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Education for All - The Nine Largest Countries

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The issues

In 1990, at the Jomtien World Conference on Education for All, participants of all countries took stock of the problems of access to education that still persisted in many parts of the world, and committed themselves to work co-operatively for their solution. In 1993, the Heads of State and Government of the nine most populated countries in the developing world reaffirmed their special commitment with the goals of universal education, in what became known as the EFA-9 Initiative, which is now under review.

The preamble of the *World Declaration on Education for All* presented a stark view of the realities to be faced[1]:

- More than 100 million children, including at least 60 million girls, have no access to primary schooling;
- More than 960 million adults, two thirds of which are women, are illiterate;
- More than 100 million children and countless adults fail to complete basic education programs.

These figures are just the most obvious manifestation of a much deeper problem. Formal schooling, important as it is, is not enough. Millions satisfy the attendance requirements but do not acquire essential knowledge and skills. Functional illiteracy, the inability to understand texts and to convey ideas in writing, is a significant problem in all countries; more than one third of the world's adults have no access to printed knowledge,

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• Prepared by Simon Schwartzman, American Institutes for Research /Brazil, at the request of UNESCO, as a subsidy to the EFA9 meeting of Education Ministries in Recife, Brazil, January 31-February 2. This paper makes extensive use of information from the national reports and benefited from suggestions, corrections and criticisms of representatives from most delegations to the EFA9 meeting, particularly *Bangladesh, Brazil, China, India and Pakistan.* However, it does not represent the official point of view of any country, which are fully expressed the national reports presented to the conference. Thanks are due to Wolfang Vollmann, UNESCO, for comments and suggestions; to UNESCO's Institute of Statistics, for help in checking part of the data and providing updated information; and to Felipe F. Schwartzman for help in the organization of the data.

[1] Preamble, *World Declaration on Education for All*. http://www.unesco.org/education/efa/07Apubl.htm.

new skills and technologies that could improve the quality of their lives and help them shape, and adapt to social and cultural change.

Education opportunities are distributed very unequally throughout the world. Most industrialised countries have solved their problems of illiteracy and access to basic education in the 19th Century, and, for the new millennium, are moving towards universalization of life-long and tertiary education. Outside the industrialised world, a large share of those without access to education are concentrated in a few large countries which are the subject of this report - *Bangladesh, Brazil, China, Egypt, India, Indonesia, Mexico, Nigeria, Pakistan.* Together, they encompass 3.2 billion persons, more than half of the world population. About one fourth of their population of 15 and more years, around one hundred million persons, are still illiterate. Progress has taken place in the last several years, but the full goals of the Jomtien Declaration are still to be reached.

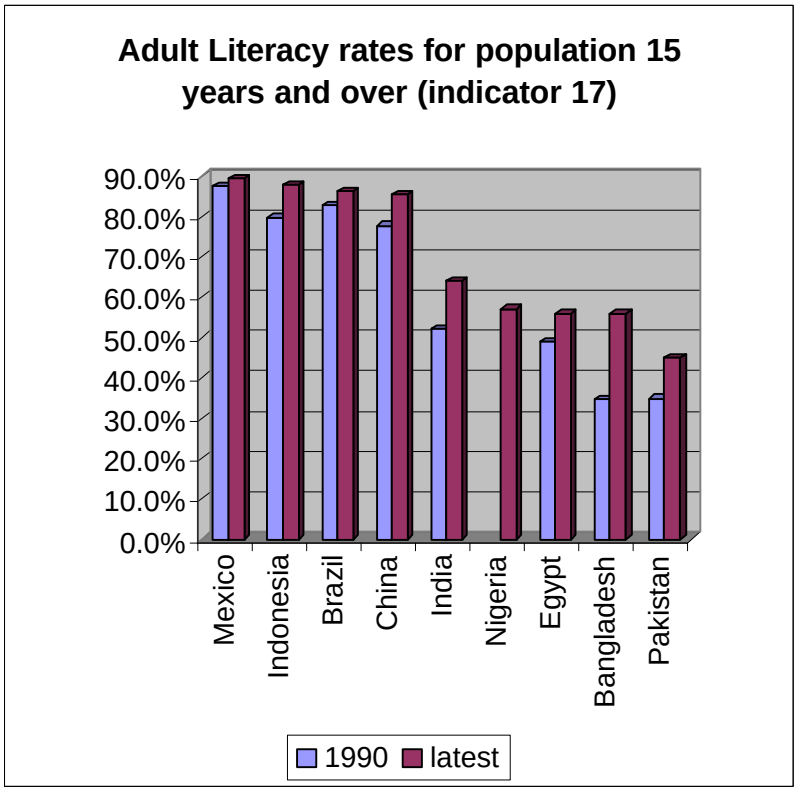

Figure 1[2]

[2] Based on the country's national reports. Graphics include only countries for which information is available. See appendix for details.

These countries have little in common beyond their size, being of different regions, cultures and levels of economic development. *Mexico*, *Indonesia*, *Brazil*, *China* and *Egypt* are approaching universal basic education, their main problems being how to reach out to those who have been left out of school in the past, and to assure that the education they are providing to the young is meaningful for their lives. The problems of *Pakistan*, *Nigeria*, *India* and *Bangladesh* are more daunting. They have much less resources, large segments of their young are still with no access to schools of any kind, and millions have already passed their youth without any kind of formal learning.

Lack of education is part of a larger condition of poverty and malnutrition, which affects the resources countries can provide for education and the children's ability to learn. Besides poverty, countries are handicapped when population grows beyond the existing means, and when women are not given equal opportunities to learn and to plan for their own lives. A central assumption of *Education for All* is that education cannot be seen and administered in isolation from the broader issues of poverty, malnutrition, population explosion and women's rights. However, another important assumption is that it is neither possible nor necessary to wait for the solution of broader questions of economic development to start dealing with education and issues such as children malnutrition and gender discrimination. For the same amount of resources, it is always possible to do better, if there is enough commitment and a clear notion of what should be done. Countries vary widely on the percentage of illiterate adult women and child malnutrition, but the relationships between these indicators and income is not a direct one, showing that improvements are always possible even in direst circumstances. A central purpose of EFA is precisely to improve this commitment and to identify and stimulate the use of the best possible practices in education.

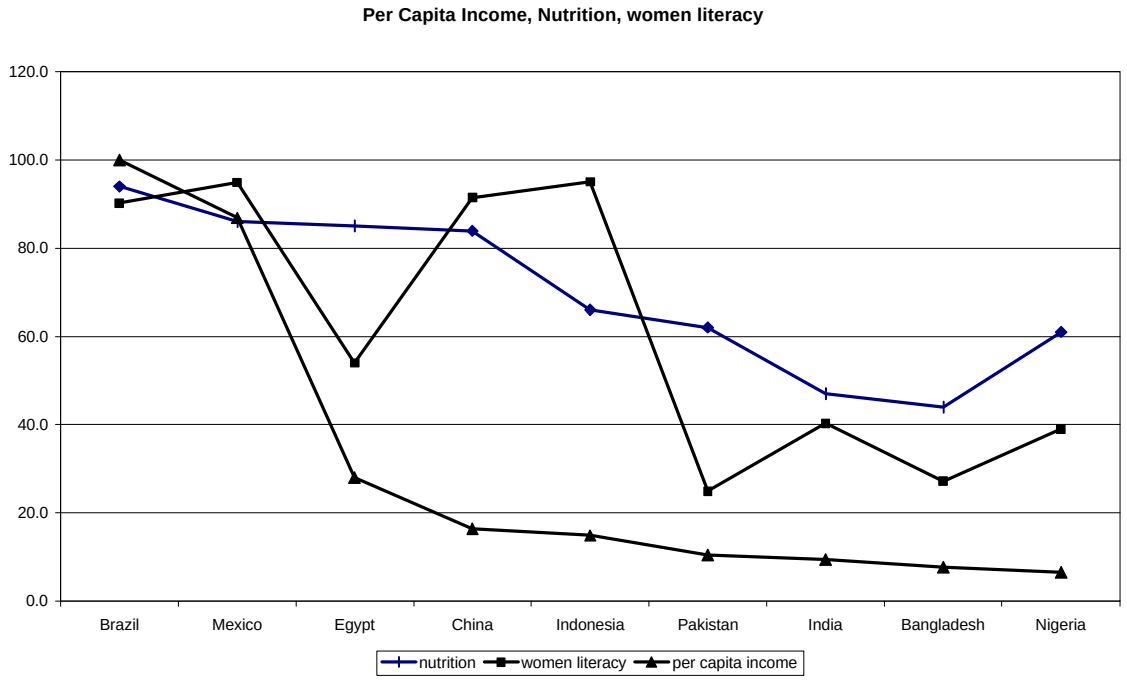

Figure 2[3]

To deal with these questions in a large country is very different from doing it in small and homogeneous societies. Beyond the usual differences on gender and urban versus rural communities, large countries often encompass populations with different cultures, languages and historical heritages, with large contrasts in wealth and institutional capabilities. Education takes place at society's grassroots, in the daily contact between teachers and students. Even when resources are available, it is extremely difficult to plan for, provide resources and administer the daily workings of thousands of teachers and millions of students from central ministries and administrative capitals. Yet, national governments need to break the vicious circle of poverty and lack of education that befalls large communities that cannot do it on their own. For this, they have to give central priority to education, combine national policies and initiative with decentralisation and local participation, and reach out for additional human and financial

[3] Data from the World Bank At-A-Glance country profiles. For this table, per-capita income was transformed into a scale having the highest value (Brazil, US 4,570) made equal to 100, and others distributed proportionally. Nutrition refers to children under five that are not malnourished. Female literacy refers to adult population (15 years of age and older). These data are used for illustration purposes only, and are subject to errors of different kinds.

resources, while making sure that all these efforts translate into creative and meaningful educational activities for teachers and students of all ages.

To assess what was achieved, and what remains to be done in these countries, this summary report is organised in terms of the main headings of the *1990 World Declaration on Education for All.* The Jomtien commitment of 1990 to achieve universal basic education in ten years is still far from being reached in many places. Countries with large rural populations, low per-capita income and no tradition of modern education had to face more difficulties than those with more resources and better starting points. Economic crises, external conflicts and political instability conspired in many cases to divert attention and resources from education. However, this was not a lost decade. Educational access and opportunities increased almost everywhere, inequality was reduced, and governments, experts and practitioners learned enormously from past successes and failures, and will use this added understanding to move forward in the years to come.

An expanded vision

In the past, basic education was perceived as something that would follow economic growth, and did not require special emphasis by policy makers in countries plagued with problems of poverty, political instability and social strife. *Education for All* underscored the notion that no long-lasting economic growth, political stability and social improvement could take place without serious and concerted efforts to provide the citizens with basic knowledge and skills.

To translate this notion into practice, countries have to provide more resources to education, giving it priority in relation to educational expenditures. They have to improve their management capabilities, and to be willing to change traditional ways of dealing with educational resources and the administration of schools.

The World Declaration on Education for All proposed a new understanding about how education should be provided, and how it should be related to peoples' life. Central to this new understanding is a renewed emphasis on *learning* as a focus for education. Issues like student enrolment, continued participation in organised programs and completion of certification requirements, should not be seen as goals in themselves, but

always in relation to what the students are incorporating in terms of useful knowledge, reasoning ability, skills, and values. This new understanding requires profound changes in the ways education systems are administered in most countries, with the introduction of methodologies for the assessment of student achievement, and efforts to assure that teachers, students and school administrators work together in creative and meaningful learning environments.

Another central component of this expanded vision is that education should not remain an isolated and routine activity confined to schools and controlled by educational authorities, but should become a central part of the peoples' life. It should be a permanent, life-long activity, starting at early ages, and continuing through adulthood; it should be diversified, and adjusted to different age groups, cultural contexts and social conditions. It should make use of all means and instruments provided by modern communication technologies; and the students should learn not just the basic instruments of reading and writing, but develop their social identity and awareness, in areas such as "health, nutrition, population, agricultural techniques, the environment, science, technology, family life, including fertility awareness, and other societal issues."

This vision is being adopted and implemented, with different degrees of success, by all countries covered by this report.

In *Bangladesh*, the government has given highest emphasis to basic education, extending compulsory education to the whole country, and developing a detailed strategy to be developed in the country's five-year plans. The plans and programmes of *Education for All* have received support from all sectors of society. The commitment from the highest level of political and administrative authorities was clear. Thus, the programmes have received a big push to give good results. To increase the social commitment with education, several approaches have been used, including social mobilisation through information, education and communication; sensitisation of stakeholders (social élites, opinion builders, parents, pupils of all ages); building partnership with private philanthropists, community, and non-government organisations; utilising facilities available with religious institutions (madrasahs/mosques/tolls/ temples, seminaries/churches, etc.); formation of local participatory committees (e.g. Village

Education Committee); and encouraging and supporting NGOs working at the grassroots level to promote people's participation.

In *Brazil*, a ten-year Education for All plan was established for the 1993-2003 period, and was strengthened by three recent and important legal tools: a constitutional amendment in 1996, which reorganised basic education funding to improve equity and earmark more resources to education; a new National Educational Law ("Lei de Diretrizes e Bases da Educação"), which combines flexibility with the introduction of evaluation procedures of educational outcomes at all levels; and a new National Education Plan, establishing clear targets for the next decade, which was referred to the National Congress for approval in 1998. These legal documents reflect a profound change in the way education is being treated by the Federal and many state and local governments, which include the improvement of educational statistics, the creation of national and regional assessment procedures, and a growing participation of community and business sectors in educational matters.

In *China*, a new "Five-year Plan for Educational Development and Long Range Development Program Toward the Year 2000" was established, with wide-ranging goals. According to this plan, in most areas, the focus has shifted from universal primary education to universal 9-year compulsory schooling. In poverty-stricken areas, sparsely populated uplands, pastoral and remote areas, efforts have been exerted to speed up universal primary education or to provide at least 3-4 years of primary education. Special attention has been given to the education of various disadvantaged groups, including girls, disabled children, and the children of migrants. Efforts have been made to shift from pedagogy based on examinations to a pedagogy based on the evaluation of quality and content. To achieve universal 9-year compulsory education by the end of the 1990s, in 1991 the State Council promulgated the "Rules for the Implementation of the Compulsory Education Law". In 1993 the "Guidelines for the Reform and Development of Education in *China*" was jointly promulgated by the CPC Central Committee and the State Council, establishing specific targets and improving the management structure of education, defining responsibilities of the various levels of government. In 1994 the CPC Central Committee convened a national conference on education, which reaffirmed the top priority status of the "two basics" and decided that earmarked funds should be

provided by governments at various levels to support the implementation of compulsory education in poor areas. As things stand now, the goal set for 'basically universalising 9-year compulsory schooling in the whole country' can be hopefully realised as scheduled."

In *Egypt,* the role of modern education as a cornerstone and key for the progress, welfare and security of the country and its citizens has been repeatedly expressed by the country's highest authorities, signalling the political will to move forward in this direction. Specific strategies have been identified to reach the goals of universal education, and an indication of the success of these strategies is the reduction of the country's illiteracy rate from 49.6% in 1986 to 38.6% in 1996. The main goals of basic education in *Egypt,* as identified by the various laws and according to the resolutions adopted by the National Conferences of Education, include the development of citizens able to adjust to the demands of a modern changing society, while understanding the religious, national and cultural dimensions of their identity; to provide society with citizens who have mastered not only the basic skills of reading, writing and arithmetic, but also critical thinking, analytic, scientific and problem–solving skills, enabling them to respond to ongoing demands and adjust to scientific and technological progress; and to provide citizens with basic knowledge on health, nutrition, environment and development related issues.

In *India,* the *World Declaration on Education For All* and the 'Framework for Action to meet Basic Learning Needs' were considered by the Central Advisory Board of Education as a reaffirmation of the policy orientation given to elementary education in the National Policy on Education in 1986. The Board highlighted the need for increased financial inputs to achieve the goals of EFA and formulated a broad operational framework for receiving financial assistance from international agencies for undertaking large-scale projects to achieve the goals of EFA. Further, it emphasised that the additional resources generated through external assistance should be utilised for educational reconstruction, which should go beyond the conventional measures such as opening new schools, construction of school building and appointing teachers. The goals, targets and strategies enunciated in the National Policy on Education and endorsed by the Advisory board were incorporated into successive five-year Plan proposals. The goals were pursued during the Eighth Five Year Plan which also involved the launching of

major projects supported by external funding and the literacy campaigns under the auspices of the National Literacy Mission. They are further being followed up during the current Ninth five-year Plan operating from 1997 to 2002. Thus, the goals of EFA have been incorporated into the national plan framework, which in turn guides all developmental actions at the state level.

In *Indonesia*, the "First long-term Development Period Plan (1989-1993)" states that education is the most important component in boosting all areas of national development, leading on increased awareness of the importance of education as a form of investment in human capital. "More importantly, early child development and primary education programs, in as well as out-of-school, are the most important components as bases for further quality improvement of human resources preparing them to be actors for national development in the era of globalisation." For *Nigeria*, "the guiding principle of the *Education For All* is the equipping of every citizen with such knowledge, skills, attitudes and values as will enable him/her to derive maximum benefits from his membership of society, lead a fulfilling life, and contribute his own quota towards the development and welfare of the community." "According to the "Vision 2010" for the country, attainment of *Education For All* is targeted at year 2010. Education is to be free and compulsory for all children between the ages of 6-18 by the years 2003 and 2009 respectively."

In *Mexico*, the framework of this new vision was established by a National Agreement for the Modernisation of Basic Education, in 1992, constitutional reforms, and a new education law, of 1993. The most important reform was the decentralisation of basic and normal education, keeping the tasks of defining contents, evaluation and compensatory policies for the central government, and delegating the administration and operation of education institutions for the states. Other actions include the mobilisation of society through of councils of social participation in education, compensatory policies for poorer communities, and a special attention to bilingual education.

In *Pakistan*, future policies for the improvement of education are expected to be based on "forging a link between basic education and development strategies; improvement and enhancement of the relevance of training programmes for teachers; modernisation of planning and management; shifting the focus of the curricula from disciplines to basic

learning needs; building new alliances for basic education and increasing the roles of the traditionally less involved actors in basic education; strengthening the participatory dimension in the provision of basic education; diversification of the financial resource base of basic education; introduction of the pre-school programmes as part of the efforts to improve the achievement of pupils at the primary school level; implementation of special programmes aimed at the indigenous sectors in the rural areas; modernisation of the concepts and programmes of literacy which are to be anchored on integrated literacy education; maximisation of the roles of the family, schools, community, non-governmental organisations and the media in the provision of basic education; and according higher priority in the provision of basic education to the out-of-school children, illiterate adults, those who have relapsed into illiteracy; females, rural population, inhabitants of settlements, tribesmen, nomads and special children." One of the main targets to be pursued with this new vision is to achieve a minimum level of learning by 90 percent of primary class students by the year 2010.

Public Resources to basic education

In spite of intentions, it was often not possible to provide more public money to basic education in the nineties, for different reasons, depending on the country: the slow rates of economic growth; the increasing competition for funds from other worthy sectors such as health and pensions; military expenditures; the adjustment policies required by the financial and market crises at the end of the decade; and different kinds of subsidies to sectors of the economy. In relative terms, however, it is possible to see increases in most countries both in the share of education regarding the countries' national products, and in the share of basic education within the country's education budgets.

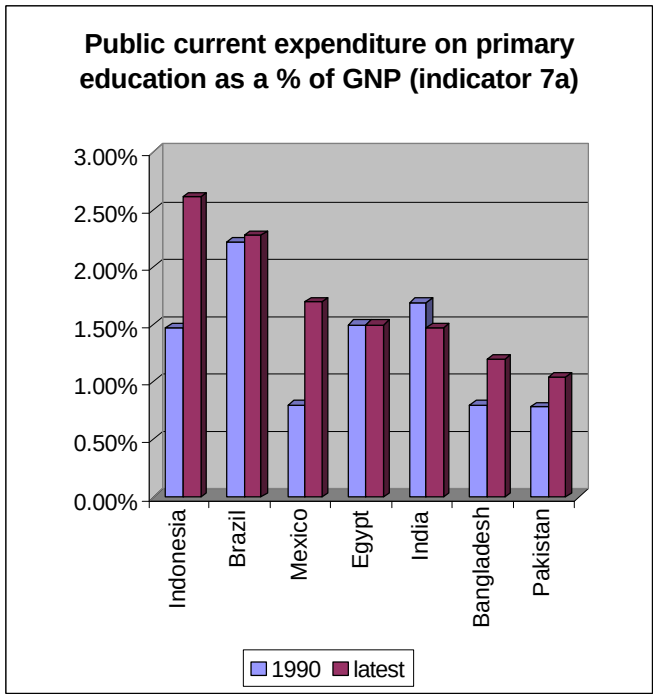

Figure 3[4]

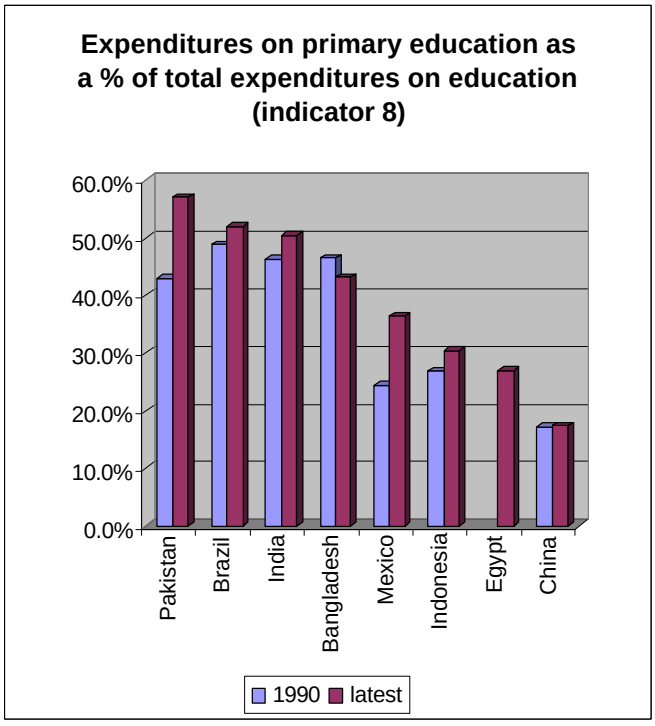

Figure 4

[4] This and the following figures include only countries for which there are data.

In *Bangladesh*, the share of expenditures on primary education regarding education expenditures in general declined after 1997, while public expenditures as a share of GNP increased from 1990 to 1995, declining afterwards.[5] In *Egypt*, in spite of the constraints of its program for economic restructuring, the priority accorded to education has lead to a steady increase in its appropriation within the total government budget, which was 17% in 1998/1999, compared with 11% in 1990. For 1997-1998,expenditure in primary education reached 27% of the total expenditure on education. In *India*, the statement made in the National Policy on Education - 1986 and 1992 that from the Eighth Five Year Plan (1992-1997) onwards the outlay on education would uniformly exceed 6 per cent of the national income is yet to materialise. The expenditure of the Central Government on education, which was 3.6 of GNP in 1990, remained under 3% throughout the 1990s. The share of elementary education in GNP in *India* has been relatively low, even though this has also increased by three times, from 0.48 per cent to a maximum of about 1.7 per cent in 1990, falling however to under 1.5% in 1997. In *Indonesia*, one of the countries that suffered most with the monetary crisis, the crisis is believed to have affected the enrolment rate in 9-year basic education, the transition rate from primary to lower secondary school, the numbers of illiteracy and drop-outs and the motivation of community and families in the achievement of EFA. Other countries did not identify similar impacts on broad educational indicators, but most of them faced serious financial difficulties.

One possible strategy in situations of resource instability is to make a fixed rule about the percentage of public revenues or expenditures that should go to education. In *Brazil*, since 1988, the Constitution requires that states and municipalities must invest at least 25% of their tax revenue in education, 50% of which in primary education. The Federal Administration, in turn, must invest 18% of its tax revenue in education – corresponding to about 4 to 6% of the national GDP. Until recently, however, there were no clear definitions of what should be considered "educational expenditure", and no reliable mechanism to ascertain that the Constitutional mandate was being followed. In 1996, Congress enacted a Constitutional amendment establishing a National Fund for Primary Education Development and for enhancing the Value of the Teaching Profession

[5] Page 62 of the Bangladesh National Report.

(FUNDEF), whose implementation began in 1998. This new legislation allows for the redistribution of education resources from richer to poorer areas, and from federal and state to local governments, according to differences in local resources, needs and student enrolments, and making sure that educational resources are not used to other purposes.

In *China*, for a long time, the burden of educational finance was mainly borne by the government. The financial constraints of the government have become a severe handicap to educational development. Accordingly, the Chinese government decided in 1988 to adopt a new policy of educational finance in which fiscal appropriations constitute the main source, to be supplemented by funds raised through a variety of ways, such as: collection of educational taxes and fees, charging tuition and miscellaneous fees for students attending post-secondary educational institutions, development of school-run enterprises, encouragement of donations and gifts from the society at large, fund-raising campaigns, and the establishment of educational funds, and thus opening new sources of educational finance. Consequently, total educational revenues and expenditures have kept steadily increasing in recent years. There was a 3.1 fold increase from 1991 to 1998, yielding an average annual growth rate of 22.5%. The expectation is that, by the end of the century public expenditure on education in *China* should reach about 4% of the nation's GNP, and the proportion of budgetary allocations for education to total budget at the national level should reach at least 15%

Even when it was not possible to provide more resources to education, there may have room to change priorities. Thus, *Pakistan* was able to increase allocations for basic education within the education budget by around 14% (from 43% to 57%), over a short period of nine years (1990-99). However, education is still only 7.8% of the national budget, and basic education is still under 1% of the GDP, with little change in the last ten years.

Dealing with regional and cultural diversity

None of the countries covered in this report is homogeneous. *Indonesia*, *India*, *China* and *Nigeria* encompass many regional, cultural and linguistic groups, often in disadvantageous economic conditions, requiring special attention and care. Regional differences are a matter of concern for most countries considered in this report. In general, urban areas are richer, their population more educated, with less pronounced

gender imbalances. Other differences are not related so much to urbanisation and economic development, as to historical circumstances and peculiar cultural traits of different settlements. In *Brazil*, for instance, the largest concentration of poverty and inadequate education is in the Northeast, a region of decadent plantation economies and overcrowded cities. Ten percent of the country's population in the age 15-24 is illiterate; of those, 60% are in the Northeast. In *China*, the five autonomous regions of Xinjiang, Neimenggu (Inner Mongolia), Ningxia, Tibet, and Guangxi and the three provinces of Qinghai, Yunnan and Guizhou are regions where ethnic minorities live in compact communities, and their education indicators are not the up to those of the country as a whole. Similar differences exist in most other countries.

The cultural and linguistic variety of many countries in this report is bewildering. Surprisingly, most national reports do not refer to specific policies related to linguistic differentiation. An important exception is *Mexico*, with about 10 million persons speaking around 80 different native languages. Students are stimulated to read and write in their native tongues, together with Spanish, which is the country's official language. They receive appropriate books and tapes with songs, stories and tales spoken in native languages and in Spanish, prepared by children, teachers and other members of these communities. Distance learning programs were created, providing bilingual schools with equipment and satellite dishes, and bilingual teachers receive special training for their work. In 1998-99, about a million indigenous children received bilingual education in Spanish and in 72 dialects of 49 languages, in about 17 thousand schools throughout the country.

Linguistic diversity of EFA-9 countries	
Bangladesh	Bengali, the national language, is spoken by all but the tribal hill people, who speak a variety of languages.
Brazil	Portuguese is the official language, and only some among 350,000 *India*ns, members of the most isolated tribes, may not speak it.
China	China's languages are classified into five major linguistic families: The Sino-Tibetan, Altaic, Indo-European, Astro-Asiatic and Anstronisian. The Mandarin dialects of the seven Chinese major dialects are spoken by about two thirds of China's population. The Mandarin Beijing Dialect (putonghua) is now China's national language. The Altaic linguistic family includes the Turkic group (Uygur, Kazakh, Uzbek and Salar), the Mongolic group (Mongolian, Tuzu, Bao'an and Daghurs), and the Tungusic groups (Manchu, Evenki, Orochon and Xibe). The Mon-Khmer group of the Austro-Asiatic family is represented in Yunnan province by the Wa (Kawa), the De'ang (Palaung), and the Penglung. The Indo-European linguistic family is represented only by Tajik and Russian speakers
Egypt	Arabic is the official language and is spoken by all Egyptians. The Coptic language, which is descended from ancient Egyptian, has died out among the people and is now used only in the Coptic liturgy. Italian, Greek, and Armenian are heard in Cairo and Alexandria. Berber is spoken in some of the western oases. Many of the nearly 100,000 Nubians in the south speak Sudanic languages
India	More than 200 languages are spoken. Four major language groups are represented. The most important of these is the Indo-Aryan branch of the Indo-European Group. Hindi is the language of 30% of the population and the official language of India. Hindi and the other Indo-Aryan languages—including Assamese, Bengali, Gujarati, Kashmiri, Marathi, Oriya, Punjabi, and Urdu--are spoken mainly in the northern part of the country and derive their script from ancient Sanskrit. The leading Dravidian languages--Tamil, Telugu, Malayalam, and Kannada--are spoken in four southern states. Sino-Tibetan and Austro-Asiatic languages generally survive only in small and isolated regions
Indonesia	The official language is Bahasa Indonesia (Indonesian), which evolved from Pasar Malay, a dialect widely spoken on Sumatra and used by traders in the islands. In addition, about 25 other languages, most of Malayo-Polynesian origin, and more than 200 dialects are spoken locally, including Acehnese, Batak, Sundanese, Madurese, and Balinese
Mexico	In the 1990 census, 91% of the people reported that Spanish was their primary language. The most widely spoken languages other than Spanish are: Nahuatl, used in east central Mexico; Maya, primarily in the Yucatan; Zapotec and Mixtec, spoken in Oaxaca state; and Otomi,

	spoken near Mexico City and in parts of Puebla and Veracruz states. In 1990 over 6.3 million Mexicans spoke one of the dialects of these languages
Nigeria	English is the official language. Generally, each ethnic group has its own language, although neighbouring peoples frequently speak mutually intelligible languages. Languages spoken by larger groups may have as many as 200 dialects
Pakistan	English is widely used in business and government, and Urdu is the official language. One of the Indo-Iranian languages, Urdu is derived mostly from a Sanskritic base but is written in a script similar to Arabic and has many words borrowed from Persian. The chief regional languages are Punjabi, Sindhi, Pushtu, and Baluchi, all of which are written in variations of Urdu and Arabic scripts.
Source: adapted from *The New Grolier Multimedia Encyclopaedia*, 1995.	

Strengthening partnerships

Governments alone cannot expect to provide all the resources, initiative and creativeness needed to reach acceptable levels of educational coverage and quality. Resource limitations are a central constraint, but not the only one. Even when resources are available, education cannot strive without the participation and commitment of the student's families and local communities, religious institutions, non-governmental organisations and the private sector.

How different countries reach out to society depend on their peculiar traditions, peculiarities and social assets. In *Bangladesh*, besides the formal education stream provided by the government, there is an important stream of informal education, provided by non governmental organisations, and a religious stream, the Madrasah educational system. Presently there are about 9,500 independent and 2,850 attached Ebtadyee madrasahs under the administrative control of the Ministry of Education. The Government of *Bangladesh* provides salary subvention to the teachers of recognised madrasahs as well as development supports at a limited scale, and works to modernise their curricula, so as to allow its students to have access to higher studies in science and technology and find gainful employment. Involvement of non-governmental organisations in primary education has been a growing phenomenon since the signing of the *World Declaration for All*, due to the government decision allow the non-

governmental organisations. Non governmental organisations, community based and private voluntary organisations are engaged in offering non-formal basic and primary education. A recent study showed that there were 418 non-governmental organisations working in education in the country, which were responsible for 121 thousand basic education centres, enrolling 3.6 million students.

India has also developed an extensive work of partnerships linking the federal, state and rural local bodies. Participation by all members of the community in basic education is considered as the main plank on which the whole effort towards EFA is to be orchestrated. Several strategies such as school mapping and micro planning are being adopted to ensure participation of people in bringing all children to school and to articulate their demand for improved school services. Participation of non-government organisations (NGOs) and voluntary agencies has been given an important place in the implementation of basic education programmes. It is envisaged that involvement of NGOs will on the one hand, enlarge the network of agencies and individuals for implementation of basic education programmes and on the other hand, it will bring greater flexibility and innovation into basic education programmes. Just as an example, in 1998/9 *India* counted almost 900 non-governmental organisations running about 60 thousand centres for non-formal education throughout the country.

In *Pakistan*, mosque buildings owned by the community are utilised for primary schooling. Maintenance of the mosques is the responsibility of the local community. The government helps paying the salary to a trained teacher and an honorarium for the Imam of the Mosque. Contributions by the community are generally in kind, such as free labour and construction materials for school building. Presently, around 27000 Mosque schools are functioning in rural areas, providing basic education up to grade-III to around one million children. The new programme is to have trained teachers, who will take them up to grade V. Presently, the 40,000 mosques and madrassah (traditional religious-cum-secular local based institutions) are being registered and monitored, so that it is ensured that quality and moral education in the basic education curricula is moving forward. Basic concepts of computer technology are also included in the Mosque School Program.

In *China,* one third of educational expenses are from social sectors, making it an important contribution to alleviate the shortage of school building arising from the implementation of 9-year compulsory schooling. In *Egypt,* there are mobile educational caravans for villages and remote areas in which thinkers and intellectuals work to raise awareness on the importance of literacy and encourage illiterates to join the classes, and to stimulate the provision of educational services offered to the most deprived areas, as well as providing health, social and environmental information and services to the people. In *Brazil*, public schools for basic and secondary education are centrally run by state and city administrations, which usually lack the instruments to go beyond the bureaucratic administration of personnel and financial matters. In the last decade, there has been a movement to grant more autonomy to schools and to link them more strongly with their communities, through the creation of school community councils and parents and teachers associations. In many cases, school principals are elected by these bodies, and have to respond to them. To make teaching more flexible, rigid mandated curricula were replaced by national educational parameters, which the schools are supposed to implement. In *Egypt,* the Ministry of Education works in partnership with the Ministries of Youth, Social Affairs, local administrations and provincial governments. Non-governmental organisations, village committees and urban associations play an important role, contributing to school buildings and assisting in increasing intake of students. A recent Ministerial decree empowered Parents and Teachers Associations to participate in the follow up of general administration, financing at the efficacy of the learning process in schools.

Strengthening international solidarity

International institutions play two important and complementary roles. The work of *UNESCO* in the Education for All initiative is the best example of the first role: to raise the issues, to disseminate best practices, to help countries to exchange and compare their experiences. Today, all countries are aware that they need to provide universal education, that gender imbalances have to be addressed, that it is necessary to improve the quality of teaching, that they need better educational statistics, and so forth. They know also where to get the necessary information and assistance to do what is needed,

whether from international agencies of some kind, or from the experiences of other countries. The *World Bank* plays also a very important role in this regard, helping countries to assess their needs, to create the necessary institutional arrangements to improve their work, and providing long-term loans that help to concentrate resources and attention in areas of special concern. In *Brazil*, for instance, between 1993 and 1998, the *Nordeste* Project invested about 500 million dollars made available by domestic resources and World Bank loans in the country's less developed region, the Northeast. In 1998 the project was revised and expanded to include the North and Mid-West Regions as well, where considerable educational problems were also detected.

The second role of international agencies is to provide direct financial and technical support to improve educational conditions in countries with very limited resources and serious educational handicaps to provide direct financial and technical support to improve educational conditions in countries with very limited resources and serious educational handicaps. The scope of this activity is limited, because of the sheer size of some of these countries, and the budget limitations of most international co-operation agencies. Even so, international donor agencies, including bilateral and multi-lateral agencies substantially raised their support for basic education in *Pakistan.* The major external sources of funding for the education sector in *Pakistan* are the World Bank, Asian Development Bank, UNICEF and UNDP. Several multilateral agencies also provide technical assistance, including, UNESCO, JICA, ILO, and most recently, the World Food Program (WFP). Bilateral donors, apart from USAID also include: the Netherlands; Britain, mainly through the Department for International Development (DFID); Germany, through GTZ and in other forms; Japan through substantial material and financial support; Canada through CIDA; France; OECD; and the Scandinavian countries. In *Egypt,* Co-operation on the international level is carried out with the UNICEF through the establishment of literacy classes and the publication of post literacy books. It is also undertaken with the German Agency of Technical Co-operation (GTZ) through the development of examination systems. Co-operation with the British Department for International Development (DFID) is designed to cover the training of literacy teachers and activation of the role of vocational training centres in literacy programmes. Co-operation with UNESCO is done through the financial assistance for the publication of six post literacy

books and the production of an education kit for literacy teachers. At the regional level, co-operation has been maintained with ALESCO, ESESCO and OAU, through joint programmes, conferences and consultations.

India received support from multi-lateral agencies including UN bodies, the World Bank and the ADB. Bilateral grants have been obtained from a number of donors such as the European Commission, DFID, SIDA, NORAD, HIVOS Netherlands and Japan. In fact, large programmes such as the DPEP are being supported and funded jointly by several of these agencies. Five UN agencies have supported the development of a joint initiative with the Government of *India* and State Governments on community based primary education. Assistance from UN agencies and bilateral donors is in the form of grants, while the World Bank provides loan assistance through IDA. Matching contributions in cash and kind are provided by Central and State Governments for such projects. International co-operation can also be seen in terms of field based programmes promoted by such international NGOs as Action Aid, Aga Khan Foundation, CARE, Save The Children Fund and Plan International. In *Nigeria*, many international agencies are involved in various programmes aimed at promoting basic education in the country. They include UNICEF, UNDP, UNESCO, UNFPA, EEC, ILO, DFID, the World Bank, as well as the Canadian and other governments. *Bangladesh* also benefited from extensive support from several international agencies, amounting in some years to about 30% of the country's total expenditure on primary and mass education. International co-operation to *Bangladesh* remained stable throughout most of the 1990's, but declined very sharply after 1997/98.

Improving the environment for education.

General health care and social support for children and their families are essential for successful education. These matters, however, are usually not within the jurisdiction of educational authorities, and are not mentioned in most EFA reports. Some health, nutrition and income policies are closely related to education, however, and could have been presented in more detail. *Brazil*, for instance, has a long tradition and experience of providing meals to students in public schools; another recent experience in some Brazilian regions is to provide financial support to poor families that keep their children

in school. In *Egypt*, a school-feeding programme has been reintroduced since 1991-92 in disadvantaged schools in rural and peri-urban areas, reaching nine million students in 1997-8. Health insurance services have also been extended to students, and are presently being expanded. *India* has also started, in 1995, a nation-wide mid-day meals program, which attended ten million students in 1998/9. Routine medical checks for sight and hearing impairments can save many children from learning failure, which is often attributed to lack of attention or other causes. In many countries, there are serious problems of violence and lack of safety in many schools, especially those in poorer quarters of large urban settlements, which would deserve more attention.

The negative consequences of bad health, poverty and deteriorated environments in education can be so serious that there is a natural tendency, in many places, to put these issues in the foreground, placing educational issues in a distant second. This is understandable, but educational institutions and programs should not be transformed into social welfare undertakings without clear learning objectives and goals.

One indicator of the quality of the teaching environment is the number of pupils per teacher in a given context. Countries differ very widely on this indicator, with figures going from 20 in *Indonesia*, *China*, *Egypt* and *Brazil* to above 40 in *India*, *Pakistan*, and *Bangladesh*. The interpretation of this indicator is not clear, although, in principle, smaller classes should provide better chances for individual attention to the child. However, low aggregate rates may be explained, in *Brazil* and *Mexico* for example, by large numbers of small, one-class-one-teacher rural schools, instead of many small, good quality schools. On the other hand, large classes are not incompatible with acceptable traditional learning, and may be the only possibility in societies with large and dense populations.

Early Childhood Education

The *World Declaration of Education for All* emphasises that "learning begins at birth. This calls for early childhood care and initial education. These can be provided through arrangements involving families, communities, or institutional programmes, as appropriate." Early childhood education is important to improve the children's ability to learn and move ahead in school. They are less likely to repeat or to drop out of school,

and in this sense, early childhood education plays an important role in the achievement of universal primary education. Early education has another indirect but important role, which is to allow mothers of young children to care for their own education and professional needs.

Brazil, *Mexico* and, to a lesser degree, *Indonesia*, are the only countries which report significant numbers of pre-school children. In *Mexico*, formal pre-school education includes children from three to five years of age. This level of education is not mandatory, and is not a prerequisite to enter basic education. However, almost 80% of the children in that age bracket attend pre-school, and eighty percent of the children entering basic education have had at least one year of pre-school education. In *Brazil*, one important rationale for pre-school education is that this is particularly important for children whose parents have no schooling and, for this reason, are not familiar with the literate and numerical culture, who make up a large proportion of children enrolled in basic education today. It is provided mostly by municipal governments. Recently, the number of children in pre-school education was reduced somewhat, probably because of the incentives provided by the Brazilian government to basic education, leading to the transfer of six-year-olds to the next educational level. In *Egypt*, enrolment in pre-school education was limited to about 4.8% of 4-5 year olds in the early nineties. Now, after a Presidential Declaration for the Protection and Care of the Egyptian Child, of 1989 and the establishment of the National Council for Childhood and Motherhood, there was a significant expansion in pre-school educational facilities, and enrolment reached 8% in 1998-9. In *Indonesia*, pre-school education and care is expanding through the work of non-governmental organisations, providing new approaches to child care, food complements and health services; through the gradual expansion of formal pre-school education; and through training of pre-school teachers. In addition, *Pakistan* has reported a centuries-old traditional pre-school formal and non-formal education, which is now being institutionalised and given legal protection. *Bangladesh* recognises the importance of early childhood education, but, according to the National Report, “adequate efforts have not been made” in this regard.

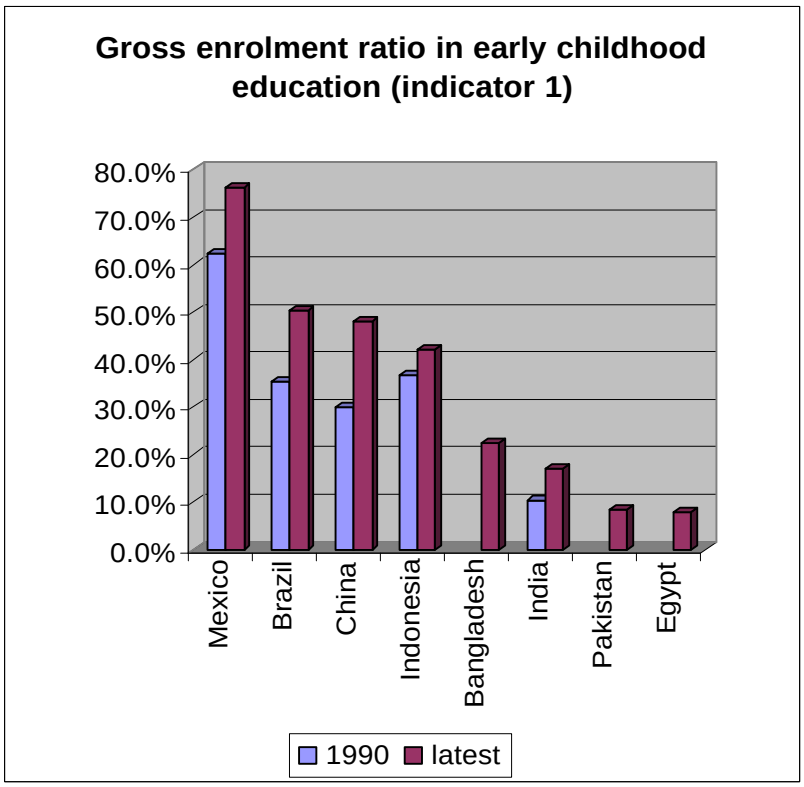

Figure 5

Dealing with adult illiteracy

For countries such as *Pakistan, Egypt, Nigeria, India and Bangladesh*, where a sizeable portion of the young are still out of school, literacy is mostly a question of reaching national universal coverage. For others, such as *Mexico, Brazil, China* and *Indonesia,* which are reaching universal access for children, there are problems of bringing schools to particularly poor and remote areas, and providing formal education to children from linguistic and cultural minorities. For both, there is a severe problem of adult illiteracy, persons who have passed their school age and need special attention and care, to be brought to the world of written words and numbers. These people cannot be brought into regular school systems. They have grown used to a life without reading and writing. Learning, for them, is often more difficult than for children, and, if they do not

use the new skills in daily life, they tend to forget what they learned in their literacy classes.

Countries have tried to deal with illiteracy in different ways, and not always with success. In *Bangladesh*, the main instruments for work against illiteracy are the large networks of non-formal education that already exist. The educational authorities have concluded that non-formal education can reach large numbers of people where they live and work; its objective is to impart useful knowledge and skill without removing people from their normal environment and responsibilities. There are programs of non-formal education for children, adolescents and adults, special attention is given to the education of women, and the government is striving to provide support and improve the quality of these efforts. The results are impressive, with a reduction of illiteracy of more than 20 percentage points in less than ten years.

In *Brazil*, most illiterates are in the older age groups, and in the country's poorer regions. Both the national and the state and local governments centre their efforts in the management and improvement of formal education for the young, leaving adult literacy for the work of voluntary and non-governmental organisations. The best example is the initiative called *Solidarity in Literacy Actions,* an innovative project launched by the Community Solidarity Program, directly linked to the office of the President of the Republic. Through campaigns such as *Adopt a Student*, the project promotes partnerships with civil society, recruits university students, and raises funds from private corporations to fight illiteracy in the 12-18 age group. Because illiteracy is concentrated in the poorest municipalities, the program was mainly designed for these localities. Implemented in January 1997, the *Solidarity in Literacy Actions* project had covered 581 municipalities by June 1999, most of which in the North and Northeast regions. By the end of 1999, the program was expected to have covered 300,000 students in 866 municipalities. It is a worthy but small effort, considering the large group of adult illiterates that still exist.

In *India*, according to the decennial census of 1991, about 200 million adults were non-literate, the largest such group in the world. A National Literacy Mission was launched with the objective of making 100 million in 15-35 age group literate by 1999. The success of the Ernakulam model (a district in the state of Kerala), based on a spirit of voluntarism and complete mobilisation of civil society, became the organising principle

of the Total Literacy Campaigns. Over the last decade, literacy campaigns have reached more than 90 per cent of *India*'s villages and population. The district is the unit of implementation. All housing blocks in each district are covered in campaign mode with people's participation. Over the last five years, the campaign has been expanded to remote corners of the country, including the educationally backward states of Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh and Rajasthan. The spirit of voluntarism has been remarkable in the literacy campaigns. Nearly 50% of the districts of this country are in the Post Literacy Phase and several of them have already started their Continuing Education Centres. Thanks to these actions, the percentage of illiterate persons in the *India*'s adult population went from about 48 to 34% in this decade.

In *China*, by 1990, adult illiteracy had been reduced to 22.3% from a height of 80% in 1949. By 1997, this figure had been reduced again to 16.4% of those above 15. In 1990 *China*'s illiterate and semi-literate population was still as high as 180,000,000, accounting for nearly one fifth of the world's total illiterate population. In the 1990s, *China* has intensified her efforts to eradicate illiteracy among adults, focusing efforts on the literacy education among young and middle-aged adults. An Interdepartmental Co-ordinating Group has been set up to co-ordinate the efforts of various departments and quarters. Efforts have been made to compile literacy primers and other textbooks and teaching materials, and to mobilise and train literacy teachers. Existing primary school buildings and primary teachers are to be utilised to conduct literacy work. Minimum literacy standards are stressed, and a system of assessment and acceptance of literacy work achievements and a system of commendation and rewards have been formulated and implemented. The main sites used for literacy education are literacy classes affiliated to rural primary schools, the evening schools of regular primary schools and literacy classes run by township cultural centres. Literacy teachers are mainly part-time, with a small number of full-time teachers employed in the primary schools for peasants (numbering 45,000 in 1998), other staff members and higher-grade pupils.

In *Egypt*, the estimation in the EFA national report is that 33% of the adult population was illiterate in 1999, down from 47% in 1990. Female illiteracy is twice as high as that of men. The government is working to bring more people to literacy classes and improve their motivation, making use, among other means, of revised curricula to

reflect the culture of the Egyptian community. There are voluntary literacy programs, making use of under-graduate teachers of the colleges of education, graduates of university colleges and institutes and religious men. They are requested to educate illiterates who have been classified according to their ages and professions. They receive books and the necessary teaching aids free. After a period of at least six months, the students sit for exams and receive promotion certificates. The educators are given bonuses and incentives. Five hundred persons participate in this program, reaching ten thousand students. Mobile educational caravans go to villages and remote areas, to raise awareness on the importance of literacy and encourage illiterates to join the classes. Moreover, they call for promoting educational services offered to the most deprived areas, as well as providing health, social and environmental information and services to the people. They also encourage the production of reading materials related to the environment for educating the illiterates in addition to the reading curricula. Recently, four hundred such caravans were sent to villages and hamlets. Businessmen have been also invited to combat illiteracy of the citizens of their villages, through centres for vocational training and the creation of educational, vocational, cultural, health and sport centres. Television channels and broadcasting are used as teaching aids for distance education, through the introduction of literacy lessons and educational drama. Textbooks are distributed to the residences, to be used with the literacy programs.

In *Indonesia*, the campaign against illiteracy was carried on through a co-ordination mechanism bringing together the ministries of Home Affairs, the Ministry of Religious Affairs, the Ministry of Education and Culture and the armed forces. The percentage of the illiterate population aged 15-24 years decreased by 50.36% in eight years, from 1.3 million (3.79%) in 1990 to 662,551 people (1.73%) in 1998. The estimation is that, in 1995/1996, one million persons would have finished the basic level while another million joined the literacy classes. During 1996/1997 one million joined literacy classes as beginners, two million finished the basic literacy level and one million were fully literate.

In *Mexico*, the percentage of illiterates in the adult population did not change much between 1990 and 1997, going from 12.6 to 10.6%. Presently, adult education is stimulated through the mobilisation of society, the use of voluntary work, and support

from governmental, non-governmental and private institutions, providing resources, space and the opportunity to link the world or learning with the world of work. Literacy programs are manned by the federal government, in co-operation with the States. In 1998, 2.6 million adults participated in courses of adult literacy and professional training.

In *Nigeria*, about half of the adult population is illiterate, and the government is working with international organisations to reduce it. Under its 4th Country Programme, the UNDP assisted a mass literacy program in *Nigeria* from 1995 – 1997, by supplying training equipment, vehicles, sewing machines, knitting machines, motor cycles, computers, photocopying machines, TV sets, etc. Many other international agencies have their own programs and projects. UNFPA financed three projects in Bauchi, Plateau and Ondo states at a total of about $960 000 with adult literacy components targeted at about 360 000 rural women. UNICEF is financing non formal education projects with adult literacy components (e.g. boy drop-out education) in four south eastern states in the country, girl education in eight northern states; and integration of basic education into traditional Quranic schools, to the tune of about $16.5 million. The Word Bank financed in 1993, and out-of-school children and youth survey project, to find out the main characteristics of the out-of school children and the factors responsible for early school drop-outs. It also printed the non-formal Education Monitoring and Evaluation handbook. The British Department for International Development (DFID) sponsored community based functional adult literacy in some States of the Federation. Training of Mass literacy personnel were sponsored by the Israeli, Indian and Italian Governments. UNESCO led the mid-term evaluation of the F&M/UNDP Mass Literacy programme, sponsored some overseas training and study undertaken by some Mass Literacy personnel. It is not clear how far this effort has helped *Nigeria* to come close to the target of increasing literacy from 50 to 80% of the population by the year 2,000.

In *Pakistan*, according to the EFA National Report, only a few projects and programmes for eradication of illiteracy could be launched during nineties, which do not commensurate with the great challenge and gigantic task of providing literacy to 42 million adults. A planned effort will be made to increase the literacy rate to 70% by the year 2002. This will require a major effort, since the literacy rate was still at 45% in 1998, against about 35% in 1999. The Provincial Governments, NGOs, Local Institutions

shall be actively involved both in planning and implementation. Allocations for adult literacy programmes will be substantially enhanced at the Federal and Provincial levels.

Dealing with gender disparities

In some countries of this group, particularly in *Bangladesh, Pakistan, India*, *Egypt,* and *Indonesia,* there is a wide gap in education between men and women, due mostly to traditional practices. There have been efforts to solve this problem, but the progress has been slow. An important step is to assure gender parity within the school system, and *China* and *Bangladesh* report to have already achieved full parity in their school systems, followed *by Egypt, India,* and *Pakistan*. The experience seems to show that grassroots and community-based campaigns, such as the literacy campaigns in *India* and *Egypt,* can involve the participation and motivation of women, which would not normally enter the male-dominated schools. Efforts to increase the number of female teachers in public education seem to help, and in countries where co-education is not the pattern, there are efforts to increase the number of schools for girls.

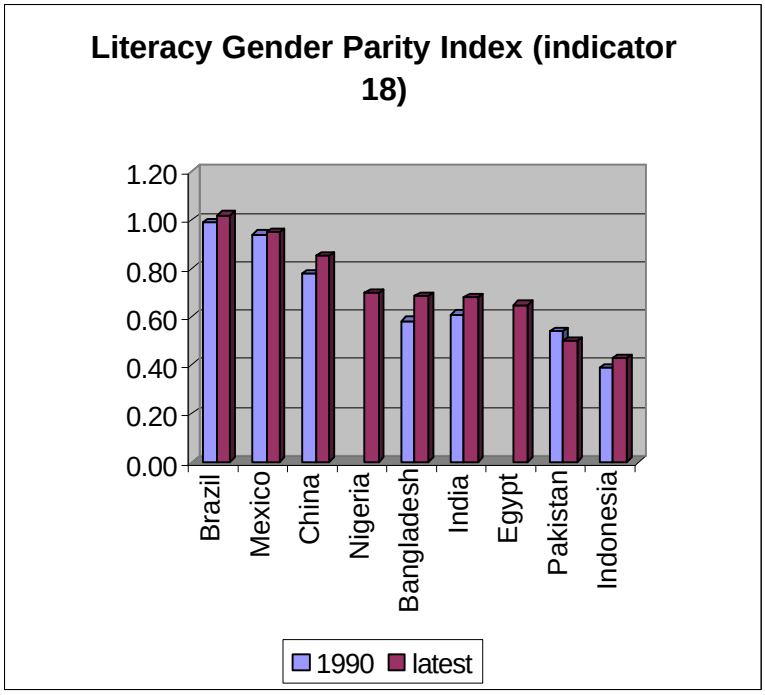

Figure 6

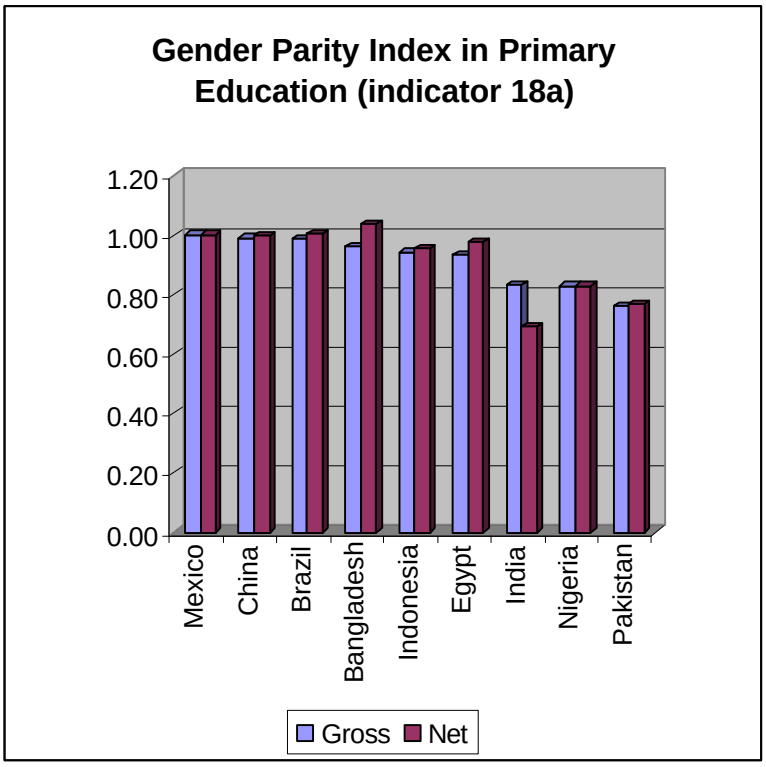

Figure 7

Thus, *Bangladesh* is working to increase the number of female teachers in primary school, requires at least 50% of women in literacy classes, and provides tax exemption for women in secondary schools. It has already achieved gender parity in primary schools, and is moving forward to reduce the gap for the older age groups. In *Egypt*, there are new experiments with community and one-class room schools for girls in poorer areas. The percentage of women in primary education is now 48%, against 45.7% in 1991/92, but the literacy gender parity index is still 0.65. By contrast, in *Pakistan*, "despite assigning priorities and giving focus to female and rural education in EFA programmes and projects, gender and regional disparities could not be eliminated. Overall, gross female enrolment/participation rate is only 68.6% against 98% male. Facilities and services for female education could not exceed one third of the total. Presently, only 35% of the total primary school teacher are female and 33% of primary schools are female schools. The consequence is that the gender parity index in the country has deteriorated from 54 to 48%

between 1990 and 1998. In *India,* female enrolment has shown a significant rise during the last few years, but gender disparity does not seem to be diminishing over the years. Figures show that there are at least as many girls outside the school as there are inside in the age group of 6-14 years. Particular attention in this regard is required in some states such as Bihar, Jammu & Kashmir, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh. In fact, not even two out of ten girls in the age group 6-11 year in Uttar Pradesh are in the primary school. In *Nigeria*, where the gender parity index is about 70%, the gap among genders of total enrolment in primary improved from 18.0% in 1993 and dropped to 10% in 1996. According to the country report, "this drop could be attributed in part to the mobilisation and advocacy campaigns mounted by the Federal, State and Local Governments in collaboration with donor agencies, NGOs and the media on girl-child education. It may also be accounted by the drop in male enrolment during this period."

Getting the children to school

The provision of schools for children of school age has been easier than solving the problems of literacy and gender equity. *Brazil, Indonesia, Mexico, China* and *Egypt* have all above 90% of net enrolment rate – the number of children in school age that are actually in schools. *Bangladesh* is close to 80%, while *India*, *Pakistan* and *Nigeria* are still lagging behind. *Bangladesh* and *Brazil* made very significant increases in gross enrolment in this decade (25.3% and 21.8%, respectively), which, for *Bangladesh*, meant a sharp increase in net enrolment as well (17.7%). In *India*, besides the regular schools, there is an extensive program of non-formal education, aimed at children in the 6-14 years who remain outside the formal system of education for variety of reasons. These include drop-outs of the formal schools, children from localities without schools, children who assist in performing domestic chores like fetching fuel, fodder, water, attending to siblings, grazing cattle, etc. and girls who are unable to attend formal schools. The programme has been revised and strengthened during the 1990s. Though the original scheme was meant only for ten educationally backward states, it has been extended to cover urban slums, hilly, tribal and desert areas and projects for working children in other states also.

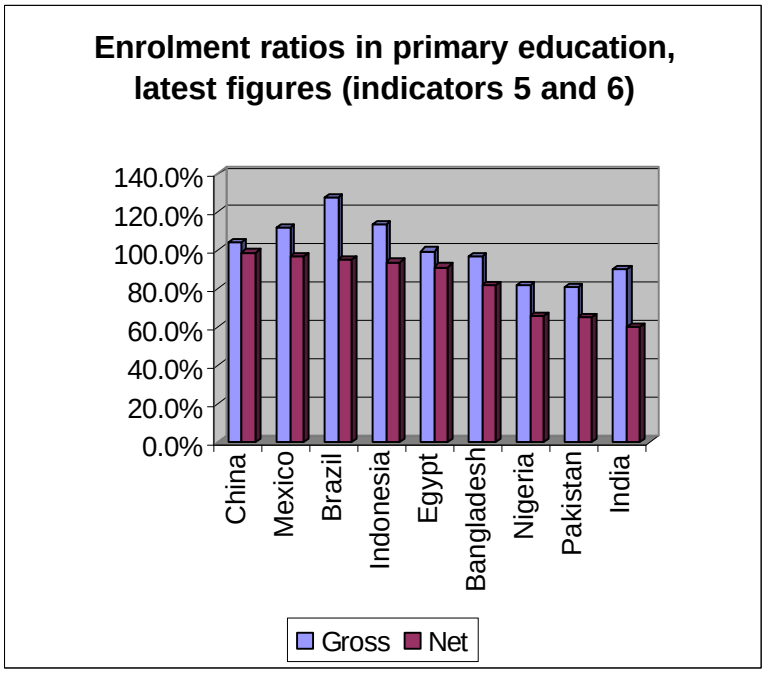

Figure 8

Gross enrolment rates express a comparison between the number of students in schools and the size of the corresponding age cohort. In *Brazil*, *Indonesia* and *Mexico*, this rate is above 100%, showing that many children are still in school beyond their corresponding age, while others that should be in school are still not there. In *Pakistan*, the enrolment ratio in public schools is nearly 50% for females and more than 80% for males. When figures from private schools in urban areas, community supported schools, and community-cum-government shared schools in rural areas are added, the figures increase significantly.

Older children in basic education are an indication of the inability of schools to provide them with the necessary education to move ahead according to their age. It is a waste of resources, which could be used to bring more children to the schools, and provide them with better educational conditions. Basic education schools should be able to receive the students when they are six or seven years of age, and to have them ready to move to higher educational levels or professional activities when they are at the age that corresponds to the country's period of mandatory education, usually at fifteen for eight years cycles. In many countries covered in this report, the reality is very different:

students lag behind in their studies, starting late and repeating the same series again and again, and dropping out of school before completing their basic education. School systems that keep the students behind do so because of the belief that student who do not learn the prescribed contents for their school year should remain in the same place until they learn. The consequences of this mistaken belief, however, can be serious. Students who are left behind tend to become alienated from school, decreasing their ability to catch up. Educational systems that keep their students in the first school years waste resources that could be used to improve the quality of education for all. Repetition rates are particularly serious in *Brazil*, *Mexico* and *Indonesia*, and, fortunately, have been reduced very significantly in the last 10 years. *Brazil*, together with *Pakistan*, still show the lowest survival rates at the 5^{th} grade, an indicator of how many students drop out of school before that level. In *Brazil*, survival is increasing thanks to new approaches to reduce repetition and failure rates. In *Pakistan*, several measures are being implemented to improve this situation, including adjustments in school schedules and vacation periods, and new ways of reconciling study and work for poor families in rural areas. The efficiency index compares the number of years the student take, on average, to complete six years of education, and is close to one when there are no significant retention in their school lives.

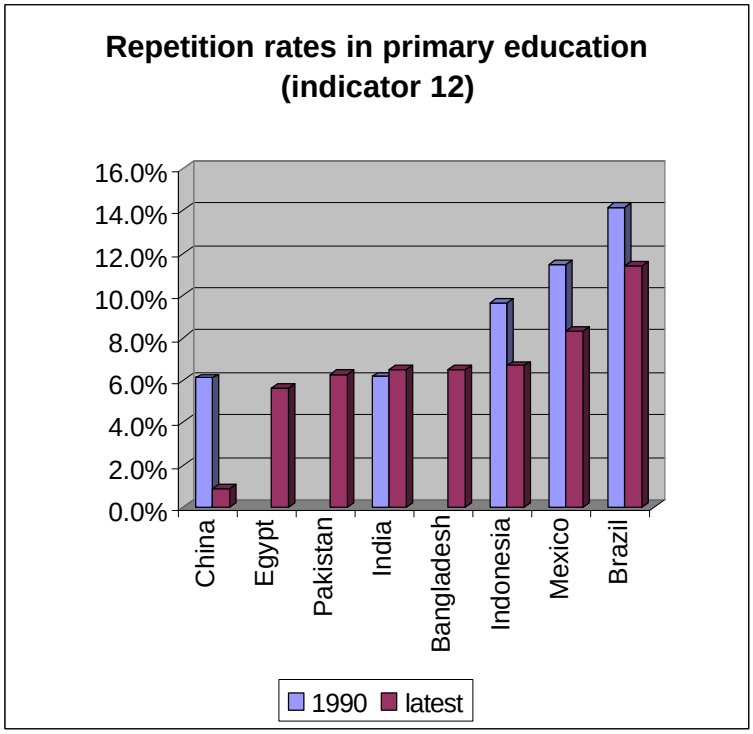

Figure 9

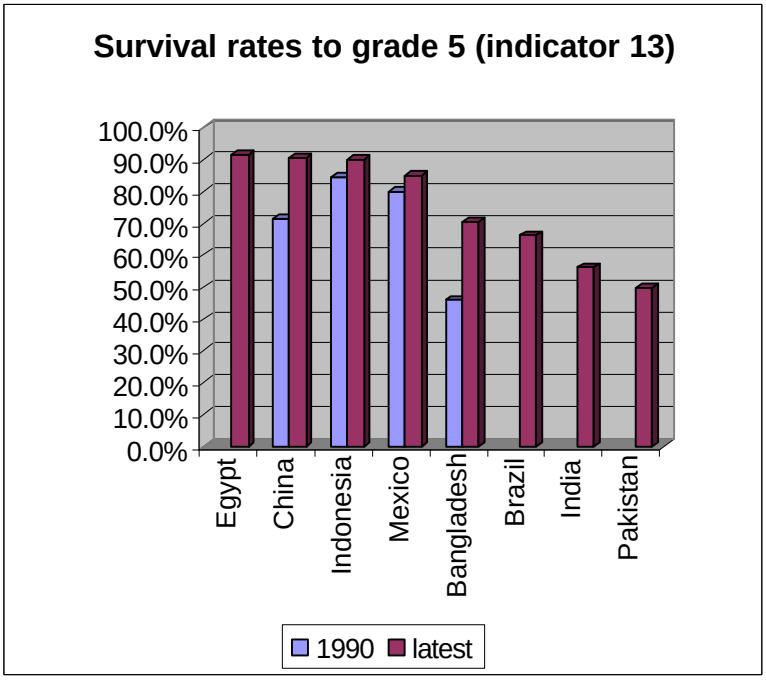

Figure 10

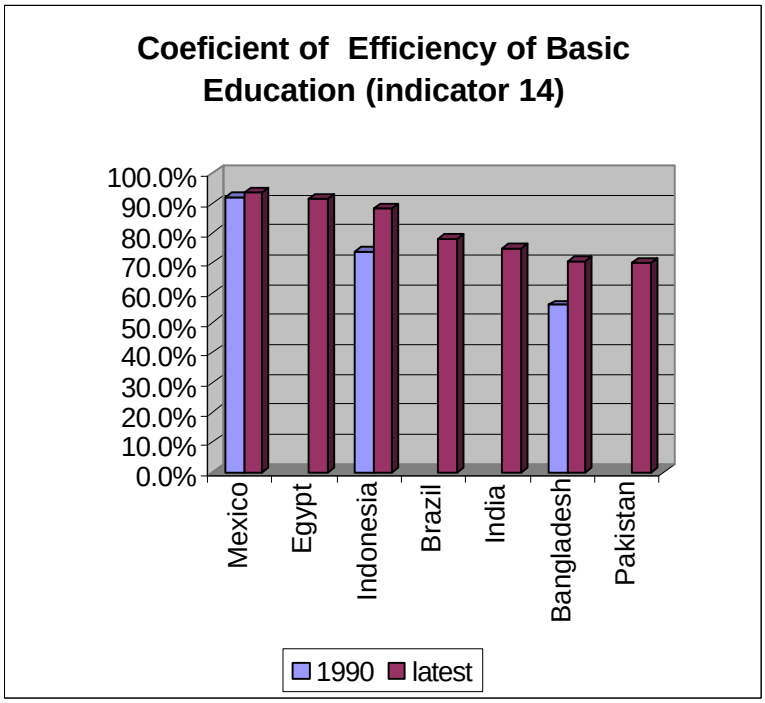

Figure 11

To deal with this problem, several approaches can be used. The first is to provide children with pre-school opportunities, allowing them to enter basic education with better conditions to learn. The second is to allow students more time to acquire the basic skills of literacy and numeracy in the first years of basic education, before subjecting them to assessments to determine their progress to more advanced school levels. The third is to bring the students who are already behind in their studies to special catch up classes, where they go through intensive study programs and can jump to the series that correspond to their age. The fourth is to establish monitoring procedures to evaluate what the students are actually learning before they fail, and to provide remedial help to them and to their teachers before it is too late.

In *Bangladesh*, high dropout rates have been a serious concern, among others, in improving the conditions of basic education. The National Plan of Action for education has sought to significantly reduce the dropout rate while increasing the enrolment rate. It seems there has been a notable improvement, with survival rate to grade V being 70 percent (that is, 30 percent drop out before completing the primary education cycle of five grades).

Brazil has been making use of different approaches, which have led to substantial improvements in repetition and dropout rates. Data provided by the school census of 1998 show that the catch-up program covered 1.2 million students, especially in the Northeastern states. In *Mexico,* it was found that the highest levels of school retention are in the regions with high concentration of rural and indigenous population. This lead to efforts to develop compensatory policies, providing the students with school materials, improving the quality of the furniture in schools, and training teachers, supervisors and principals to deal and respond to the special needs of these populations.

Focusing on learning

At the end, what matters is whether the students are learning what they need and should. To focus on learning, it is necessary to go beyond the formalities of school enrolment and rates of approval, and to ascertain whether the students are acquiring knowledge that is useful for a productive and meaningful life. It requires a combination of freedom, and autonomy and flexibility for the schools, to them from useless teaching rituals and rote learning; and the establishment of learning goals, standards and assessment procedures, to make sure that proper education is taking place. This combination of freedom, flexibility, standards and assessment is very different from the traditions of formal control in most public administrations, which are often unable to assess the quality and worthiness of the education the students receive.

Several countries have developed or are developing national and regional systems to assess what the students are actually learning in classrooms. In *Bangladesh*, a study has been made to measure reading competency in reading and writing Bangla, Mathematics and Life skills, which provided very significant information. About 51% of the students achieved levels considered satisfactory, with men performing slightly better than women. The study found important regional differences, but similar situations in cities and in the countryside and public schools proved to have more achievers than private institutions.

In *Brazil*, there is now a national and permanent system for the assessment of basic education (SAEB) which tells how the country's states are performing in

mathematics and language, and helps to identify the main determinants of school achievement or failure. In addition, many states are developing their own assessment instruments. Starting in 1995, SAEB has shown that, in general, there is a wide gap between what is expected from the student in terms of performance, and what the students are actually learning and achieving. This trend becomes especially pronounced after the second half of primary and all through secondary education. Not surprisingly, the results of SAEB show that the performance of Brazilian students is closely associated to the type of infrastructure available to the school. There is little chance for schools that are poorly installed, badly equipped and lacking in funds to achieve significant success. Students that are too old for their grades perform worse than those of the proper age do, confirming that there is no pedagogic benefit in compelling non-performers to repeat their grades. There is a clear relation between the educational level of the teacher and the achievement of the student, but whether the teacher has gone or not through a teacher training course does not seem to make any difference. Finally, there is a clear association between the parents' education and the students' achievement. Comparisons of SAEB results through time has shown some improvement in scores of students in impoverished areas which have received more attention and support to their schools, such as in the Northeast, and in some states which have moved further in institutional reforms and in the establishment of assessment mechanisms, such as Paraná, Minas Gerais, Santa Catarina and Rio Grande do Sul.

In *Egypt*, the measurement of learning achievement comprises four school term tests combined with performance on homework assignment during the scholastic year. School general tests based on common specifications are being administered at the end of 3rd grade and a provincial examination at the end of 6th grade, for grade promotion or transfer to the pre-preparatory stage of education. The National Examination and Evaluation Centre continues to pursue its mandate in setting examination criteria for monitoring and assessing total educational quality and management.

In *India*, minimum levels of learning at the national level were established through an expert body set up by the Government. Following this, most of the state governments revised their curriculum and textbooks and initiated programmes for measuring learner achievement on a regular basis. The Government of *India* supported 16 large-scale projects

to study and streamline this process and work out the processes needed for achieving of competencies by all children. Secondly, baseline studies were developed to assess the achievement of learners in various classes of the primary school. While recognising the importance of these instruments, the authors of *India*'s EFA document caution that performance of learners does not depend only on inputs provided in the school. They are also influenced by many other socio-economic contextual factors, which do not fall within the purview of education development projects. In addition, it may be counter-productive to anchor all quality improvement efforts to performance of learners in tests in selected subject areas. They have to be coupled with focus on learner growth and development in other areas which are not necessarily performance based and measurable.

In *Indonesia*, the Measurement of Learning Achievement Project (MLAP) measures the students' study performance at the fourth year or later, when the students have developed their ability/skills in language and numeracy continually. Tests applied to different provinces have been calibrated into a national standard scale, so the results can be compared, both among schools in a certain province and among the various provinces at national level. . *Nigeria*, with support from UNESCO and UNICEF, has established a Monitoring of Learning Achievement (MLA) project in 1994, to assess achievements English language, Mathematics and Life skills. This study, which may be considered as the first stage in the implementation of a larger monitoring project, is presently limited to Primary IV.

Pakistan has established a National Learning Indicators system and admissions test on the pattern of G. Stat. as a pre-requisite to all professional colleges. Admission is made strictly on merit, according to the required intake of institutions.

It is not clear, from the national reports, how countries are using the results of these assessments to improve the quality and relevance of education. The sheer existence of information on the quality of student performance can be a powerful instrument for emulation among regions and schools, and guide students and their families to be best performing schools, when there are choices. It should be possible, however, to move one step further, and use the results of these assessments as inputs for changing the contents of the curricula, improve the training of the teachers, develop better pedagogical materials, and so forth.

Improving the working conditions and competence of teachers.

In most countries in this report, teachers are reported to have the required academic qualifications to teach, but no identifiable certification procedures for actual teaching competence exist. The academic qualifications required to teach vary among countries, and are changing within countries. Thus, in *Pakistan*, for instance, teacher training for primary education is conducted as a one-year course after 10 years in general education. In *Brazil*, teacher education for pre-school and the first four years of basic education used to be limited to normal schools at the secondary level, and has changed recently to a higher education degree. In *China*, "primary school teachers having graduated from normal schools (secondary teacher training schools) and lower secondary school teachers having graduated from junior teachers colleges are regarded as fully qualified. In actual practice, those primary school teachers graduated from general secondary schools and lower secondary school teachers graduated from any short-cycle (2-3 years) higher education institutions are all regarded as qualified".

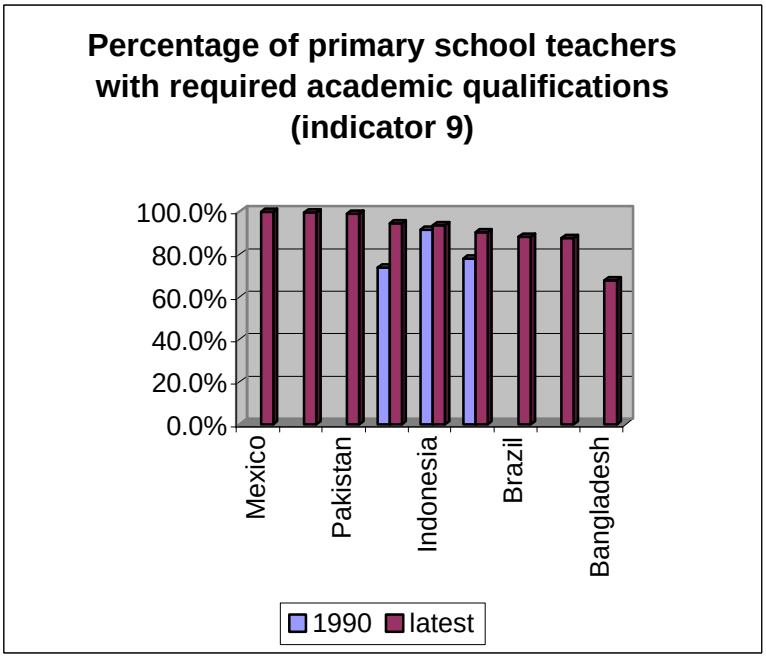

Figure 12

Academic credentials seem to be the only information most countries have about their teachers' ability to convey to the students the required contents, according to adequate methodologies. As countries increase the number of students entering school and reduce the dropout and repetition rates, teachers will be required to take up more students; work with more diversified groups; and provide meaningful contents. To meet this challenge, it will be necessary to improve the skills of the teachers that are already present, and to increase their numbers. For upper basic and secondary education, it is necessary to have teachers in large numbers and with specific knowledge in fields like biology, physics mathematics and languages. It is very unlikely that countries facing these challenges will have the necessary teaching manpower to respond to it. One way of responding to this situation is to increase the existing systems of teacher training and accreditation; another is to change the system, so that could be quickly recruited from a much larger pool of better-educated persons. The third possibility is to make use of modern technologies, to be able to deal with much larger populations with a reduced pool of qualified teachers.

Most countries report work in in-service training and continuous education for teachers. A significant experience is, in *India*, the initiative called "*Shikshak Samakhya*" (Teacher Empowerment), geared mostly to teachers in multi-grade classes. It was initiated in early 1990s in Madhya Pradesh with UNICEF support, which emphasised teacher creativity and autonomy for classroom organisation and teaching with a view to making learning a joyful experience for the children. The experiment has influenced the pedagogic renewal process in many other states, viz., *Ananddayi Shikshan* in Maharashtra and *Guru Mitra Yojana* in Rajasthan. This process of effective dissemination of experiences across state boundaries and their meaningful adaptation in larger areas is an important feature of the Indian efforts for pedagogic renewal under the EFA. In another example, in *Egypt*, pay and various bonuses and incentives for specific tasks have been substantially increased. All primary and preparatory teachers receive pre-service training at the university level. Both graduate and non-graduate teachers pursue further in-service training, and participate in distance programs televised by the National Technological Network and specialised satellite educational channels.

In spite of important examples such as this, there is not much, in the national reports, about what countries are doing to improve the quality and skills for their teachers as a whole, how they are planning to expand their teaching community, and how they are dealing or intend to deal with the resources provided by the new technologies of computer assisted, distance and interactive learning.

Conclusion: the next steps

The balance of *Education for All*, for these nine large countries, can be summarised in a simple phrase: there was progress, which was very significant in some countries, but no major change seemed to have taken place for the picture as a whole. On the positive side, some countries are already reaching universal enrolment in basic education; others are still far from it, and working for that purpose. According to the presentation made by Mr. Anil Bordia on 'Adult Literacy and Continuing Education'[6], 45 million persons in *China* acquired literacy between 1990 and 1998, a reduction from 180 million to 135 million. He further stated that literacy rate in *India* improved from 52 to 62 per cent between 1991 and 97. For the first time, the total number of illiterates in *India* went down from 329 million to 294 million. These are impressive figures, but the problem remains large. Some countries are keeping their students in school and moving them along at reasonable speed, while others are still far from universal coverage, and are much less efficient. The access of women to education is increasing everywhere, but in some countries, progress has been very slow on this regard. In addition, little is known about how apt the students are when they get their degrees, or when they drop out.

The reading of these nine country reports suggest that, in most places, education is still treated in isolation from other areas of public policy, even when Governments, at their highest level, define it as a priority. In most countries, the educational authorities proved to be well aware of the problems and priorities of basic and universal education, and to be moving in the right direction. However, the speed is usually slow, and the approaches seem to be traditional, based on formal teaching, rote learning and examinations. There are many targets presented by the countries for the next years, but

they risk being either too modest, or like wish lists. Few of these targets are associated with the necessary provisions of financial and technological resources to make them real.

One indication of the difficulties facing the educational authorities in many countries is the difficulty they found in providing the basic information requested by UNESCO for their EFA report. Some of these data, such as public expenditures, literacy and rates of enrolment, depend on the country's statistical offices, and are outside the educational authorities' control. Others, such as those related to dropout rates, academic qualifications of teachers, or student/teacher rations, are supposed to originate from the administrative work of the educational ministries and similar offices, and are usually available. More qualified information on the acquired skills of students, or the academic performance of schools and regions, are usually lacking.

It should be possible to identify, from the experiences of the past decade, a few elements that should be part of a renewed *Education for All* effort in this new millennium. They would include:

- The need to strengthen, in each country, institutional mechanisms to bring educational policy to the core of the countries' priorities. The responsibility for national education cannot rest solely on the Ministry of Education or similar institutions, and cannot rest just on formal co-ordinating committees.
- The need to create internal capabilities for research and the production and analysis of educational data. Ideally, educational research and the production of educational data and indicators should be done independently, but in co-operation with the educational authorities.
- The need to create permanent and reliable systems to evaluate and assess the content and achievement of student learning and teacher performance, through regular testing, national exams and other instruments.
- The need to make sure that the contents of what the students are learning are meaningful and useful for their lives. This requires a constant assessment and

[6]Asia Pacific Conference on EFA 2000 Assessment at Bangkok on 17-20 January 2000.

evaluation of the existing curricula, and fieldwork to understand what the students are actually doing with the skills they acquire in school.

- The need to devise specific and non-routine policies to train and certify enough teachers to respond to the requirements of rapidly expanding school systems. In many countries, these policies will require profound changes in the way teacher training have been handled so far – with new financial, institutional, methodological and intellectual approaches;
- The need to devise specific policies to deal with situations of social inequality among regions, gender, and rural-urban populations, as well as with disabled and special children;
- The need to devise specific policies to deal with linguistic and cultural minorities and sub-groups in countries with large internal diversity. These policies should address issues such as bilingual and multilingual education, the integration of national and local curricula, and the rights and concerns of ethnic minorities.
- The need to go behind the routine and the traditional habits and find new ways and additional resources to deal with the problems of adult literacy and gender bias
- The need to make use of the best available technologies to provide good quality content to the largest possible number of persons, overcoming the traditions of over-reliance on formal teaching and rote learning.
- The need for close co-ordination between population, health and educational policies, to assure that the children have the necessary conditions to benefit from the education they receive.

UNESCO and other international organisations can play a crucial role in devising a proper list of key components for educational progress in this coming decade, identifying best practices and helping countries to move forward in the implementation of these components. The decision to ask each country to prepare its report for the EFA evaluation with data on a common set of indicators was very valuable. It provided useful comparative information, and helped countries and

agencies of international co-operation to understand better the difficulties and limitations faced by countries in harnessing these data. For the next round of EFA evaluation, it might be convenient to ask countries to report on a specific list of policy components, such as the ones suggested above, and, again, to provide the necessary statistical information. By that time, the data should be better, and they will be telling a much better tale of the progress of *Education for All*.

ANNEX – Consolidated tables

General Remarks

This annex consolidates de available information provided by the EFA – 9 countries in their national reports and annexes, comparing, as much as possible, 1990 with 1999. To monitor the achievement of the goals of *Education for All*, countries were asked to make use of a spreadsheet prepared by UNESCO with places for all the necessary data and the formulae for 18 indicators. Besides, UNESCO's Institute of Statistics used its own database to prepare a synthesis for each country, and the data presented by most countries in their national reports received comments and suggestions for improvement from UNESCO. All these sources were examined to produce the better possible information for 1990 and 1999, or the closest possible years. Whenever possible, the data included in this annex and in the summary report are the ones provided by the countries themselves.

Not all countries prepared the data according to the suggested methodology, and in some cases the information in the national reports and in the spreadsheets (called "annex" in this appendix) do no coincide. The quality of the data varies according to different countries and indicators. In some cases, de indicators depend on demographic information, which is not available, or is outdated. In other cases, the reference groups - age group cohorts, school grades – are not the same. At the EFA-9 Conference in Recife, the countries were asked to examine these data and indicate the eventual omissions or errors, and this information was taken into account in this version,

Because of these limitations, these data are used for illustrative purposes only in this summary report, and the rankings of countries according to these indicators are subject to error.

1. Gross enrolment ratio in Early Childhood Development Programmes (ECD).

	1990 latest		years	age brackets
Bangladesh		22.4%	1998	3-5
Brazil	35.4%	50.4%	1991-1998	4-6
China	29.9%	43.8%	1991-1998	3-6
Egypt		8.0%	1998/99	4-6
India	10.3%	16.9%	1990-1997/98	3-5/6
Indonesia	36.7%	42.0%		3-5
Mexico	62.2%	76.3%	1990/91-1998	3-5
Nigeria				
Pakistan		8.5%	1997/98	

Notes:

Different countries use different concepts and refer to different age brackets for early childhood education

Bangladesh: Early Childhood Care and Development Program

Brazil: includes pre-school (ages 3-5) and literacy classes (age 6), but not day-care schools

Egypt: the figure in the annex is 10%

India: Programme of Integrated Child Development Scheme (ICDS)

Indonesia: refers only to urban areas

2. Percentage of new entrants to grade 1 who have attended some form of organised early childhood development programme during at least one year (or one year enrolment period)

	1990	latest	years
Bangladesh		52.2%	1998
Brazil			
China			
Egypt		12.0%	1998/99
India			
Indonesia	26.6%	23.3%	1994/95-1997/98
Mexico	72.6%	91.1%	1990/91-1998/99
Nigeria			
Pakistan			

3. Apparent (gross) Intake rates in primary education. (AIR)

	1990	latest	years
Bangladesh	73.0%	125.7%	1998
Brazil		131.7%	1998
China	115.8%	113.1%	1991-1997
Egypt		99.0%	1998/99
India		116.1%	1997
Indonesia	93.8%	101.2%	1990-1997
Mexico	115.8%	114.0%	1990/91-1998/99
Nigeria	98.5%	80.2%	1990-1996
Pakistan		99.8%	1997-1998

Notes:
Egypt: does not include Al-Azhar. The figure in the Annex is 91%
Pakistan: the figure in the Annex is 102.5%

4. Net intake rates in primary education

	1990	latest	years
Bangladesh		64.6%	1998
Brazil		70.4%	1998
China	88.7%	94.0%	1991-1996
Egypt		87.0%	1998/99
India		67.5%	1997
Indonesia	45.1%	49.1%	1997
Mexico	91.4%	92.9%	1990/91-1998/99
Nigeria			
Pakistan		59.7%	1997/1998

Notes:
Egypt: data do not include Al-Azhar. The figure in the annex is 61.3%
India: The figure in the annex is 53%
Mexico: the figure in the annex is 80%, presumably for 1997/1998.

5. Gross enrolment ratio in primary education (GER)

	1990	latest	net, latest	age group	duration (years)	years
Bangladesh	71.2%	96.5%	81.4%	6-10	5	1990-1998
Brazil	106.2%	128.0%	95.3%	7-14	8	1991-1998
China	112.1%	104.3%	98.9%	7-12	6	1991-1998
Egypt	90.8%	99.6%	91.4%	6-11	6	1990-1998
India	89.5%	89.8%	59.9%	5/6-9/10	5	1990-1998
Indonesia	109.5%	113.6%	93.7%	6-11	6	1990-1997
Mexico	111.4%	112.0%	96.6%	6-11	6	1990/91-1998/99
Nigeria	67.7%	82.0%	65.6%	6-11	6	1990-1996
Pakistan	70.3%	81.1%	64.8%	5-9	5	1997/1998

Notes:
Data provided by UNESCO's Institute of Statistics
Egypt: does not include Al-Azhar
Pakistan: includes only the public sector.

6. Net enrolment ratio in primary education (NER)

	1990	latest	age group	Duration (years)	years
Bangladesh	63.7%	81.4%	6-10	5	1989-1998
Brazil	86.4%	95.3%	7-14	8	1990-1998
China	97.0%	98.9%	7-12	6	1990-1998
Egypt	83.1%	91.4%	6-11	6	1998-1999
India	59.8%	59.9%	5/6-9/10	5	1990-1998
Indonesia	92.0%	93.7%	6-11	6	1990-1998
Mexico	90.4%	96.6%	6-11	6	1990-1998
Nigeria	54.2%	65.6%	6-11	6	1990-1998
Pakistan	56.2%	64.8%	5-9	5	1997/1998

Notes:
Data provided by UNESCO's Institute of Statistics
Egypt: does not include Al-Azhar data.

7a -Public current expenditure on primary education as a % of GNP

	1990	latest	years
Bangladesh	0.80%	1.20%	1990-1999
Brazil	2.22%	2.28%	1989-1995
China	0.61%	0.60%	1990-1997
Egypt	1.50%	1.50%	1990-1998/9
India	1.69%	1.47%	1990-1997
Indonesia	1.47%	2.61%	1992-1997
Mexico	0.80%	1.70%	1990-1998
Nigeria			
Pakistan	0.78%	1.04%	1990/91-1998/99

Notes:
Egypt: the figures that appear in the report (19%) seem to be a typing error.
Indonesia: Calculated from indicator 8 and the percentage of total expenditures on education. The data on total current expenditure on education is different from that of UNESCO. Data on GNP is different from that of the World Bank.

7b - Public current expenditure per pupil on primary education as a % of GNP per capita

	1990	latest	Years
Bangladesh	7.60%	8.20%	1990-1998
Brazil	10.01%	10.14%	1989-1995
China	5.74%	5.32%	1990-1998
Egypt			
India	10.50%	9.42%	1990-1997
Indonesia	9.26%	17.95%	1992-1997
Mexico	4.60%	12.10%	1990-1998
Nigeria			
Pakistan	6%	8.22%	1990/91-1997/98

Notes:

Brazil: calculated from the annex

Pakistan: the figure in the annex is 11.6 for 1997/98.

8 - Public expenditure on primary education as a % of total public expenditure on education

	1990	latest	Years
Bangladesh	46.5%	43.1%	1990-1999
Brazil	48.8%	52.0%	1990-1995
China	17.3%	17.4%	1990-1998
Egypt		27.0%	1997/98
India	46.3%	50.4%	1990-1997
Indonesia	26.9%	30.4%	1992-1997
Mexico	24.4%	36.4%	1990-1998
Nigeria			
Pakistan	43.0%	57.0%	1990-1999

Notes:

Brazil: Without capital expenditure and pre-primary education it would be 41.52%

9 -Percentage of primary teachers with required academic qualifications

	1990	latest	years
Bangladesh		67.9%	1998
Brazil		88.1%	1998
China	73.8%	94.5%	1990-1998
Egypt		99.8%	1997/98
India		87.7%	1997
Indonesia	91.5%	93.6%	1997/98
Mexico		84.4%	1997/98
Nigeria	78.2%	90.4%	
Pakistan		99.2%	1997/98

Notes:

Bangladesh: the minimum required qualification is Higher Secondary Certificate (12th grade) with Certificate-in-Education /Bachelor degree for males, and Secondary School certificate (10th grade) for females.

Brazil: the currently required qualification for series 1-4 is Normal School, secondary education 11th grade); for series 5-8, is higher education ("licenciatura").

China: primary school teachers should have at least completed their education in secondary teacher training schools (normal schools) or other category of secondary school; lower secondary school teachers should have at least completed junior teachers' colleges

India: (i) Matriculation; and (ii) 10+2 Senior Secondary Course

Indonesia: secondary school level

Mexico: participants in the "Carrera Magisterial" (teaching career). The minimum requirement is normal school, secondary level.

Nigeria: Grade 11

Pakistan: secondary school certificate (grade 10th)

10 - Percentage of primary teachers who are certified to teach according to national standards

	1990	latest
Bangladesh		69.9%
Brazil		
China		
Egypt		
India		87.7%
Indonesia		93.6%
Mexico		100.0%
Nigeria		
Pakistan		87.2%

Notes:

India, Indonesia and Mexico: the figures for indicators 9 and 10 are the same.

11- Pupil-teacher ratio in primary education

	1990	latest	years
Bangladesh	61.0	59.3	1991-1998
Brazil	23.0	25.0	1991-1998
China	21.9	24.0	1990-1998
Egypt		24.0	
India		48.3	1997
Indonesia	23.0	22.0	1997
Mexico	30.5	27.0	1990/91-1998/89
Nigeria	36.0	34.0	1990-1996
Pakistan	37.0	48.4	1997/98

Notes

Pakistan: only for public sector. Total enrolment presented for this indicator is different from that reported for indicators 5, 6, 7, 8

India: In the national report, the P-T ratio is 42 for Primary School (1st to 5th grade) and 37 for Upper Primary (5th to 7th grade) in 1997.

12 - Repetition rates in primary education

	1990	latest	years
Bangladesh		6.5%	1998
Brazil	14.2%	11.4%	1990- 1996/97
China	6.1%	0.9%	1990-1998
Egypt		5.6%	1992-1998
India	6.2	6.5%	1990-1997
Indonesia	9.7%	6.7%	1990-1998
Mexico	11.5%	8.3%	1990/91 1997/98
Nigeria			
Pakistan		6.3%	1997/98

Note:

This figure depends on whether the country has a policy of social promotion or not, and on whether students who drop out and are admitted later to other schools are counted as repeaters or new entrants.
Egypt: average for the 1992-1998 period.

13 - Survival rate to grade 5

	1990	latest	years
Bangladesh	45.9%	70.3%	1991-1998
Brazil		66.2%	1997
China	71.4%	90.5%	1990-1998
Egypt		91.7%	
India		56	1997
Indonesia	84.4%	90.0%	1990-1997
Mexico	80.0%	85.0%	1990/1991-1999/00
Nigeria			
Pakistan		49.7%	1997/98

Notes:

Brazil: data are unified from grades 1 to 8, and there is no information of grade 4.

Egypt: average for the 1991-96 period.

Indonesia: the figure in the annex is 85.3, with reference to grade 6.

14 - Coefficient of efficiency

	1990	latest	years
Bangladesh	55.9%	70.5%	1991-1998
Brazil		78.0%	1998
China			
Egypt		91.7%	
India		75%	1997
Indonesia	74.0%	88.3%	1990-1997
Mexico	92.3%	93.8%	1990/91-1999
Nigeria			
Pakistan		70.3%	1997/98

Notes

The coefficient compares the number of years of required basic education with the average number of years taken by the students to complete basic education.

Egypt: the figure in the annex is 88% for grade 6, 1997.

15 - percentage of pupils who master basic learning competencies

	reading, writing	mathematics	composite
Bangladesh	30.4	51.4%	51.40%
Brazil			
China			
Egypt			
India			
Indonesia			
Mexico	74.3	8.6	
Nigeria			
Pakistan			

Note:
Bangladesh: the composite index includes life skills/others (75%)
Brazil: The national report gives data on student performance in language and mathematics, but does not define a national standard
Mexico: only for urban areas. The percentage for rural areas is 61.8 and 76.2.

16 - Adult Literacy rates 15-24 years

	1990	latest	years
Bangladesh		58.1%	1998
Brazil	91.3%	94.6%	1992-1998
China	89.6%	94.5%	1990-1997
Egypt		73.0%	
India			
Indonesia	96.2%	98.3%	1990-1998
Mexico	95.0%	96.7%	1990-1997
Nigeria			
Pakistan		55.3%	1997/98

Notes:

Brazil: data from the National Household Survey (PNAD), 1998. Do not include information on the rural populations in the states of Rondônia, Acre, Amazonas, Roraima, Pará and Amapá.

China: ages 15-40

Egypt: ages 15-35

17 - Adult Literacy rates 15 years and over

	1990	latest	years
Bangladesh	34.6%	55.9%	1991-1998
Brazil	82.8%	86.2%	1992-1998
China	77.7%	85.5%	1990-1998
Egypt	49.0%	56.0%	1992
India	52.2%	64.0%	1991-1998
Indonesia	79.8%	87.9%	1990-1998
Mexico	87.4%	89.4%	1990-1997
Nigeria		57.1%	1995
Pakistan	34.8%	45.0%	1997-1998

Notes:
Bangladesh: the figure in the annex is 58.2 for 1998/99.
India: rates are for people aged 7+
Pakistan: rates are for people aged 10 and more. The figure in the annex for population of 15 and more is 42.7%

18 - Literacy Gender Parity Index (GPI)

	1990	latest	years
Bangladesh	0.58	0.69	1998
Brazil	0.99	1.02	1990-1996
China	0.78	0.85	1990-1997
Egypt		0.65	
India	0.61	0.68	1991-1997
Indonesia	0.39	0.43	1990-1998
Mexico	0.94	0.95	1990-1997
Nigeria		0.70	1995
Pakistan	0.54	0.50	1997-1998

Notes:

Bangladesh: for adult population, calculated from table 16 of the national report.
Brazil: does not include rural population of Rondônia, Acre, Amazonas, Roraima, Pará and Amapá
India: data refers to people aged 7+
Pakistan: refers to people aged 10+

18a - Gender Parity Index in Primary education latest figures)

	Gross	Net
Bangladesh	0.96	1.04
Brazil	0.99	1.00
China	0.99	1.00
Egypt	0.93	0.98
India	0.83	0.69
Indonesia	0.94	0.96
Mexico	1.00	1.00
Nigeria	0.83	0.83
Pakistan	0.76	0.77
TOTAL EFA9	0.92	0.90

Source: UNESCO's Institute of Statistics