼	99,28	42,49	...	Low income*	HIPC	16,4	82	30	-	
Malawi	0,725	▼	91,18	35,66	85,7	Low income*	HIPC	...	67	48	-	
Mali	0,590	▼	76,93	79,10	38,8	Low income*	HIPC	16,8 (2006)	136	77	-	
Mauritius	0,949	◉	94,00	97,95	96,4	Upper middle income	-	12,7 (2006)	47	15	-	
Mozambique	0,642	▼	79,90	43,69	69,9	Low income*	HIPC	21,0 (2006)	384	213	-	
Namibia	0,921	◉	90,71	87,52	92,9	Upper middle income	-	...	14	9	-	
Niger	0,508	▼	53,95	66,79	36,5	Low income*	HIPC	17,6 (2006)	46	25	Fragile State	
Nigeria	62,78	...	71,5	Lower middle income	-	...	489	164	Fragile State	
Rwanda	95,86	...	77,1	Low income*	HIPC	19	98	70	Fragile State	
Sao Tome and Principe	0,899	◉	98,39	73,92	95,2	Lower middle income*	HIPC	...	6	0	Fragile State	
Senegal	0,650	▼	75,19	58,42	50,9	Low income*	HIPC	26,3 (2006)	153	49	-	
Seychelles	Upper middle income	-	12,6 (2006)	1	0	-	
Sierra Leone	55,7	Low income*	HIPC	...	17	7	Fragile State	
Somalia	Low income*	HIPC	...	9	8	Fragile State	
South Africa	92,80	...	96,8	Upper middle income	-	17,4	37	20	-	
Swaziland	0,867	◉	82,91	73,70	93,2	Lower middle income	-	24,4 (2006)	5	4	-	
Togo	0,629	▼	85,34	44,52	83,5	Low income*	HIPC	15,8	20	1	Fragile State	
Uganda	0,761	▼	97,24	32,37	87,3	Low income*	HIPC	18,3 (2004)	92	45	Fragile State	
United Republic of Tanzania	99,58	82,80	77,5	Low income*	HIPC	...	219	85	-	
Zambia	96,66	78,56	74,8	Low income*	HIPC	14,8 (2004)	119	65	-	
Zimbabwe	90,53	...	98,9	Low income	-	...	5	1	Fragile State	

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Country	EFA Development Index (EDI) in 2007	MDG 2 Indicators (2008)					Income group [*: Least Developed Countries]	Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC)	Total public expenditure on education (2007) as % of total government expenditure	Recipients of aid to Education		Country status and political situation (Fragile State)
		Adjusted Net Enrolment Rate (ANER) in primary	Survival rate to last grade in primary	Youth Literacy rate (15-24)	Total aid to educ. (2007) / US\$ millions	Total aid to basic educ. (2007) / US\$ millions						
ARAB STATES												
Algeria	0,890	⊖	95,75	92,95	91,8	Upper middle income	-	...	174	1	-	
Djibouti	0,709	▼	47,63	Lower middle income	-	22,8	33	18	Fragile State	
Egypt	95,40	96,83	84,9	Lower middle income	-	12,6	341	183	-	
Iraq	0,796	▼	82,4	Lower middle income	-	...	129	60	Fragile State	
Jordan	0,946	⊖	93,70	99,15	98,9	Lower middle income	-	...	122	73	-	
Lebanon	0,898	⊖	89,28	89,30	98,7	Upper middle income	-	9,6	92	15	-	
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	99,8	Upper middle income	-	...	5	0	-	
Mauritania	0,717	▼	76,56	81,89	67,0	Low income*	HIPC	10,1 (2006)	22	8	Fragile State	
Morocco	0,77	▼	89,92	76,17	76,6	Lower middle income	-	26,1 (2006)	332	42	-	
Palestinian A. T.	0,914	⊖	77,45	98,70	99,2	Lower middle income	-	...	45	18	Fragile State	
Sudan	93,09	85,2	Lower middle income	-	...	75	52	Fragile State	
Syrian Arab Republic	96,68	94,1	Lower middle income	-	...	70	7	-	
Tunisia	99,51	94,12	96,1	Lower middle income	-	20,5 (2006)	125	2	-	
Yemen	0,648	▼	73,03	...	82,9	Low income*	-	...	78	43	Fragile State	
CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPE												
Albania	99,4	Lower middle income	-	...	48	5	-	
Belarus	0,971	▲	94,84	102,43	99,8	Upper middle income	-	9,3	18	0	-	
Bosnia and Herzegovina	99,2	Upper middle income	-	...	35	3	-	
Bulgaria	0,967	▲	97,39	93,69	97,3	Upper middle income	-	11,6 (2006)	-	-	-	
Latvia	95,7	99,7	Upper middle income	-	13,4 (2006)	-	-	-	
Lithuania	96,14	98,02	99,8	Upper middle income	-	14,4 (2006)	-	-	-	
Montenegro	Upper middle income	-	...	-	-	-	

(cont'd) ►



◀ (CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPE cont'd)

Country	EFA Development Index (EDI) in 2007		MDG 2 Indicators (2008)			Income group [*: Least Developed Countries]	Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC)	Total public expenditure on education (2007) as % of total government expenditure	Recipients of aid to Education		Country status and political situation (Fragile State)
			Adjusted Net Enrolment Rate (ANER) in primary	Survival rate to last grade in primary	Youth Literacy rate (15-24)				Total aid to educ. (2007) / US\$ millions	Total aid to basic educ. (2007) / US\$ millions	
Poland	95,74	97,30	99,8	Upper middle income	-	12,7 (2004)	-	-	-
Republic of Moldova	0,959	▲	90,46	95,57	99,5	Lower middle income	-	19,8	29	8	-
Romania	0,971	▲	96,52	93,29	97,3	Upper middle income	-	14,3 (2005)	-	-	-
Russian Federation	95,20	99,7	Upper middle income	-	12,9 (2004)	-	-	-
Serbia	95,77	98,36	...	Upper middle income	-	...	-	-	-
TFYR Macedonia	0,968	▲	91,91	97,49	98,7	Upper middle income	-	...	144	3	-
Turkey	0,913	◊	94,69	94,23	96,1	Upper middle income	-	...	144	3	-
Ukraine	0,968	▲	89,35	97,28	99,8	Lower middle income	-	20,2	56	1	-
CENTRAL ASIA											
Armenia	0,971	▲	92,88	97,71	99,8	Lower middle income	-	15,0 (2006)	44	7	-
Azerbaijan	0,979	▲	96,14	98,96	100	Lower middle income	-	12,6	5	0	-
Georgia	0,983	▲	99,01	95,10	99,8	Lower middle income	-	7,8	30	5	-
Kazakhstan	0,993	▲	89,39	99,02	99,8	Upper middle income	-	...	19	2	-
Kyrgyzstan	0,968	▲	91,04	98,35	99,6	Low income	HIPC	19,2	10	3	-
Mongolia	0,937	◊	99,23	94,87	95,3	Lower middle income	-	...	30	11	-
Tajikistan	0,975	▲	97,52	99,48	99,9	Low income	-	18,2	8	6	Fragile State
Turkmenistan	99,8	Lower middle income	-	...	4	2	-
Uzbekistan	0,969	▲	93,01	99,23	99,8	Low income	-	...	32	1	Fragile State
EAST ASIA AND THE PACIFIC											
Cambodia	0,781	▼	88,59	54,44	87,5	Low income*	-	12,4	31	12	Fragile State
China	99,57	99,3	Lower middle income	-	...	697	39	-
DPR Korea	100,0	Low income	-	...	2	1	Fragile State
Fiji	89,5	94,6	...	Upper middle income	-	...	5	2	-
Indonesia	0,947	◊	98,74	80,11	96,7	Lower middle income	-	17,5	519	237	-
Kiribati	Lower middle income*	-	...	2	1	Fragile State

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◀ (EAST ASIA AND THE PACIFIC cont'd)

Country	EFA Development Index (EDI) in 2007		MDG 2 Indicators (2008)				Income group [*: Least Developed Countries]	Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC)	Total public expenditure on education (2007) as % of total government expenditure	Recipients of aid to Education		Country status and political situation (Fragile State)
			Adjusted Net Enrolment Rate (ANER) in primary		Survival rate to last grade in primary	Youth Literacy rate (15-24)				Total aid to educ. (2007) / US\$ millions	Total aid to basic educ. (2007) / US\$ millions	
Lao PDR	0,755	▼	82,42	66,78	83,9	Low income*	-	15,8	26	14	Fragile State	
Malaysia	0,941	◉	96,10	92,23	98,4	Upper middle income	-	25,2 (2004)	20	1	-	
Marshall Islands	66,54	Lower middle income	-	...	14	7	-	
Micronesia, F.S.	Lower middle income	-	...	29	14	-	
Myanmar	73,91	95,6	Low income*	-	...	33	28	Fragile State	
Palau	Upper middle income	-	...	1	1	-	
Papua New Guinea	66,5	Lower middle income	-	...	40	21	Fragile State	
Philippines	0,895	◉	92,11	73,24	94,8	Lower middle income	-	15,2 (2005)	125	64	-	
Samoa	94,13	...	99,5	Lower middle income*	-	...	4	2	-	
Solomon Islands	67,03	Lower middle income*	-	...	44	30	Fragile State	
Thailand	90,06	...	98,1	Lower middle income	-	20,9	34	2	-	
Timor-Leste	77,28	Lower middle income*	-	...	46	26	Fragile State	
Tonga	0,967	▲	99,21	...	99,4	Lower middle income	-	...	3	1	Fragile State	
Vanuatu	73,42	93,6	Lower middle income*	-	...	9	4	Fragile State	
Vietnam	96,8	Low income	-	...	295	40	-	
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN												
Argentina	0,971	▲	107,25	94,91	99,1	Upper middle income	-	14,0 (2006)	39	3	-	
Belize	0,907	◉	99,7	90,49	...	Lower middle income	-	...	1	0	-	
Bolivia	0,911	◉	94,96	80,20	99,4	Lower middle income	HIPC	...	60	17	-	
Brazil	0,883	◉	95,12	...	97,8	Upper middle income	-	16,2 (2006)	73	11	-	
Chile	0,966	▲	94,53	95,85	99,2	Upper middle income	-	18,2	27	3	-	
Colombia	0,920	◉	93,54	87,81	98	Upper middle income	-	12,6	49	8	-	
Costa Rica	94,30	98,1	Upper middle income	-	20,6 (2006)	6	1	-	

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◀ (LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN cont'd)

Country	EFA Development Index (EDI) in 2007		MDG 2 Indicators (2008)				Income group [*: Least Developed Countries]	Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC)	Total public expenditure on education (2007) as % of total government expenditure	Recipients of aid to Education		Country status and political situation (Fragile State)
			Adjusted Net Enrolment Rate (ANER) in primary		Survival rate to last grade in primary	Youth Literacy rate (15-24)				Total aid to educ. (2007) / US\$ millions	Total aid to basic educ. (2007) / US\$ millions	
Cuba	0,987	▲	100,0	95,56	100	Upper middle income	-	20,6	7	1	-	
Dominica	75,59	90,75	...	Upper middle income	-	...	3	2	-	
Dominican Republic	0,836	◊	82,45	68,77	95,8	Upper middle income	-	11,0	13	7	-	
Ecuador	0,906	◊	99,28	81,35	95,4	Lower middle income	-	...	57	37	-	
El Salvador	0,865	◊	95,59	75,70	96,0	Lower middle income	-	13,1	37	19	-	
Grenada	98,47	Upper middle income	-	...	4	3	-	
Guatemala	0,823	◊	96,45	64,72	86,0	Lower middle income	-	...	24	13	-	
Guyana	98,5	Lower middle income	HIPC	12,5	8	4	-	
Haiti	Low income*	HIPC	...	81	47	Fragile State	
Honduras	0,885	◊	97,19	76,19	93,9	Lower middle income	HIPC	...	43	27	-	
Jamaica	80,51	...	95,0	Upper middle income	-	8,8 (2005)	11	9	-	
Mexico	0,959	▲	99,5	91,51	98,4	Upper middle income	-	25,6 (2004)	46	5	-	
Nicaragua	0,794	▼	93,44	48,39	87,0	Lower middle income	HIPC	...	45	21	-	
Panama	0,947	◊	98,86	85,21	96,4	Upper middle income	-	8,9 (2004)	3	1	-	
Paraguay	0,936	◊	90,67	79,09	98,8	Lower middle income	-	10,0 (2004)	10	5	-	
Peru	0,942	◊	97,25	82,96	97,4	Upper middle income	-	16,4	44	17	-	
Saint Kitts and Nevis	68,03	...	Upper middle income	-	...	7	3	-	
Saint Lucia	0,953	▲	93,53	Upper middle income	-	19,1 (2006)	3	0	-	
St Vincent / Grenadines	0,904	◊	97,51	Upper middle income	-	16,1 (2005)	17	8	-	
Suriname	0,882	◊	90,14	110,93	95,3	Upper middle income	-	-	
Uruguay	0,971	▲	97,77	93,67	99,0	Upper middle income	-	11,6 (2006)	5	1	-	
Venezuela, B.R.	0,956	▲	92,09	80,74	98,4	Upper middle income	-	...	10	1	-	

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SOUTH AND WEST ASIA											
Afghanistan	Low income*	HIPC	...	277	168	Fragile State
Bangladesh	0,718	▼	85,46	...	74,4	Low income*	-	15,8	250	118	-
Bhutan	0,795	▼	88,40	90,08	74,4	Lower middle income*	-	17,2 (2005)	15	5	-
India	0,775	▼	95,52	...	81,1	Lower middle income	-	...	423	49	-
Iran, Islamic Republic of	96,6	Lower middle income	-	19,5	56	1	-
Maldives	0,957	▲	96,22	...	99,3	Lower middle income*	-	11,0 (2006)	8	1	-
Nepal	0,704	▼	...	61,57	80,8	Low income*	-	...	175	96	Fragile State
Pakistan	0,651	▼	66,13	...	68,9	Lower middle income	-	11,2	316	197	Fragile State
Sri Lanka	98	Lower middle income	-	...	83	36	-

***Note:**

EFA Development Index (EDI)

▲ High achievers (EDI ≥ 0.950)

⊖ Intermediate position (0.949 ≥ EDI ≥ 0.800)

▼ Far from achieving EFA (EDI < 0.800)

"MDG 2 Indicators (2008)" stating that the latest available data since 2006 were used.

Sources:

- EDI / Total aid to (basic) education / Total public expenditure on education as % of total government expenditure
 - EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010
 - MDG 2 Indicators
 - UNESCO Institute for Statistics
- Income Group, LDCs and HIPC:
 - World Bank list of economies (July 2009)
 - UN-OHRLLS. Least Developed Countries - Country profiles
- Fragile States
 - OECD. Ensuring Fragile States are not Left Behind - Summary Report March 2009



ANNEX 2:

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ANNEX 3: ABBREVIATIONS

AAA	Accra Agenda for Action
ADEA	Association for the Development of Education in Africa
AIDS	Acquired immune deficiency syndrome
ALECSO	Arab League Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organization
COMEDAF	Conference of Ministers of Education of African Member States
DME	Deprivation and Marginalization in Education
ECCE	Early childhood care and education
EDI	EFA Development Index
EDUCAIDS	Global Initiative on Education and HIV & AIDS
EFA	Education for All
FRESH	Focusing Resources on Effective School Health
FTI	Fast Track Initiative
GDP	Gross domestic product
GMR	EFA Global Monitoring Report
GNP	Gross national product
GPI	Gender parity index
HIV	Human immunodeficiency virus
IEA	International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement
ILO	International Labour Organization
INEE	Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies
LDCs	Least developed countries
LLECE	Latin American Laboratory for Assessment of the Quality of Education
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
NER	Net enrolment ratio
NGO	Non-governmental organization
NIR	Net intake rate
ODA	Official development assistance
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PASEC	Programme d'analyse des systèmes éducatifs de la Conférence des Ministres de l'Éducation des pays ayant le français en partage (CONFEMEN)
PCR	Primary Completion Rate
PIRLS	Progress in International Reading Literacy Study

PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
PRELAC	Regional Education Project for Latin America and the Caribbean
PRS	Poverty Reduction Strategy
SACMEQ	Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality
SEAMEO	South East Members of Education Organization
SFAI	School Fee Abolition Initiative
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
SWA	South and West Asia
SWAp	Sector-wide Approach
TIMSS	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UN	United Nations
UNAIDS	Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNGEI	United Nations Girls' Education Initiative
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UPE	Universal primary education



ENDNOTES

- ¹ The right to education imposes duties on states with regard to all levels of education and life-long learning, but states have a particular 'core obligation' to provide free and compulsory education to all.
- ² The other goals are: expand early childhood care and education (Goal 1); promote learning skills for young people and adults (Goal 3); increase adult literacy by 50 per cent (Goal 4); achieve gender parity by 2005 and gender equality by 2015 (Goal 5); and enhance educational quality (Goal 6).
- ³ The data cited in this paper are drawn from the 2010 Education for All Global Monitoring Report: Reaching the marginalized which are based on data from the UNESCO Institute for Statistics and represent the 2007 school year. The regions used here do not correspond to the official MDG regions. Annex 1 presents MDG indicators for the school year 2008 from the UNESCO Institute for Statistics which correspond to those in the MDG Progress Report.
- ⁴ The actual number of countries in each of these categories is likely to be higher since there are no data for several of the poorest countries, particularly those experiencing internal conflict.
- ⁵ Save the Children estimates that 1 in 3 children in 'conflict affected fragile states' is out of school compared to 1 in 11 in other low income countries and that in total over half of out of school children live in such states.
- ⁶ As per its Spanish acronym "Proyecto regional de educación en América Latina y el Caribe".
- ⁷ The 2010 GMR assessment includes estimates for improved coverage in early childhood programmes, universal primary education and adult literacy and covers 46 low-income countries for which data is available. The financial gap of 24 billion is bigger than the previous assumption as it includes an educational provision for reaching the most marginalized, which costs more.

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MDG TASK FORCE THEMATIC PAPERS

LIST OF LEAD AND SUPPORTING AGENCIES

NO.	THEME AREA (S)	LEAD AGENCY (IES)	SUPPORTING AGENCIES
1.	MDG 1 Sub-Groups: (i) Poverty reduction and employment (ii) Hunger (including malnutrition)	(i) ILO Alice Ouedraogo Anita Amorim Andrew Dale (ii) FAO/WFP Annika Soder/FAO Henk-Jan Brinkman/WFP Ricardo Sibrian/FAO Karfakis Panagiotis/FAO Barbara Huddleston/FAO	UNEP – David Smith UNICEF – Archana Dwivedi UNFPA – Ralph Hackert and Jose Miguel Guzman UNHCR – Kimberly Roberson UNDP – Diana Alarcon UNIFEM – Yassine Fall Regional Commissions – Adib Nehmeh Millennium Campaign – Sering Falu Njie UN DESA – Robert P Vos World Bank – Eric Swanson, Delfin Go, Kenneth Simler, Pierella Paci, Jaime Saavedra and Erika Lorenzana Del Villar
2.	MDG 2	UNESCO Olav Seim	ILO – Patrick Quinn and William Ratteree UNICEF – Dina Craissati WFP – Nancy Walters
3.	MDG 3	UNIFEM Joanne Sandler Laura Turquet Eva Rathgeber UNDP Mette Bloch Hansen	FAO – Yianna Lambrou ILO – Raphael Crowe UNFPA – Gayle Nelson and Edilberto Loaiza UNAIDS – Bertil Lindblad WFP – Isatou Jallow Regional Commissions – Rania Al-Jazairi ECE - Malinka Koparanova OHCHR – Rio Hada ECLAC – Sonia Montano

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NO.	THEME AREA (S)	LEAD AGENCY (IES)	SUPPORTING AGENCIES
4.	MDGs 4, 5 and 6	UNICEF Balaji LN	FAO – Florence Egal ILO – Sonia Smith, Laura Addati and Julia Lear UNAIDS – Bertil Lindblad, Karl-Lorenz Dehne and Marine Davtyan UN- DESA – Christine Brautigam, Francois Pelletier, Vladimira Kantorova and Francesca Perucci UNFPA –Stan Bernstein and Yves Bergevin UNIFEM – Nazneen Damji WFP – Martin Bloem, Nils Grede and Tina van den Briel WHO- Susan Elaine Holck and Winnie Mpanju-Shumbusho World Bank—Sadia Chowdhury, Ariel Fizsbein, Mukesh Chawla and Erika Lorenzana Del Villar
5.	MDG 7	UNEP Zehra Aydin	FAO – Mette Loyche Wilkie, Ye Yimin and Alemneh Dejene WHO – Robert Bos UNDP – Gregory Woodsworth and Holly Mergler UN HABITAT – Yamina Djacta and Gora Mboup UNIDO – Ole Lundby UNICEF – Clarissa Brocklehurst, Therese Dooley and William Fellows ILO – Ana Belén Sanchez UNFPA – Jose Miguel Guzman WFP – Carlo Scaramella Regional Commissions NY Office—Paola Betelli UNECE – Marco Keiner, Lidia Bratanova UNECLAC – Marianne Schaper UNESCWA - Carole Chouchani UNEP Ozone Secretariat – Marco Gonzalez and Gerald Mutisya UNEP WCMC Secretariat - Matt Walpole UNEP DRC – Bob Kakuyo and Nicolas Gonze UNDESA – Matthias Bruckner World Bank: Glenn-Marie Lange and Giovanni Ruta



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2015