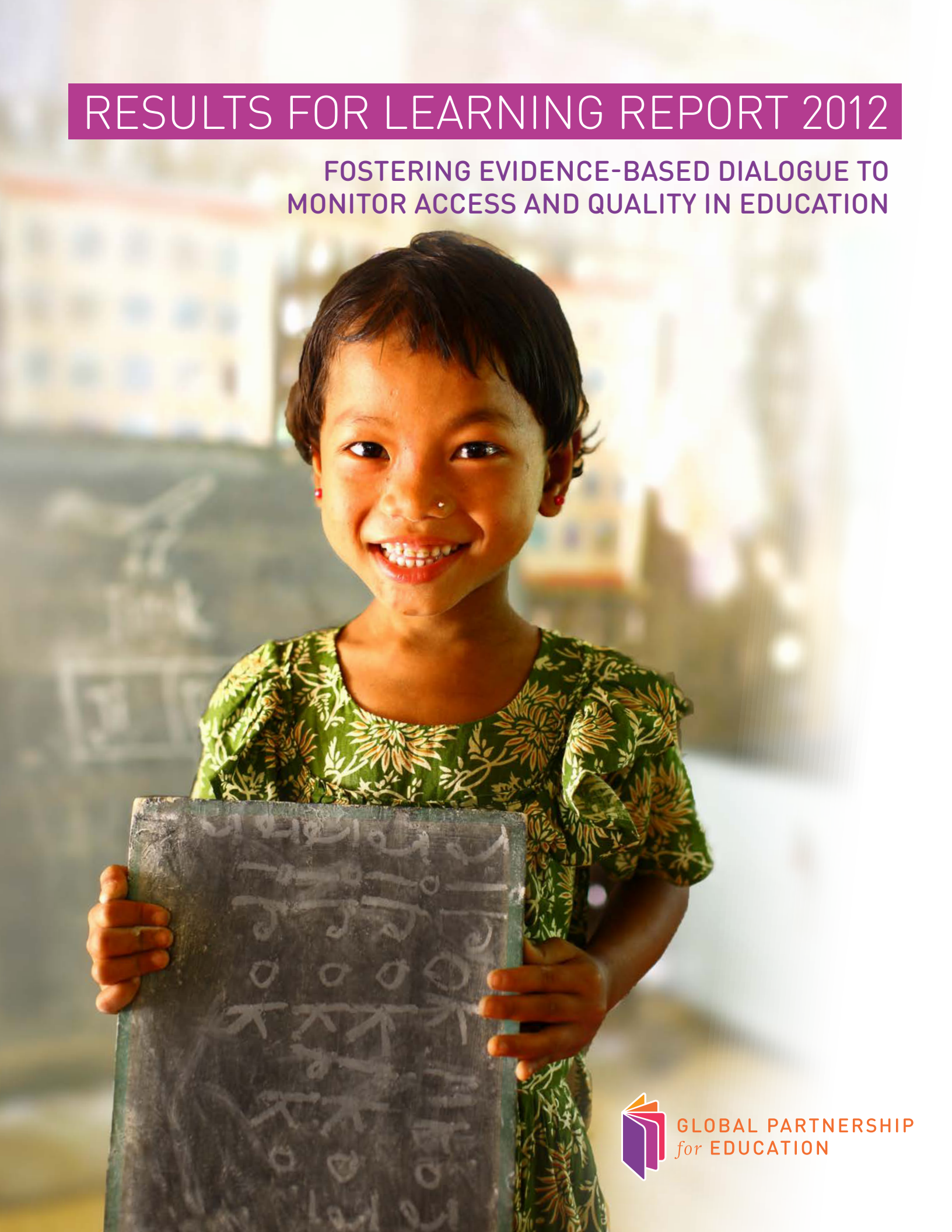
RESULTS FOR LEARNING REPORT 2012

FOSTERING EVIDENCE-BASED DIALOGUE TO MONITOR ACCESS AND QUALITY IN EDUCATION



GLOBAL PARTNERSHIP *for* EDUCATION

Website: www.globalpartnership.org

E-Mail: info@globalpartnership.org

Facebook: www.facebook.com/GlobalPartnership

Twitter: twitter.com/gpforeducation

Office Location:

900 19th Street, N.W.
Suite 600
Washington D.C., 20006, USA

Mailing Address:

Global Partnership for Education
c/o World Bank
MSN P6-600
1818 H Street NW
Washington D.C., 20433, USA

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GPE (Global Partnership for Education) 2012. *Results for Learning Report 2012: Fostering Evidence-Based Dialogue to Monitor Access and Quality in Education*. (November). Washington, DC: GPE.

The Global Partnership for Education (GPE) works with low-income countries around the world to help them provide basic education of good quality to all of their children. Countries develop education sector plans that set clear targets and commitments; their partners including donors, multilateral agencies, civil society and the private sector align their support around these plans.

GPE has developed a monitoring and evaluation strategy to measure the progress made in implementing these plans, and to determine the impact on children's learning and progression through school. This report, entitled *Results for Learning*, is the first in what will be an annual review of this progress. It describes the achievements that countries have made in increasing access to learning. It also highlights challenges that must be addressed by countries and their partners.

This report makes use of a new tool to improve the evidence-based dialogue around education within countries: a results form developed for each country which describes the targets in that country's education sector plan, and presents the actual achievements which are observed and communicated by the country itself. The data collected using the results form are presented and analyzed in this report. We believe this tool will help strengthen the dialogue among all partners around how to accelerate progress in education.

The *Results for Learning Report* uses data from education sector plans, joint sector review reports and GPE grant applications. Additional data were provided by partners such as UNESCO and the World Bank. Findings show many positive developments within the countries where the GPE partners are working:

More children are in school. In countries with a plan that has been endorsed by partners, primary school completion rates rose from 56 to 71 percent in the past decade.

Fewer children are excluded from school. The rate of out-of-school children in these countries declined from 34 to 18 percent over the decade.

Youth literacy rates have increased. The increase is modest, from 77 percent in 2000-03 to 81 percent in 2007-10, with a higher increase for girls and for students in fragile or conflict-affected contexts.

Countries have increased their education financing. The share of government expenditures allocated to education increased from 17 percent in 2000 to 19.4 percent in 2011, representing 3.9 percent of GDP in 2000 and 5.8 percent of GDP in 2011.

GPE financing has grown steadily as a share of official development assistance for basic education. GPE began disbursements in 2004 and accounted for 12 percent of ODA disbursements for 2010, with a higher percentage almost certain for 2011, a year in which GPE disbursements reached $385 million.

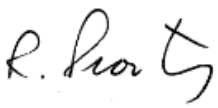
The *Results for Learning Report* shows the persistence of several important challenges:

Poverty continues to keep significant numbers of children out of school. Poverty is by far the greatest predictor of children being out of school. Poverty factors interact powerfully with gender dynamics so that gender differentials in out-of-school populations are greatest among the poor. Children with disability, children living in remote areas, children who work, and nomadic children are also far less likely to be living in poverty, and to be out of school.

Learning levels are alarmingly low. In most low- and lower-middle income countries, up to 75 percent of children in grades 2 to 4 cannot read at all. By the end of primary schooling, children in low-income countries, including those supported by GPE, are from 4 to 6 grades behind children in industrialized countries.

Assessments of learning are not sufficiently established or used to increase quality. Even where such assessments are available, their results are not well utilized to improve instruction or to guide planning processes.

A remaining challenge for the report itself is the lack of data in many countries. This challenge will be tackled vigorously over the coming years to ensure that this report improves the evidence basis for dialogue around education in all low-income countries, and helps ensure that all children are able to claim their right to a good education.



Bob Prouty, Head
Global Partnership for Education Secretariat

The 2012 *Results for Learning Report* was produced by the Secretariat of the Global Partnership for Education, under the guidance of Luis Crouch, Coordinator of the Global Good Practices Team and Laurent Cortese, Senior Education Specialist.

The principal authors are Laurent Cortese, Luis Crouch, Nancy Pinto, Vania Salgado, Caroline Schmidt, Kouassi Soman and Mamadou Thiam from the Global Partnership; and Ania Chaluda and Carina Omoeva from the Education Policy and Data Center (EPDC) at FHI360. Annababette Wils and Pierre Varly, independent consultants, were the main authors for chapters 3 and 4, respectively. In addition, Sarah Beardmore, Natasha Graham and Deepa Srikantaiah from the Global Partnership provided important contributions.

The authors are very grateful to the many colleagues within and outside the Global Partnership who were essential to the production of this report, including Bob Prouty who provided direction and crucial overall comments. In chapter 1 César Guadalupe and Albert Motivans from the UNESCO Institute for Statistics provided valuable comments. This chapter was based on the findings of the report produced in 2011[1] by a team of consultants from PROMAN. In chapter 3 the feedback was provided by Natasha Graham and Margarita Licht. Bukky Adebayo, Unaiza Ayub, Julia Gooding, Josephine Ho and Rebecca Sayre helped in the extraction and management of the related data; and Ayobami Akenroye, Otite Fadar, Michael Monuteaux and Ben Sylla provided Stata programming advice. In chapter 4 the feedback was provided by Antoine Marivin from the Program on the Analysis of Education Systems (PASEC), Hans Wagemaker from the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), and Marlaine Lockheed and Marguerite Clarke from the World Bank. Frank van Capelle from StatSilk helped in the map elaboration for this chapter. In chapter 5 Jean-Marc Bernard and Mathieu Brossard provided invaluable comments. In chapter 6 Douglas Chester and Margarita Licht contributed with indispensable remarks. Milanga Abeysuriya, Sabrina Hervey, Luis Pagan and Ben Sylla from EPDC helped in the extraction of information for the results forms, which were completed and certified by members of the Local Education Groups of 28 GPE developing country partners. We thank Robert Zimmermann, who edited the report; Cécile Jannotin and Michael Lamm who coordinated the translation; and Ambica Prakash for her creativity in the design of the report.

We specially acknowledge the substantial contributions to the overall report from Jean-Marc Bernard and Krystyna Sonnenberg whose help was indispensable to the finalization of the report, as well as all the support from Mike Kelleher and Yann Doignon, whose ideas and encouragement were fundamental to this publication.

[1] Pfaffe, J. F., H. Cornelissen, A. Caspari, P. Christensen, E. Kadri, S. Silvestrini, D. Towers, and A. Valentini. 2011. Education for All, Fast Track Initiative (EFA-FTI) Monitoring and Evaluation Strategy: Final Report. (September 9). Bettembourg, Luxembourg: Proman; Freiburg, Germany: Particip.

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ANER	adjusted net enrollment rate
ASER	Assessment Survey Evaluation Research
CPIA	Country Policy and Institutional Assessment
CSR	country status report
DHS	Demographic and Health Surveys
EFA	Education for All
EGMA	Early Grade Mathematics Assessment
EGRA	Early Grade Reading Assessment
ESP	education sector plan
GAR	gross attendance rate
GER	gross enrollment ratio
GIR	gross intake ratio
GPE	Global Partnership for Education
IDA	International Development Association (World Bank)
IEA	International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement
JSR	joint sector review
LEG	local education group
LLECE	Latin American Laboratory for Assessment of the Quality of Education (UNESCO)
M&E	monitoring and evaluation
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (UNICEF)
MLA	Monitoring Learning Achievement
NAR	net attendance rate
NER	net enrollment rate
NGO	nongovernmental organization
ODA	official development assistance

OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OLO	Observatory of Learning Outcomes (UIS)
OOS	out of school
PASEC	Program on the Analysis of Education Systems (Conference of Ministers of Education of French-Speaking Countries)
PFM	public financial management
PIRLS	Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (IEA)
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment (OECD)
PIU	project implementation unit
READ	Russia Education Aid for Development Program
SACMEQ	Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality
SAR	special administrative region (China)
SERCE	Second Regional Comparative and Explanatory Study (LLECE)
SNERS	National Academic Results Evaluation System (Senegal)
TIMSS	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (IEA)
TNER	total net enrollment rate
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization
USAID	U.S. Agency for International Development

Countries where the Global Partnership for Education (GPE) partners have worked together to endorse an education sector plan (GPE developing country partners) have achieved noteworthy progress on a number of education indicators. The findings from this report show these countries have made particular progress in the following areas:

More children are in school and fewer are shut out. In GPE countries, the primary-school completion rate rose from 56 to 71 percent between 2000 and 2010, while the rate of out-of-school children decreased significantly, from 34 to 18 percent, and it is expected to fall to 12 percent by 2020. As access to education improves, girls are expected to benefit considerably: the rate of out-of-school girls is anticipated to fall from 20 to 13 percent between 2010 and 2020 and the rate of out-of-school boys from 16 to 12 percent.

Financial commitments to basic education have grown. Overall, the share of government expenditures in GPE countries allocated to education increased from 17 percent in 2000 to 19.4 percent in 2011 and represented 5.8 percent of GDP in 2011 against 3.8 percent in 2000. GPE disbursements have risen steadily since 2004, accounting for 12 percent of the disbursements of official development assistance in basic education in 2010. 2011 was a record year, at US$385 million disbursed, despite overall cuts to education spending worldwide, for a total cumulative of US$1.3 billion since GPE disbursements started.

Youth literacy rates have increased. The literacy rates for youth (15-24 year olds) in GPE countries increased from 77 percent in 2000–03 to 81 percent in 2007–10. This rate has grown more rapidly among young women, from 73 to 78 percent, and even more rapidly in fragile or conflict-affected GPE countries, from 56 to 69 percent.

Despite progress in a number of areas, this report shows that GPE countries share several important challenges with other developing countries:

Large pockets of out-of-school children remain, including the poorest of the poor, child laborers, the disabled and the nomadic. Although there has been important progress in access, still 61 million primary-school aged children worldwide are not in school. In GPE countries, poverty is the greatest predictor of children being out of school. The level of exclusion associated with poverty is significant: in a large group of these countries, the gross attendance rates among children of secondary-school age in households in the poorest quintile are nearly zero. Gender dynamics interact powerfully with poverty factors, so that gender differentials in out-of-school populations are greatest among the poor.

Learning quality in low-income countries is alarmingly low. Assessments in low and lower-middle income countries, including GPE countries, reveal that 25 to 75 percent of children in grades 2 to 4 cannot read at all. Children in low-income countries are around 4 to 6 grades behind children in industrialized countries. Moreover, poor learning outcomes, particularly in the early grades, are associated with higher repetition rates and higher dropout rates, and result in much higher costs for taking children from entry to completion of school.

Learning outcomes assessments are not sufficiently established or used to increase quality. Even when such assessments are available, their results are not well utilized to improve instruction or to guide education sector plan development and monitoring.

The improvement of education sector plan monitoring is needed to foster education results. It remains difficult to gather information on both educational targets set in education sector plans and actual observed achievements. Furthermore, even when such data are available, it is not given sufficient attention during regular reviews of the education sector which monitor implementation progress.

Cost pressures are heightened by teacher shortages and the need to expand access to secondary education. The progress in education financing over the past ten years is remarkable, but it is not sufficient to address two major challenges that are exerting greater pressure on education budgets. First, there is a need for increased resources to expand the number of qualified teachers, develop their skills, improve their conditions and increase incentives to teach in remote areas. Second, there is a greater demand for post-primary education which could reduce the allocation of resources to basic education.

The Global Partnership for Education (GPE) has adopted a monitoring and evaluation (M&E) strategy to improve dialogue and accountability in the partnership, provide evidence on the contribution of the partnership in the education sector, and help the Board of Directors in decision-making processes.

This is the first Results for Learning Report based on this strategy. It presents education achievements within the Global Partnership and identifies new challenges.

In this report, GPE developing country partners (also referred to as "GPE countries") are compared to low-income countries that are eligible to join the Global Partnership but have not yet joined ("GPE-eligible countries").[1] These comparisons show significant differences for some key indicators. The differences cannot always be causally attributed to the GPE per se. In some cases, GPE countries started at a lower level but were already making good progress at the point of endorsement of their Education Sector Plans (ESPs), so they had more room to improve even on previous trend. Other factors may have combined to improve results more quickly in GPE countries. Furthermore, while progress has been good, many challenges remain. The report makes it clear, though, that membership in GPE is generally associated with better access, quality of learning, and financing outcomes.

The report thus constitutes a baseline report against which ongoing monitoring on education performance in GPE countries can be compared in the future.

CHAPTER 1 briefly describes the tools and organizational structures used to implement the M&E strategy, especially the Results Framework, which describes the progress achieved in reaching the educational goals set by the 46 GPE developing-country partners as of December 2011, and the accountability matrix, which defines the roles and responsibilities of all partners.

CHAPTER 2 presents the global achievements in basic education since 2000 in the 46 countries with an endorsed education sector plan (ESP) as of December 2011 and compares these achievements with the achievements of the GPE-eligible countries. The GPE-eligible countries seem to represent the most reasonable comparator. Comparisons are also made between GPE countries that are in fragile situations and those that are not. In addition, the chapter presents the results of a forecasting exercise used to project global trends in the Global Partnership over the next 10 years (see the tables and annexes in chapter 2).

CHAPTER 3 investigates the disparities in access to education within countries to identify the remaining pockets of out-of-school children. Most of the evidence is derived from 154 household surveys from 1997–2011.

CHAPTER 4 examines learning outcome indicators and, more broadly, the quality of basic education. The analysis is based on a review of joint sector review (JSR) reports, ESPs, and national, regional, and international learning outcome assessments.

CHAPTER 5 presents an overview of the domestic and external financing flows in education in GPE countries. The chapter investigates two potential constraints on education financing that will need to be addressed in coming years: (1) the financing of expanding the number of qualified teachers and improving teachers' conditions and (2) investments in the development of post-primary education. In addition, the results of the 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector are highlighted. The chapter also focuses on the implementation of the new Global Partnership for Education Fund created after the GPE replenishment in November 2011. It details the results achieved through the GPE trust fund resources that have been allocated since 2004.

CHAPTER 6 analyzes the progress of GPE countries in seeking to reach the education targets defined in their ESPs. The GPE has reviewed the documentation available on the 46 GPE countries and produced a results form showing the targets and achievements in the education indicators on each country for 2009–15. The main objective of this exercise has been to improve monitoring in the sector by facilitating the identification of the education goals and the commitments made by partners within these countries.

I. GPE monitoring tools

In 2010, the GPE midterm evaluation concluded that an effective assessment of the partnership's impact would not be possible at that time given the lack of a proper results-oriented M&E framework to monitor national and global processes. In response, the Global Partnership developed the M&E strategy to improve accountability in the education sector and gauge the contribution and the added value of the partnership.

While developing the M&E strategy, the GPE identified several challenges. First, the assessment of the partnership's added value would be limited if only the activities financed by GPE trust funds were considered. The Global Partnership is a country-based initiative predicated on the drafting of sound ESPs by developing-country partners with the support of local education groups (LEGs). These plans constitute a set of commitments made by governments, donors, multilateral agencies, civil society organizations, and other partners supporting the education sector. If the local partners are unable to fulfill the commitments, the education objectives identified in the plans become out of reach. It is therefore critical that the M&E strategy improve transparency in the process of identifying objectives and commitments among GPE partners.

To ensure ownership, the M&E strategy relies on the targets defined by local partners.

A second challenge involves avoiding the imposition of a heavy reporting burden on partners and relying as much as possible on existing sources of information. The GPE has remained committed to this approach in the preparation of the present *Results for Learning Report*, although some additional consultation with LEGs has been required.

As the focus of the Global Partnership on quality and learning outcomes has increased, the development of indicators that can provide information on the progress being achieved in learning across countries has become necessary even in the absence of standardized information that would foster consistency in the reporting across countries.

Finally, a critical objective of the M&E strategy is the development of an evaluation methodology to assess the impact of the Global Partnership locally and globally. Given the complexity and scale of the partnership, it is not possible to attribute causality or impact in a clear-cut manner.

To address these challenges, the M&E strategy relies on the following three elements: (1) a Results Framework, (2) an accountability matrix, and (3) an impact evaluation. The Results Framework provides information on the objectives set by GPE partners and the progress in an effort to reach these objectives. The Results Framework is used to monitor achievements in education in GPE countries, including activities financed by the partnership.

The M&E strategy relies on the following three elements: (1) a Results Framework, (2) an accountability matrix, and (3) an impact evaluation.

The accountability matrix defines the stakeholder roles, responsibilities, and commitments that contribute to the attainment of the educational objectives presented in the Results Framework. Our *Results for Learning Report* includes an updated version of the accountability matrix based on additional consultation with GPE partners.

The Results Framework and the accountability matrix will also be used as inputs for an impact evaluation of the Global Partnership that will be carried out by 2015. The proposal is to commission separate studies by 2015 to investigate the net impact of the partnership, that is, what has happened that would not have happened without the GPE. A final report will be produced in 2015 to summarize the conclusions of the various studies.

II. Global achievements and trends in basic education

By the end of 2011, the ESPs of 46 of the 67 countries currently eligible to join the Global Partnership had been endorsed by local partners and these countries had joined the GPE. Of these 46 countries, 13 are considered fragile states.[2] This section looks at the historical trends in key education indicators in GPE countries and compares these with trends

in countries that are eligible to join the partnership, but have not yet joined. Comparisons are also made between countries in fragile situations and those that are not in fragile situations.

1. Progress in the youth literacy rate

The main goal indicator in the Results Framework, improvement in the youth literacy rate (15- to 24-year-olds), is used to assess the midterm contribution of the GPE to human capital development.

Actions between now and 2015 will have little impact on this indicator because of the lead time required for impact.[3] The aim of analyzing this indicator is to provide a long-term marker of progress, and to enable the identification of countries with specific issues or best performers that can be studied for useful lessons.

Information on the literacy rate is based on data of the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS).[4] Over the last decade, most of the GPE countries have produced data for only one or two years because the relevant data are derived from censuses or occasional surveys. Because of the lack of data, the GPE has calculated the average youth literacy rate for GPE countries for 2007–10. During this period, the average youth literacy rate was 77 percent overall: 81 percent among young men and 73 percent among young women. There are important disparities across countries. Thus, the youth literacy rate was above 90 percent in 11 countries, below 70 percent in 13 countries, and below 50 percent in 3 countries.

The youth literacy rates in GPE countries increased from 77 to 81 percent during the periods 2000–03 and 2007–10.[5] The literacy rate grew more rapidly among young women: from 73 to 78 percent in GPE countries and from 56 to 70 percent in GPE countries in fragile situations.[6]

2. Progress in key outcome indicators

On outcomes, six critical indicators have been selected: (1) the gross enrollment ratio in preprimary education, (2) the gross intake ratio in primary education and the gender parity index in the gross intake ratio, (3) the rate of out-of-school children, (4) the primary-school completion rate and the gender parity index in the primary-school completion rate, (5) the transition rate from primary to secondary education, and (6) the lower-secondary completion rate and the gender parity index in the lower-secondary completion rate. On all these indicators, the GPE countries have outperformed the countries that are GPE-eligible. On most of the indicators, the GPE countries have also improved more rapidly over the past decade. GPE countries in fragile situations have typically not shown as much improvement as other GPE countries, and they also started out at a lower baseline.

On all these indicators, the GPE countries have outperformed the countries that are GPE-eligible. On most of the indicators, the GPE countries have also improved more rapidly over the past decade. GPE countries in fragile situations have typically not shown as much improvement.

In GPE countries, the primary-school completion rate increased from 56 to 71 percent between 2000 and 2010. The levels and trends in the rate are higher in these countries than in low- and lower-middle-income countries more generally. The GPE countries in fragile situations consistently show lower primary-school completion rates; among these countries, the rates have been stagnant at around 55 percent since 2004, following a small increase during the previous three years. Among the countries on which data are available, 39 percent had reached gender parity by 2010 in primary-school completion.

In addition to assessing the progress that countries have made in the last 10 years in school access and progression, the GPE commissioned the Education Policy and Data Center to develop a forecasting tool to project global trends in education. The model that the center created takes into account the historical trends in entry rates and student flows within the education systems of GPE countries and GPE-eligible countries (including promotion, repetition, and drop-out rates) and can be used to forecast pupil enrollments over the next 10 years.

The results of the projection suggest that universal primary-school completion may not be achieved even by 2020,

especially in the GPE countries that are fragile.[7] In the latter countries, the 2010 baseline for completion is as low as 47 percent among girls and 66 percent among boys. Even if we assume excellent performance in the next decade so that the completion rate increases in this group by 20 percentage points among both genders, the group will still be behind the other country groups in 2020.

Universal primary-school completion may not be achieved even by 2020, especially in the GPE countries that are fragile.

With respect to the development of lower-secondary education, the average completion rates in 2010 were below 50 percent in GPE countries and in GPE-eligible countries. However, increased enrollments in primary school, as well as improved progression rates within lower-secondary education, could, potentially, have a large impact on the number of students enrolled in the last grade of lower-secondary school over the next 10 years. The average completion rates at this level of education systems are, however, likely to remain below 70 percent until 2020 in all the country groups analyzed. The slowest rate of progress can be expected in GPE countries where the completion rates in lower-secondary education did not change much between 2000 and 2010.

In GPE countries in 2010, the female completion rate in lower-secondary education was still lower than the completion rate among males, at 41 and 47 percent, respectively. This gender disparity is more important in GPE countries that are fragile, where the difference between the boys and girls reaches 12 percent: 38 percent among girls and 50 percent for boys. However, the gender gap is projected to decrease by half by 2020.

In 2010, the female completion rate in lower-secondary education was still lower than the completion rate among males.

III. Behind the global figures: disparities in access

Our analysis of global achievements in basic education has relied on data from UIS. Our data represent aggregated averages that may hide large disparities within countries. The GPE has commissioned a study on the issue of internal disparities within countries to identify the remaining pockets of education exclusion. Most of the evidence has been derived from household surveys, particularly the Demographic and Health Surveys and UNICEF's Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys. The study analyzed 154 surveys from 1997 to 2011, especially those providing the most recent information. The results cover 43 of the 46 GPE countries and 45 non-GPE countries.

The analysis demonstrates that the groups of children most frequently excluded from education are the poorest children, children in rural areas, children in nomadic families, and children with disabilities. A rapidly growing group who are being excluded consists of poor urban children.

The study also examines success stories, including GPE-supported programs that have helped provide these groups with access to schooling. These successful interventions have focused on the particular barriers faced by out-of-school children by: assisting in relieving financial constraints; building schools in remote locations; developing special curricula, establishing flexible school schedules and roaming schools; promoting campaigns to end stigmatization; and training teachers to teach children with special needs.

Overall, gender disparity has been greatly reduced and continues to decline. The remaining pockets of inequity in primary and secondary education are found within groups of disadvantaged children (poor, rural, or nomadic) in which girls and boys are both excluded. One critical policy decision will therefore be whether to focus on girls in these disadvantaged groups or whether to develop inclusive policies that support both genders in cases in which poverty or issues such as nomadism are the ultimate cause of exclusion.

Getting children into school—eliminating the nonparticipation of children in education—is the biggest hurdle confronting the goals of Education for All. Despite the attention

on dropouts, the most serious issue facing the Global Partnership is the large group of children who will never enter school. Nonparticipation, the most severe form of school exclusion, particularly affects poor children. Among children in the 20 percent of households with the highest incomes in GPE countries, 96 percent enter school at some point, while, among children in the 20 percent of households with the lowest incomes, almost a quarter (23 percent) will never enter school. Attendance among the poorest children is especially affected by the lack of nearby schools.

Nonparticipation of children in education—is the biggest hurdle confronting the goals of Education for All.

The analysis shows that drop-out rates may be significantly lower than is commonly supposed. Once the barriers to school entry are removed, most children who start school remain at least until grade 4. Household surveys show that drop-out rates before grade 4 are about half the rates suggested by administrative data. The discrepancy between the drop-out rates presented in this analysis and those found in other studies can be partly explained by repetition rates in the early grades that inflate the apparent number of dropouts and mask a high incidence of children who never enter school, as well as a lack of early childhood development programs.

Delayed entry—the entry of children who are older than the theoretical official age of school entry—is the second leading factor contributing to the phenomenon of out-of-school children. Delayed entry is problematic because children start to leave school in adolescence, and this may mean that delayed entrants will not stay in school long enough to complete a full primary-school cycle. Delayed entry is pervasive among children in all income groups, and it may be effectively addressed through public campaigns detailing the benefits of early education and age-appropriate education.

Delayed entry—is the second leading factor contributing to the phenomenon of out-of-school children.

Student absenteeism is significant in some GPE countries, and it is more prevalent among children in low-income households. Rates are roughly equal among boys and girls. The leading causes of absenteeism are illness and the need to work. This demonstrates the urgency of nutrition and health programs aimed at children and of programs to support family incomes.

Poverty is thus the most serious factor of school exclusion today. Boys and girls in higher-income households tend to be in school and stay in school (even if they delay entry). These children are better served by public schools, are able to afford private schools, and attend school on relatively more days. If GPE-funded programs focus on the poorest children, a greater impact would be thus achieved. Issues related to gender and urban-rural location remain worthy of attention, but are better understood and addressed in the context of a targeted poverty approach.

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IV. Learning achievement

The Global Partnership has been increasingly highlighting learning outcomes and education quality. These have been key themes throughout GPE's replenishment efforts and continue to represent one of the partnership's key strategic directions.

To track learning achievement, the Results Framework lists two key indicators, the proportion of pupils who are able to read and understand a text a) by the end of the first two grades of primary schooling[8], and b) by the end of the primary or basic education cycle.[9] However, the significance of learning outcomes is broader than these specific indicators. Likewise, the significance of quality is broader than learning outcomes. Good data are increasingly becoming available on these issues, and these data would allow countries to track and improve the ability of education systems to produce better learning outcomes.

The GPE has commissioned an analysis of the collection and use of information on quality and learning achievement, especially in GPE countries. The analysis has relied on national, regional, and international assessments and

involved reviews of ESPs and JSR reports to determine the status of learning outcomes in GPE countries and, in some cases, engage in comparisons with other countries.

The analysis has concluded that learning outcomes and quality in education more generally are positive in some areas, while other areas require vast improvement.

The positive findings include the following:

- Relative to GPE-eligible countries, GPE countries undertake learning assessments more frequently, participate more often in special assessments and in regional and international assessments, and manage their own national assessments more often.

- There is mounting evidence that significant quality improvements will become possible within a few years. Tied to the notion that there may not be any inherent access-quality trade-off, evidence from successful pilot initiatives and scale-up projects is beginning to challenge the view that quality is extremely difficult to achieve. More research is required, and more needs to be done in seeking to scale up the successes in quality improvement, but the trend has been encouraging in the last few years.

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The following areas need improvement:

- Learning outcome indicators are alarmingly poor. Basic reading skills are acquired approximately four to five times more slowly by children in poor countries than by children in high-income countries, that is, the average child in poor countries is about four to six grades behind the average child in countries of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) in reading skills, and will never catch up.

Learning outcome indicators are alarmingly poor. Basic reading skills are acquired approximately four to five times more slowly by children in poor countries and will never catch up.

- According to international assessments, the median child in poor countries is reaching young adulthood with, at best, one-fifth the knowledge capital of the median child of corresponding age in high-income countries.[10] This represents a serious form of deprivation and is a barrier to social and economic development.

- Although there is a positive trend in the inclusion of learning outcomes in plans, it has been insufficient. The analysis of ESPs and JSR reports demonstrates that governments and local donors pay little attention to learning outcomes, which are generally secondary to other issues.

- The ESPs and JSRs that address quality and learning outcomes do not include research evidence on the factors affecting quality. Most of the discussion refers to inputs to schools and overall management processes. For example, the issues involved in teacher certification are examined rather than the issues involved in teacher practices and the teaching skills deployed in classrooms: there is little focus on teaching and learning as concrete activities, and there is little evidence-based scrutiny of the factors influencing teaching and learning.

- Many countries do not systematically use the data available on learning outcomes to undertake sector planning and monitoring. The data that have become available in recent years is substantial, particularly in Africa and Latin America, thanks to the efforts of assessment systems such as the Latin American Laboratory for Assessment of the Quality of Education of the Program on the Analysis of Education Systems of the Conference of Ministers of Education of French-Speaking Countries, and the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality, as well as early-grade assessments of reading. The UIS and the World Bank have also begun to regularize reporting on learning outcomes. However, while these initiatives

are often discussed at conferences among specialists and reflected in pilot projects, the implications are not yet resonating in sectoral strategies or sectoral tracking plans. The lack of a focus on learning issues is clearest at the local or country level and less so regionally or globally.

Many countries do not systematically use the data available on learning outcomes to undertake sector planning and monitoring.

- Although there is a recent trend to assess the impact of education in the early grades on overall success in learning outcomes, and although the data available in this area have increased quickly in recent years, country documents on the sector still do not focus sufficiently on the relationship of early childhood development and early-grade schooling with overall learning outcomes.

- There is some risk that the progress in the collection of relevant data over the past decade will slow or reverse if more attention is not paid to assessment systems. None of the regional or international systems that produce data on learning outcomes are particularly robust or sustainable. Donors, technical collaborators in the broader community, and governments should pay urgent attention to the financial and management health of these systems. Approaches worth exploring include (1) extending regional assessments to areas not yet covered, (2) enhancing collaboration and shared elements among regional assessments and between regional and international assessments, (3) improving the technical understanding of the relationship between early assessments and end-of-cycle assessments, while developing better practices in the early assessments, and (4) demonstrating the use of assessments to provide instructional support that leads to measurably improved teacher and learner performance. Various GPE partners have attempted to initiate such processes, for example, through the workshops on early reading held in Kigali, Rwanda in March 2012, but more needs to be done by all partners.

V. Analysis of domestic and external financing and the effectiveness of education service delivery

In 2011, GPE countries allocated a significant share of public resources to the education sector. Of government budget expenditures of US$168 billion, US$32.5 billion went to education, representing 5.3 percent of gross domestic product and 19.4 percent of total budget expenditure. The primary and secondary education subsectors absorbed 78 percent of total education expenditures.

Meanwhile, external funding represents an important resource in GPE countries, at around US$4 billion in international aid commitments in the education sector in 2010. The proportion of international aid to education in GPE countries often accounts for an important part of public education expenditures, for example, 42 percent in Ethiopia, 72 percent in Liberia, and 23 percent in Senegal in 2008.

In 2011, the GPE launched the Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector, in parallel with the OECD's 2011 Survey on Monitoring the Paris Declaration.[11] The goal of the monitoring exercise was to develop a framework to allow the LEGs to discuss various components of aid effectiveness in GPE countries and GPE-eligible countries, among which 38 partners participated in the exercise. The monitoring exercise covers approximately US$2.1 billion in education aid provided in these countries in 2010 by OECD Development Assistance Committee donors, but excludes aid supplied by nongovernmental organizations and private foundations. In the countries, 245 GPE development partners and 31 ministries of education took part in the exercise. The overall results show that technical cooperation, joint missions, and joint analysis are coordinated among the development partners. However, there is room for improvement especially in (1) managing and providing education aid more transparently, more predictably, and in a manner that is more aligned with government budgets; and (2) working with results indicators and jointly reviewing progress on a regular basis.

There is room for improvement especially in (1) managing and providing education aid more transparently, more predictably, and in a manner that is more aligned with government budgets; and (2) working with results indicators and jointly reviewing progress on a regular basis.

Two areas will require urgent attention by governments and development partners: (1) improving the use of national financial management and procurement systems (especially if the fiduciary risk is low) and (2) developing and implementing program-based approaches. This will require specific attention to the alignment and harmonization of capacity development initiatives.

Cumulative grant disbursements of the GPE trust fund resources through 2011 totaled US$1.3 billion, of which US$385 million was disbursed in 2011. Disbursements through GPE program implementation grants have risen steadily since the creation of the GPE Catalytic Fund in 2004.

In November 2011, the new Global Partnership for Education Fund was launched as a mechanism to streamline the existing GPE funding architecture, which comprises the Catalytic Fund, the Education Program Development Fund, and the GPE Secretariat Trust Fund. The new GPE Fund covers all areas eligible for funding as determined by the Board of Directors and is designed as a financial intermediary fund, meaning that agencies eligible to serve as a supervising entity or managing entity may receive funds directly, following approval by the Board of Directors.

In November 2011, the new Global Partnership for Education Fund was launched as a mechanism to streamline the existing GPE funding architecture.

The GPE monitors underperforming grants to undertake remediation actions as needed. To improve the predictability of GPE funding in GPE developing country partners, the GPE Secretariat collects the annual disbursement targets on each grant for each country. In 2011, the ratio of actual disbursements of GPE implementation funding to the planned disbursements was around 62 percent.

GPE-funded programs represent an important share of the external financing in education in GPE countries: GPE Fund disbursements accounted for 12 percent of the disbursements of official development assistance in basic education in 2010. Furthermore, in four countries that applied for a grant in 2011 (Afghanistan, Côte d'Ivoire, Guinea Bissau, and Mali), GPE funding accounted, respectively, for 11, 84, 35, and 25 percent of the external funds planned in education over the subsequent three years. This large amount of funding in a country or sector with low-absorption capacity may lead ministries of finance to pull back domestic funds or, indeed, other external funding and allocate those funds to other sectors. For this reason, it is crucial for the Global Partnership to develop a relevant dialogue with governments and provide ministries of education with more negotiating power.

To ensure that GPE-funded programs remain additional to rather than a substitute for other resources, one should have a clear idea of future financing flows in the education sector. However, information on the achievement of national financing targets is poor. Among GPE countries, 38 countries have not provided information on the achievement of their commitments in public education spending in 2010. There is more information on aid flows, but 28 countries have not supplied any information on the achievement of their targets in this area.

Two major challenges in education financing will need to be addressed in coming years: (1) the financing of increased resources to expand the number of qualified teachers, and (2) the development of post-primary education. Teacher salaries represent the largest share of public expenditures in education, for example, 70 percent in Côte d'Ivoire, 82 percent in Malawi, and 53 percent in Rwanda in 2008. Since 2000, many teachers have been recruited with little or no professional training. They have been hired by the government or paid directly by parents. This has enabled education systems to meet the increasing demand for education, but raised issues of quality and has certainly created challenges for the teaching profession and teacher organizations. The qualifications of many of these teachers are inadequate, and their salaries are sometimes insufficient to meet even basic needs. This may contribute to the high

turnover and absenteeism, and may thus affect the quality of learning. The GPE could provide guidelines to developing country partners on ways to improve the qualifications and the motivation of teachers and ensure adequate living standards within the profession, while working within the fiscal constraints that are likely to continue over the next few years.

Two major challenges in education financing will need to be addressed in coming years: (1) the financing of and (2) the development of post-primary education.

Another emerging constraint on education financing is the development of the post-primary subsector. Enrollment in lower-secondary education is expected to increase dramatically. If the transition rate between primary and lower-secondary education were to rise to 100 percent, projected enrollments in lower-secondary education in 2020 would be 2 times greater than enrollments in around 2005 in Lesotho, Togo, and Zimbabwe; close to 4 times in Guinea and Mali; around 9 times in Burundi, Tanzania, and Uganda; and more than 11 times in Mozambique and Niger. Domestic resources would be insufficient to allow systems to provide enough teachers and classrooms to meet these levels of enrollment growth, and teacher recruitment would fail to keep pace.

A partial solution would involve enhancing efficiency and management in the education sector and decreasing unit costs in post-primary education. There is room for such improvement: many countries are able to achieve better results with the same amount of resources. One of the main problems is the process by which teachers are assigned to schools. The pupil-teacher ratio is often not taken adequately into consideration. Moreover, in some GPE countries, repetition rates are high and account for additional waste in resources.

Some countries have undertaken studies to track the effectiveness of service delivery to schools and to monitor effective learning times. These studies focus on identifying the discrepancies, inefficiencies, and delays in the execution of selected public expenditures and demonstrate that schools receive only a small share of the deliverables they have been assigned.

VI. The achievement of national targets: the purpose of tracking progress

The Global Partnership is centered on the development and the implementation of sound ESPs, which represent sets of commitments reached by national partners. It is therefore critical for the GPE to possess an accurate overall view of the degree of achievement of the education targets set by countries. However, two analyses carried out by the GPE show that monitoring in the education sector is not rigorous and systematic in countries.

The GPE commissioned an assessment of the effectiveness of the JSRs. The findings are primarily based on the evidence of more than 130 documents—reports, aide-mémoires, ESPs, codes of practice, terms of reference, and so on—in JSRs in 21 countries. Almost all JSRs include a stated intention to use the respective ESP objectives as the basis for measuring progress toward targets, but few do so prominently, consistently, and systematically. Among the JSR reports analyzed, less than half include an explicit analysis of data against key indicators. In some cases, alternative indicators have been generated and are used instead of the indicators discussed in the ESPs. Moreover, many JSRs include long lists of recommendations that cannot be manageably implemented.

As part of the M&E strategy, the GPE has developed a results form, including key sectoral indicators for 2009–15, to support sectoral monitoring in countries and improve transparency and accountability. Results forms for 46 GPE countries have been produced using publicly available national sources of information (mainly ESPs, JSRs, and GPE grant applications) and have been shared with LEGs for certification and use. The results forms are presented in chapter 6, annex 6A and will be published on the GPE website.

The main objective of the results forms is to facilitate access to the information already available on countries, but that is typically scattered across many documents, to ensure that stakeholders are aware of the past and future commitments made by the country, thereby improving dialogue and mutual accountability. The results forms will be updated as a follow-up to the JSRs in each country.

The analysis of the JSRs and the preparation of the results forms have shown that there is a lack of accountability and of monitoring in the effort to realize national education targets or, at least, that it is difficult to gather information on the objectives established by countries. This point is critical and may diminish the effectiveness of the partnership.

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The analysis of target achievement—the first analysis of this kind undertaken by the GPE in the education sector—suggests that the regular, consistent, and well-documented monitoring of education indicators is performed only in a few GPE countries. The analysis highlights that the lack of data is especially problematic in terms of domestic financing indicators (on which data on targets and on achievements are only available in one-fifth of the countries) and education service delivery (on which data are available in only one-fourth of the countries).

By creating the results forms, the GPE hopes to facilitate the role of the LEGs in monitoring the implementation of the ESPs. The GPE will also organize a series of regional workshops to provide guidance on effective JSRs, with a particular view to tracking the commitments made by partners. Whenever feasible, the GPE Secretariat will participate in the JSRs.

ENDNOTES

[1] GPE-eligible countries qualify for assistance from the International Development Association (IDA) in categories 1 and 2. IDA category 3 countries eligible are in fragile situations and/or small island economies.

[2] Based on the World Bank 2012 definition. See "Fragile and Conflict-Affected Countries," World Bank, Washington, DC, http://go.worldbank.org/BNFOS8V3S0.

[3] It takes approximately 15–20 years for a primary education system to affect the youth literacy rate comprehensively.

[4] See Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org.

[5] Data on both periods were available only in 29 GPE countries.

[6] Data are available on six of the GPE countries that are fragile.

[7] The primary-school completion rate is the total number of new entrants (the nonrepeaters) in the last grade of primary education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the total population of the theoretical (official) entrance age for the last grade of primary school. Projections of the number of pupils are driven by changes in the gross intake ratio and flow indicators (promotion, repetition, and drop-out rates), as well as population estimates.

[8] This indicator will be updated according to the new GPE Strategic Plan.

[9] The first indicator is the proportion of pupils who, by the end of the first two grades of primary schooling, have demonstrated that they can read and understand the meaning of a grade-appropriate text. The second indicator is the proportion of pupils who, by the end of the primary or basic education cycle, are able to read a grade-appropriate text and demonstrate understanding, as defined by the national curriculum or as agreed by national experts.

[10] Note also the youth literacy rates in GPE countries.

[11] For the GPE monitoring exercise, see "2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness," Global Partnership for Education, Washington, DC, http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2/; for the OECD survey, see "2011 Survey on Monitoring the Paris Declaration," Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, Paris, http://www.oecd.org/dac/aideffectiveness/2011surveyonmonitoringtheparisdeclaration.htm.



CHAPTER **ONE**

GPE'S MONITORING AND EVALUATION STRATEGY

PHOTO CREDIT: Susan Warner/Save the Children

Stakeholders in the education sector are increasingly emphasizing the need to demonstrate results and outcomes linked to development programs and development funding. The results focus requires the provision of credible information from each stakeholder. The focus on results and data transparency is an integral part of the globally accepted agenda on aid effectiveness. In 2005, the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness stated that development partners "should endeavour to establish results-oriented reporting and assessment frameworks that monitor progress against key dimensions of the national and sector development strategies and that these frameworks should track a manageable number of indicators for which data are cost-effectively available" (OECD 2005, 9). It is in this context that the Global Partnership for Education (GPE) has developed a monitoring and evaluation (M&E) strategy as an essential element for improving mutual accountability and strengthening the compact between donors and partner countries in the education sector and in the GPE.

The GPE, founded in 2002, is based on a strong commitment to improved mutual accountability in the education sector. The midterm evaluation conducted in 2009–10 for the period 2003 to 2009 concluded, however, that the GPE's reporting and M&E efforts had been fragmented and were missing a results-oriented framework for adequately monitoring country and global processes and their impact (GPE 2010).



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In response to the findings of the evaluation, the GPE developed an M&E strategy in 2010–11. In addition to improving the accountability for results and contributions in the education sector, the strategy also aims at assessing the value added by the partnership. The strategy is based on three elements, as follows:

1. A Results Framework that provides information on the goals set by GPE partners and the progress achieved toward these goals

2. An accountability matrix that defines the roles, responsibilities, and commitments of all stakeholders in contributing to the attainment of the educational objectives stated in the Results Framework and that tracks the performance of stakeholders against these commitments

3. An impact evaluation methodology to assess impact

The M&E strategy was approved by the GPE Board of Directors on November 9, 2011 (GPE 2011). The strategy is a living document and will be updated following requests from the Board of Directors. The finalization of a new GPE Strategic Plan for 2012–15 will lead to a first update of the M&E strategy by the end of 2012.

The Global Partnership for Education (GPE) has developed a monitoring and evaluation (M&E) strategy as an essential element for improving mutual accountability and strengthening the compact between donors and partner countries in the education sector and in the GPE.

I. Opportunities and challenges: implementation of the M&E strategy

The implementation of the GPE M&E strategy involves the establishment of an approach focused on managing for results and mutual accountability that depends on the compliance and participation of all development partners in all GPE countries. The approach is ambitious. It is based on ongoing data collection and reporting, particularly in areas in which data have not previously been collected on a regular and consistent basis. Four principles are key to the approach: (1) a country focus, (2) reliance on existing sources of information where these exist, (3) a focus on quality in education and in learning outcomes, and (4) a concern for true, net impact. These principles are explained in the four subsections below.

A. The scope of the M&E strategy

The GPE is a country-based initiative. The M&E strategy is therefore not concerned only with the deliverables associated with the funding the GPE provides. Instead, the education commitments and achievements of each GPE partner in its work with GPE countries in their efforts to reach time-bound education goals, defined at the country level, are considered in the M&E strategy.

The GPE approach holds that all partners at the country level (governments, donors, multilateral organizations, civil society organizations, and others) should participate in the development and endorsement of sound education sector plans (ESPs) and should align their funding and activities to these plans. The ESPs set out the time-bound education goals, objectives, priorities, and strategies of governments. The relevance, quality, and feasibility of these plans are assessed at the country level by the development partner group, with the support of the GPE and the leadership of the partner government.[1]

The ESPs are the reference documents used by education partners to align their technical or financial support to national education priorities. They are also the reference documents for monitoring progress: if a government and its development partners are unable to fulfill their commitments in the implementation of an ESP, the education objectives announced in the plan are out of reach. It is therefore critical that the M&E strategy improve transparency in the establishment and tracking of objectives and commitments by GPE partners at the country level.

Not only would the monitoring of the GPE's achievements and the assessment of its value added be hindered if only the activities financed through GPE funds are considered, but, in a world defined by partnerships, they would be suspect methodologically because the actions of each partner help leverage the actions of other partners and because policy reform based on multipartner dialogue is as responsible as funding for any progress. Thus, partners should be held accountable for their commitments even if these commitments are not realized through or are not otherwise part of GPE funding. Holding partners individually accountable for delivering on their commitments represents an opportunity for greater transparency, as well as a challenge in data collection, regular reporting, and managing for results at the global level. Along with reliable country data, it also facilitates an innovative approach to managing for results within the GPE.

The GPE relies on existing information on the education sector, including five main sources of data: at the global level, the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) database and UNESCO EFA Global Monitoring Report and, at the country level, the ESPs, the JSRs and the GPE grant applications.

B. Relying on existing sources of information

Reporting on more than 45 developing countries and hundreds of development partners places a logistical challenge on the GPE with regard to the availability of data and the consistency of data collection to support the M&E strategy. The GPE has, however, resisted establishing a new data collection and reporting mechanism to avoid placing additional burdens on partners and raising transaction costs, especially among governments and donor partners with limited capacity. Wherever possible, the GPE relies on existing information on the education sector, including five main sources of data: at the global level, the UNESCO

Institute for Statistics (UIS) database and UNESCO *EFA Global Monitoring Report* and, at the country level, the ESPs, the Joint Sector Reviews (JSRs), and GPE grant applications.[2] The GPE will advocate for full funding and staffing of the institutions responsible for these and other sources of data so that all indicators may be tracked and all measurement tasks implied by the M&E approach may be performed.

At the country level, progress in achieving objectives and goals in education will be monitored based on data on indicators relevant to the national targets identified in the ESPs.

1. Country-level data sources

At the country level, progress in achieving objectives and goals in education will be monitored based on data on indicators relevant to the national targets identified in the ESPs. The GPE plans to promote the collection of these data through the JSR process. The majority of GPE developing-country partners, also referred to as GPE countries, conduct regular education sector reviews, usually annually (in some cases, semiannually). These reviews typically involve representatives of development partners and the ministry of education, as well as other line ministries, national education stakeholders, and civil society organizations. The GPE encourages the drafting and submission of a report as an outcome of the JSR process. The report should describe the main findings of the review. This might take the form of an aide-mémoire shared with all participants in the JSR process and with other education stakeholders. In each country, the coordinating agency (which may be the lead donor) should share the aide-mémoire with the GPE, which would post it on the GPE website. Each JSR process would examine a minimum set of indicators consistent with the GPE Results Framework. In the event there is no JSR, the coordinating agency, on behalf of the local education group (LEG), will provide the GPE with a brief annual update on progress in the implementation of the ESP.

2. Global data sources

UNESCO's annual *EFA Global Monitoring Report* is the main instrument for assessing global progress on the six Education for All (EFA) goals to be met by 2015. The data in the report are drawn from several sources, including the UIS database and household surveys. As a core partner in the EFA movement, the GPE should utilize the information in the report. The report promotes global awareness on education issues and can thus be instrumental in advocacy efforts so that development partners honor their commitments, not least regarding the six EFA goals and the Millennium Development Goal on education (Goal 2).



PHOTO CREDIT: Kullwadee Sumnalop/Save the Children

The initial report (UNESCO 2002) was launched because "governments recognized that regular and rigorous monitoring was required to track progress towards the six [EFA] goals, identify strategies that make a difference and hold governments and donors to account for their promises" (UNESCO 2010, 2). Thus, outcome indicators used to measure progress in education provide an annual platform to analyze progress of the EFA goals.

The GPE M&E strategy is aimed at monitoring a selection of core indicators at the national level that are specific to the GPE compact, comparing the progress against the targets specified by countries themselves in such indicators, as set mainly in their ESPs, JSRs and GPE grant applications. The GPE Results Framework is the main monitoring tool. The Results Framework helps facilitate and strengthen country-level dialogue (and also, partly, dialogue at the global level), and the strategy is intended to encourage in-depth

assessments and agreements on methods to achieve progress in the areas covered by the framework. The dialogue should put emphasis on specific issues identified by the LEG (some of which may be related to the six EFA goals). Additionally, the accountability matrix provides for the specific allocation of responsibilities and duties among the core constituencies linked to the Results Framework.

C. Providing information on achievements in education quality and learning outcomes

As the GPE's focus on education quality and learning outcomes has increased, it has become necessary to develop quantitative and qualitative indicators that can provide information on progress in learning across countries even in the absence of standardized information that would ensure consistency in reporting across developing-country partners.

A critical objective of the M&E strategy is the development of an impact evaluation methodology to assess the impact of the GPE at the local and global levels.

The GPE encourages and facilitates dialogue within the partnership to expand the information on achievements in enhancing education quality. It supports the development and improvement of learning outcome assessment systems at the national, regional, and global levels. The GPE seeks to ensure that the ESPs and JSRs present and discuss the information provided through these learning assessment systems. It works with the key assessment agencies, including agencies that report on or use the assessments—such as the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement, the International Institute for Educational Planning, the Latin American Laboratory for Assessment of the Quality of Education, the Program on the Analysis of Education Systems of the Conference of Ministers of Education of French-Speaking Countries, the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality, the UIS, and the World Bank—to improve coordination and to advocate for support for the measurement of indicators and progress toward goals. In addition, the GPE hopes to provide support to the agencies working with countries on quality assurance methodologies and frameworks (for now, mainly UNESCO and the World Bank).

D. Assessing the impact of the Global Partnership

A critical objective of the M&E strategy is the development of an impact evaluation methodology to assess the impact of the GPE at the local and global levels. However, given the complexity, variety, and scale of the GPE's involvement in country processes and funding, it is not possible to determine causality or measure impact in the clear-cut manner that is possible in pilot projects. Nonetheless, more can be done to document the value added by the GPE.

II. Three components of the GPE M&E strategy

A. The Results Framework

A core tool of the M&E strategy is the Results Framework, which provides information on the objectives set by GPE partners and the progress achieved in the effort to reach these objectives. The objectives are classified as goal, outcome, and output. Each of these is associated with specific indicators and data sources (table 1.1). The overall goal of the Results Framework is to measure and monitor progress in implementing the interventions of the GPE. In particular, the overall goal is to monitor achievements in education in GPE countries, including those activities that are financed by the GPE.

A core tool of the M&E strategy is the Results Framework, which provides information on the objectives set by GPE partners and the progress achieved.



PHOTO CREDIT: Olivia Zinzan/Save the Children

TABLE 1.1. RESULTS FRAMEWORK: KEY PERFORMANCE INDICATORS

Level	No.	Indicator
Goal		
Improve the literacy rate in GPE countries		Youth literacy rate (15–24 year age-group)
Outcome		
Number of girls and boys receiving good-quality primary education and transitioning to lower- and upper-secondary school	1.	Gross enrolment ratio in preprimary education
	2.	Grade 1 gross intake ratio
	3.	Rate of out-of-school children
	4.	Primary-school completion rate
	5.	Ratio of GPE countries that have achieved gender parity in primary-school completion
	6.	Transition rate from primary to lower-secondary education
	7.	Lower-secondary completion rate
	8.	The proportion of pupils who, by the end of two grades of primary school, have demonstrated that they can read and understand the meaning of grade-level text
	9.	The proportion of students who, by the end of the primary or basic education cycle, are able to read and demonstrate understanding, as defined by the national curriculum or as agreed by national experts
Output		
a. The quality of the ESPs: sound sector policies are developed and implemented	10.	The GPE is developing a methodology to assess the quality of the ESPs; this methodology will be specified in the new Guidelines for Education Plan Preparation and Appraisal
b. The mobilization of sufficient and sustainable domestic and external financing for education	11.	Ratio of public spending on education to total public spending
	12.	Aid commitments and disbursements for education
	13.	Ratio of actual disbursements of GPE implementation funding to planned disbursements
c. The education sector is supported by GPE donors according to the principles of aid effectiveness	14.	Share of education aid by the government sector reported in the government budget
	15.	Share of education aid that uses national public financial management systems
	16.	Share of education aid that uses national procurement systems and procedures
	17.	Education aid provided in the context of program-based approaches
d. The improvement of education service delivery	18.	Number of total and new students in primary education
	19.	Number of total and new teachers in primary education
	20.	Number of total and new classrooms in primary education
	21.	Number of total and new students in lower-secondary education
	22.	Number of total and new teachers in lower-secondary education
	23.	Number of total and new classrooms in lower-secondary education
	24.	Textbooks per pupil in primary education (mathematics)
	25.	Textbooks per pupil in primary education (language)
	26.	Effectiveness of service delivery in schools
	27.	A measure of effective learning time

Source: GPE compilation.

The Results Framework includes indicators on basic education, which is defined as early childhood development and primary and lower-secondary education. The identification of these indicators is the result of a consultation process undertaken in 2011 among members of the partnership. The set of indicators reflects a tradeoff between maximizing information on the education sector and limiting the reporting workload of local partners. The Results Framework will be modified following the finalization of the GPE Strategic Plan for 2012–15. Annex 1A describes the indicators in detail.

The role of the GPE is to facilitate access to the information available in the education sector; this role does not involve new data collection. The information presented in the Results Framework is based on multiple sources, as follows:

- The UIS database is the most important source. It ensures that the information on education indicators is internationally comparable. Except for indicators on learning outcomes, the indicators at the goal and outcome levels of the Results Framework are aggregated using the UIS database.

- National, regional, and international assessments provide the data on learning outcomes. These data are not comparable across countries, except for the data generated by regional or international programs. Therefore, it is not currently possible to present aggregated data on these indicators.

- The database of the Development Assistance Committee of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development provides the information on aid commitments and disbursements.[3]

- The GPE has undertaken two exercises to monitor the implementation of the core indicators of the Paris Declaration that are relevant to education. The first was conducted in 2008 as a pilot survey in 10 developing-country partners (GPE 2009). In late 2010, the GPE undertook a monitoring exercise in 38 participating developing countries.[4] The exercise relied on an expanded set of questions, but focused on the same set of core indicators. A summary of the results are presented in chapter 5. In 2012, the GPE is revising the methodology to collect information on aid effectiveness.

- Household surveys are used to probe beyond national averages, to investigate disparities within countries, and to examine the validity of administrative data collected through education management information systems.

ESPs, JSRs, and GPE grant application documents are the main sources of country data. A principal objective of the M&E strategy is to ascertain whether national ESPs are implemented and whether the targets defined by local partners are being achieved.

- ESPs, JSRs, and GPE grant application documents are the main sources of country data. A principal objective of the M&E strategy is to ascertain whether national ESPs are implemented and whether the targets defined by local partners are being achieved. To facilitate this process, the GPE reviews the publicly available documentation (mainly ESPs, JSRs, and GPE grant application packages) on GPE countries and produces a results form for each country. The form indicates targets established by the countries and the values of indicators in the Results Framework over 2009–15. These forms will be completed, validated, and updated by the LEGs as needed, especially following a JSR or after an ESP is updated. They will be published on the GPE website. They constitute an innovation in terms of accountability and will facilitate access to the information already available at the country level (usually scattered in many different documents) to ensure that every stakeholder is aware of the past and future commitments made by the country and its partners. In addition, the forms will enable the GPE to avoid a top-down approach insofar as the targets established in the Results Framework are based on the targets defined by local partners in the ESPs. The data derived from national sources such as ESPs and JSRs may differ from the data available through international sources because of differences in definitions, methods of calculation, or the underlying data. For these reasons, the GPE will discourage the use of data based on national sources, as presented in these forms, to make

comparisons between countries. Rather, these data will be used to assess the progress of individual countries in achieving their own targets.

- Other studies undertaken in the education sector by GPE partners will be used wherever relevant. This will be especially the case of studies providing information on the effectiveness of service delivery to schools (such as public expenditure tracking surveys) and on assessments of learning time.



PHOTO CREDIT: Simon Davis/DFID

BOX 1.1. MEASURING OUT-OF-SCHOOL POPULATIONS

Out-of-school children of primary-school age are children of primary-school age who are not in either primary or secondary school. Children who are out of school include children who have never entered school, as well as children who have dropped out. Irregular attendance patterns that lead to staying in school, dropping out, or dropping back in make it difficult to determine how many students are in school regularly.

The two main sources of data on out-of-school children include administrative records (education management information systems) and household surveys. There are advantages and limitations in using either type of data to count out-of-school children.

Administrative data can allow for annual monitoring on the number of out-of-school children. However, this type of data may be subject to unknown biases through over- and underreporting as well as measurement error from census-based projections, and often do not provide information on student populations outside the formal education system.

On the other hand, household surveys can provide education data on children inside and outside the formal education system. However, because education is not the main subject of household surveys, data collected on out-of-school populations is often underestimated because factors such as nonattendance after enrollment and erratic attendance are not always identified. Moreover, these surveys do not measure at a standard point of the school year across countries.

To ascertain whether the questions normally asked during household surveys are capturing the out-of-school issue sufficiently, a quick study was conducted by GPE Secretariat in Karnataka, India. It shows in this case a strong underestimation (over 50%) of the out of school children.

For more detailed information refer to annex 1C Measurement Issues in Counting the Number of Out-of-School Children.

B. The accountability matrix

A second core component of the development of an M&E strategy centers on the design of an accountability matrix. The matrix describes the roles and responsibilities of all GPE stakeholders and partners in the effort to meet the educational targets specified in the Results Framework. It also provides for monitoring the extent to which the partners fulfill their commitments.

The matrix describes the roles and responsibilities of all GPE stakeholders and partners in the effort to meet the educational targets specified in the Results Framework.

The desire to improve accountability in the partnership partly derives from the findings of the 2009–10 midterm evaluation, which concluded that GPE-supported activities were often vaguely defined and that implementation was left to the discretion of the partners, who were not held responsible if they did not undertake the activities (GPE 2010). Moreover, previous to the evaluation, the focus of accountability had been asymmetrically biased toward partner countries, whereas donors had not been held accountable for fulfilling their commitments, including their financial commitments, to education in the developing world. This weakened the GPE compact and reduced the voice of partner countries in the partnership.

The accountability matrix, like the other components of the M&E strategy, is a living document that will be revised as the roles and responsibilities of partners in the partnership evolve. The matrix helps ensure that partners understand their responsibilities within the partnership and in the fulfillment of national goals in education. The GPE will define parameters to determine the roles of each partner based on relevance and capacities. The purpose is not only to establish the division of labor within the GPE, but also to create a framework to foster accountability.

The matrix is based on a grid describing the commitments of each GPE stakeholder to carry out certain responsibilities that will contribute to the achievement of the educational goals reflected in the Results Framework. (The accountability matrix is presented in more detail in annex 1B.) The matrix will allow the GPE to assess the progress of partners in fulfilling their commitments and, especially, to identify the areas in which efforts should be redoubled.

It is understood that the roles and responsibilities identified in the matrix are not comprehensive and will likely change as the partnership gains experience. Thus, it is expected that the GPE and its partners will cooperate in the development of the systems, processes, and reporting practices needed to encourage accountability. The enforcement of the accountability matrix is an important element in ensuring the support of stakeholders for the achievement of GPE goals based on a platform of mutual understanding, dialogue, and transparency.

All GPE partners should review and report regularly on the fulfillment of their roles. The GPE will work with its partners over the coming year to define these roles and the implications for each partner, including the support that will be needed, the additional activities that will be required to improve the related M&E, and any steps that should be taken to identify the expected contribution of each partner to the goals of the GPE. The GPE hopes to increase the commitment of all stakeholders by using the second results report (in 2013) to examine the compliance of stakeholders with the accountability matrix. To achieve this, the GPE is developing a system to monitor the fulfillment of commitments by GPE partners.

C. The impact evaluation methodology

A third core ingredient of the M&E strategy is impact evaluation. Part of the impetus for the inclusion of this ingredient is the 2009–10 midterm evaluation, which recommended that methodologies for impact evaluation be developed, including a major evaluation in 2015 that should establish whether the GPE is a cause of changes observed at the national and global levels in the achievement of outputs, outcomes, and impacts in education (GPE 2010). The midterm evaluation also cautioned against raising expectations: a rigorous impact evaluation (using, for example, randomized, controlled trials) is not possible

partly because of the many factors affecting education policy and resource allocation decisions besides the GPE. Thus, it recommended the use of a mix of methods, including contribution analysis.

To give a comprehensive picture of the impact of GPE, one should focus on the effects that can be reasonably claimed by the GPE. As a basis for the impact evaluation in 2015, the overarching questions should reflect the core principles of the GPE and should therefore focus on (1) the GPE as a partnership of donors and developing countries, multilateral institutions, the private sector, and civil society organizations and (2) the GPE as a financial institution. Thus, to evaluate the efficiency and effectiveness of the performance of the GPE, the core questions of the impact evaluation are the following:

- What are the important factors that have affected the relevance of the GPE, the implementation of its activities, and its potential impact on achieving universal basic education in countries?
- How and to what extent have the actions of the GPE led to an improvement in the empowerment of developing-country partners to draft and implement sound ESPs?
- Have the actions of the GPE strengthened the contribution of aid to outcomes in educational development?

Additional questions should analyze the impact chain, as follows:

- Has membership in the GPE strengthened policy dialogue and aid coordination within the education sectors of countries?
- Has membership in the GPE or the GPE process subsequent to it strengthened the effectiveness of the implementation of ESPs by countries?
- Has membership in the GPE or the GPE process subsequent to it increased the domestic financing of basic education by countries?



PHOTO CREDIT: Kelly Cline

- Has the GPE fostered external support for ESPs by signaling to donors that the individual ESPs of countries are sound, sustainable, and a good investment?
- Has the GPE contributed to beneficial educational outcomes in countries by improving the allocation of funding to the issues and areas of greatest need or by enhancing allocation efficiency?
- Has the GPE raised the likelihood that local actors will undertake evaluations of outputs, outcomes, and impacts in education? Has the use of evaluations increased in countries?
- Has the GPE improved education within countries and at the global level?

To answer these questions and to measure the impact of the GPE, the impact evaluation should be broken down into components that are explored through separate studies and various levels of analysis. The causal chain of the underlying intervention theory has two main steps:

- The influence of the GPE on policy change and resource allocations in countries and at the global level
- The influence of these policy changes on educational outcomes

The relevant studies will be commissioned by 2015 and then carried out on a regular basis. Each year, the results of these studies will be released on the GPE website. A final impact evaluation report will be produced in 2015 to summarize the conclusions of the studies and provide inputs for the next GPE replenishment process.



PHOTO CREDIT: Guy Calaf/Save the Children

III. The organizational structure for the implementation of the M&E strategy

An M&E unit within the GPE Secretariat will be responsible for monitoring the Results Framework and the accountability matrix. The Secretariat will present a results report to the Board of Directors annually. The report will describe the achievements by countries and stakeholders in terms of the Results Framework and the accountability matrix. The present report is the first results report.

To carry out actions that other partners are already conducting is not the purpose of the GPE Secretariat. The principal aim of the GPE is to facilitate access to information already available on the education sector. The GPE Secretariat does not collect data except in specific instances where no other partners are collecting the data that are needed, such as the case of data on aid effectiveness in the education sector. Another important role of the GPE is to identify knowledge gaps in terms of M&E and find partners willing to fill these gaps through the Global and Regional Activities Program (GPE 2012). For example, an important part of this program is the development of data on learning outcomes.

The GPE Secretariat value added in M&E is expected to derive from its access to documents presenting national targets, such as the ESPs and JSRs and therefore does not require special data collection. By using this information to produce descriptions of the results achieved by all developing-country partners, the GPE adds to knowledge about the level of implementation of the ESPs.

The GPE will establish an M&E committee, which will provide advice to the Board of Directors and guidance to the GPE on M&E, including on the following:

- Reviewing and assessing the implementation of the M&E strategy to strengthen the accountability mechanisms of the partnership
- Recommending to the Board of Directors changes in the M&E strategy, as appropriate
- Preparing the annual GPE results report

An independent steering committee is currently being established to guide the GPE impact evaluation. The committee will provide advice on approaches and methods at all levels and guide and direct the overall design and implementation of the evaluation. It will consist of a team of experts who will be appointed based on expertise and experience in conducting impact evaluations. The members will be engaged as independent consultants and paid through the Secretariat budget. They will be accountable to the Board of Directors.

ENDNOTES

1. The development partner group includes partners that are supporting the country in developing and implementing an ESP. The development partner group and the government also participate together in the local education group (LEG).

2. For the UIS database, see Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org. For the EFA Global Monitoring Report, see "EFA Global Monitoring Report," United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, Paris, http://www.unesco.org/new/en/education/themes/leading-the-international-agenda/efareport/.

3. See Aid Architecture (database) and Aid Statistics (database), Development Assistance Committee, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, Paris, http://www.oecd.org/dac/.

4. "2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness," Global Partnership for Education, Washington, DC, http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2/.



CHAPTER **TWO**

GLOBAL ACHIEVEMENTS AND TRENDS IN BASIC EDUCATION

PHOTO CREDIT: Save the Children

By the end of 2011, 46 of the 67 countries eligible to join the Global Partnership for Education (GPE) had had education plans endorsed at the local level and had joined the partnership. Of these 46 countries, 13 are in fragile situations.[1] (For a list of GPE developing country partners and GPE-eligible countries, see annex 2A.) This chapter looks at the historical trends in key education indicators for GPE countries and compares these countries with countries that are eligible to join the partnership, but have not yet joined. Comparisons are also made between countries in fragile situations and countries not in fragile situations.

The main goal in the GPE Results Framework, the youth (15–24 years of age) literacy rate, is used to assess the midterm contribution of the Global Partnership to human capital development.

I. Progress in the youth literacy rate: goal indicator

The main goal in the GPE Results Framework, the youth (15–24 years of age) literacy rate, is used to assess the midterm contribution of the Global Partnership to human capital development. Actions between now and 2015 will have little impact on this indicator because of the lead time required for impact.[2] The aim of analyzing this indicator is to provide a long-term marker of progress and to enable the identification of countries with specific issues or countries that are best performers and can be studied for useful lessons. In addition, such analysis helps focus the attention of the partnership on outcome goals.



PHOTO CREDIT: SAC Neil Chapman (RAF)/MOD

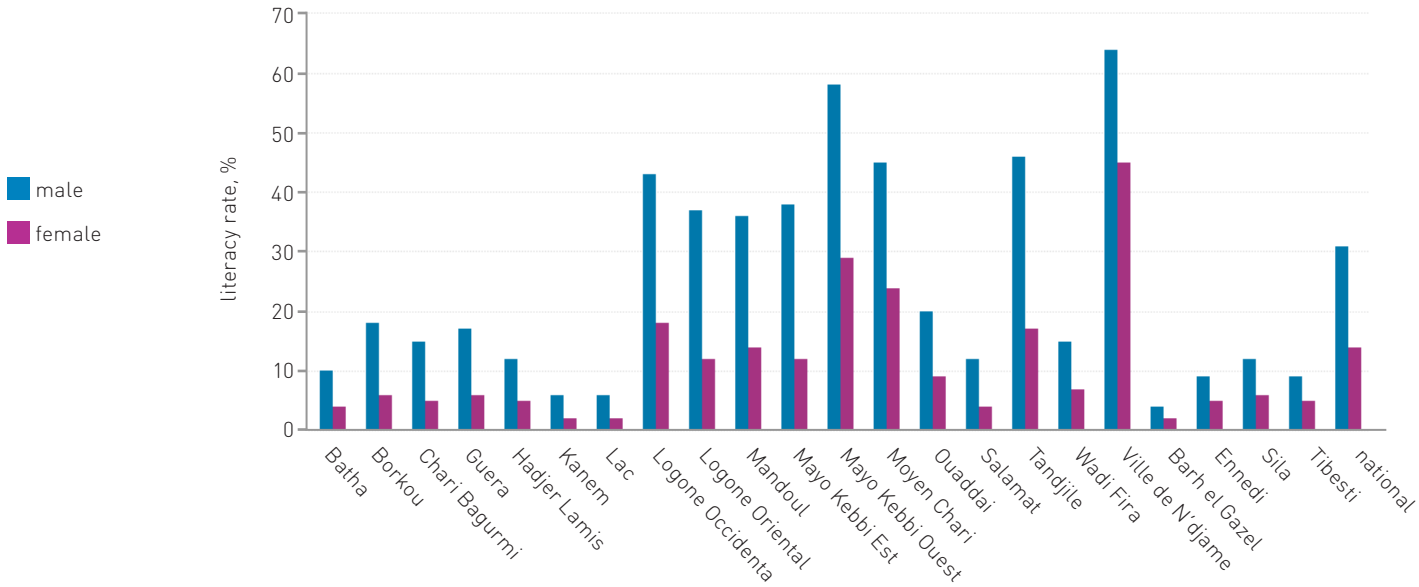
Information on the youth literacy rate comes from data of the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS).[3] Of 46 GPE countries, 43 provide this information to UIS in a manner that meets the demands of the UIS reporting process. Over the last decade, most of the countries have produced data for only one or two years because the relevant data are derived from censuses or occasional surveys. Because of the lack of data, the GPE Secretariat has calculated the average youth literacy rate for GPE countries for 2007–10. In this period, the youth literacy rate was 77 percent overall: 81 percent among males and 73 percent among females. There were important disparities across countries: 11 countries had a youth literacy rate above 90 percent; 13 countries had a rate below 70 percent; and three had a rate below 50 percent.

If we compare achievements between the periods 2000–03 and 2007–10, we find that the performance is similar in countries that have joined the partnership and countries that are eligible to join, but have not yet joined.[4] The youth literacy rates in GPE countries increased from 77 to 81 percent and, in GPE-eligible countries, from 72 to 78 percent. The literacy rate grew more rapidly among females: from 73 to 78 percent in GPE countries, from 67 to 76 percent in GPE-eligible countries, and from 56 to 70 percent in GPE countries in fragile situations.[5] In six countries (The Gambia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Mozambique, Nepal, and Senegal), the youth literacy rate among females increased by more than 15 percentage points in 2000–10.

The literacy rate grew more rapidly among females: from 73 to 78 percent in GPE countries, from 67 to 76 percent in GPE-eligible countries, and from 56 to 70 percent in GPE countries in fragile situations.

However, these national averages hide huge disparities within countries as shown in figure 2.1 on Chad, which joined the partnership in 2012. Note that information is not available on the youth literacy rate; so, the overall literacy rate has been used. In more than half the country's regions, the literacy rate among women is below 10 percent.

FIGURE 2.1. NATIONAL AND REGIONAL LITERACY RATES, CHAD, 2009



Source: Chad, Ministry of the Economy and Planning 2009.

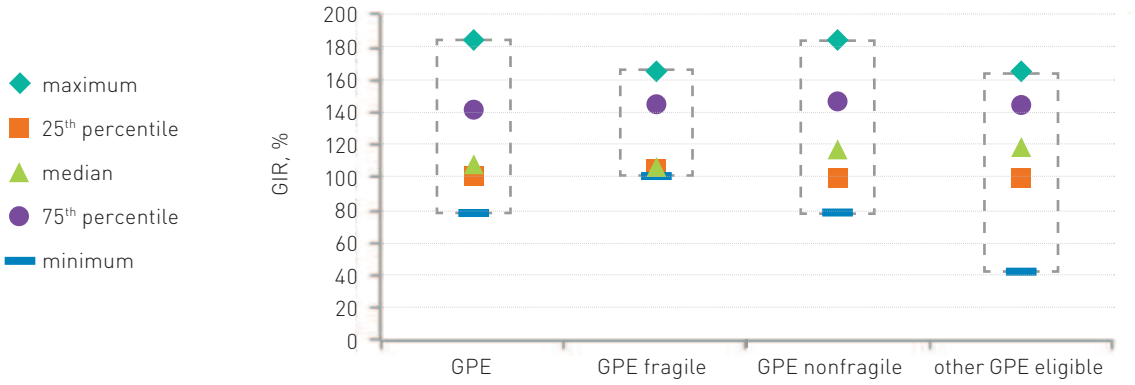
II. Progress in key outcome indicators

This section focuses on four key outcomes indicators: the gross enrollment ratio (GER) in preprimary education, the gross intake ratio (GIR) in primary education, the out-of-school (OOS) rate, the primary-school completion rate (see annex 2B). On all these indicators, the GPE countries had, by the end of the decade 2000–10, outperformed the GPE-eligible countries that had not yet been endorsed. On most of the indicators, the GPE countries had also improved at a more rapid rate. Fragile GPE countries had typically not improved nearly as much as other GPE countries and also began at a lower level.

On most of the indicators, GPE countries improved at a more rapid rate than GPE-eligible countries. Fragile GPE countries had typically not improved nearly as much as other GPE countries and also began at a lower level.

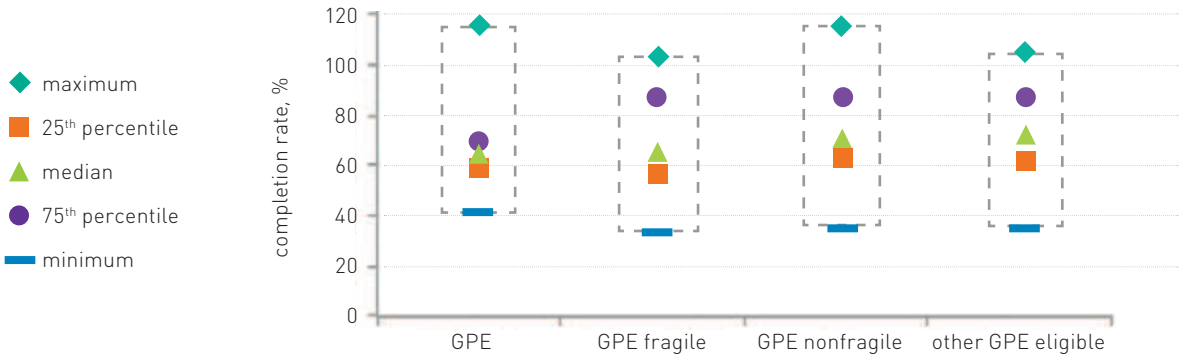
However, these groups are not homogenous. Figures 2.2 and 2.3 use the most recently available data on two key indicators to show that there are differences in the medians between these groups of countries; the variation within each group is so large that generalizations about the group should not be made without a great deal of caution. In particular, one should not make assumptions about any country simply because it is in one of the groups. The variability between the countries at the 25th and 75th percentiles within each group is much larger than the differences between the medians of the groups except in the case of the primary-school completion rate in fragile GPE countries.

FIGURE 2.2. VARIATIONS IN GIRs IN PRIMARY EDUCATION, 2010



Source: Elaborated from data of Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org.

FIGURE 2.3. VARIATIONS IN PRIMARY-SCHOOL COMPLETION RATES, 2009/10



Source: Elaborated from data of Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org.

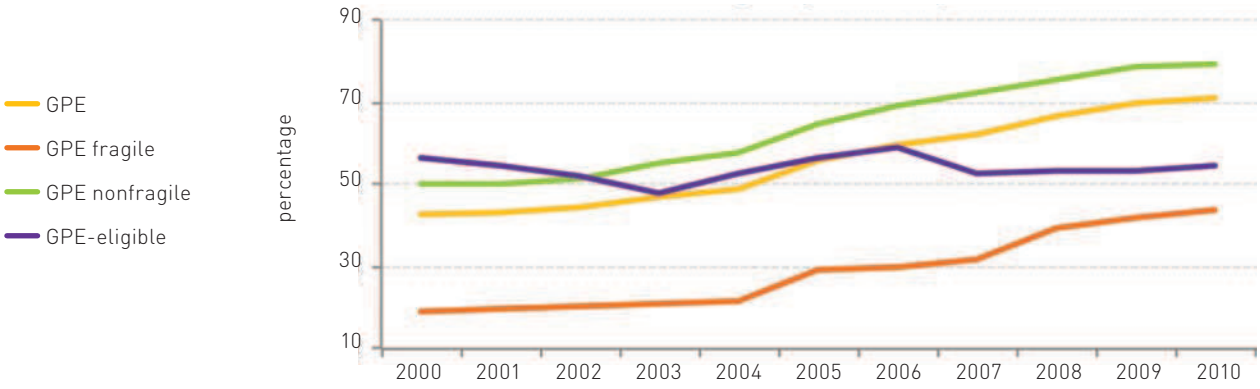
In making the comparisons in this section, we also characterize the countries with respect to levels of poverty. In 2010, the weighted average gross domestic product (GDP) per capita (in current international purchasing power parity U.S. dollars) was US$1,550 in GPE countries in fragile situations, compared with US$1,827 in nonfragile GPE countries and US$2,105 in GPE-eligible countries. The GPE countries in fragile situations are considerably poorer, on average, than the rest of the GPE countries. Thus, it may also be that income, especially poverty, rather than fragility or membership in any particular GPE group, may explain some of the differences in performance.

It may also be that income, especially poverty, rather than fragility or membership in any particular GPE group, may explain some of the differences in performance.

A. Enrollment in preprimary education

Participation in preprimary education has been low in GPE countries; this is evidenced by the average GER, which has remained below 25 percent (figure 2.4). However, between 2000 and 2010, the GER rose significantly, from 15 to 25 percent. Access to preprimary education was consistently less in GPE countries in fragile situations. On average, the difference in GERs between fragile countries and nonfragile countries was 10 percentage points during 2000–10, though these 10 percentage points mean that enrollment in the nonfragile countries is double the enrollment in the fragile countries because the base in the latter is so low.

FIGURE 2.4. GERs IN PREPRIMARY EDUCATION



Source: Data of Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org.

Overall, enrollments grew more rapidly in GPE countries than in other categories of countries during the decade. Thus, for example, at the beginning of the decade, enrollments were lower in GPE countries than in countries that were otherwise similar (the GPE-eligible countries). However, because of a decline during 2000–03, followed by only a slow improvement, the enrollment level in GPE-eligible countries is now below the level observed in GPE countries. In 2010, enrollment stands at 21 percent in GPE-eligible countries and 23 percent in GPE countries.

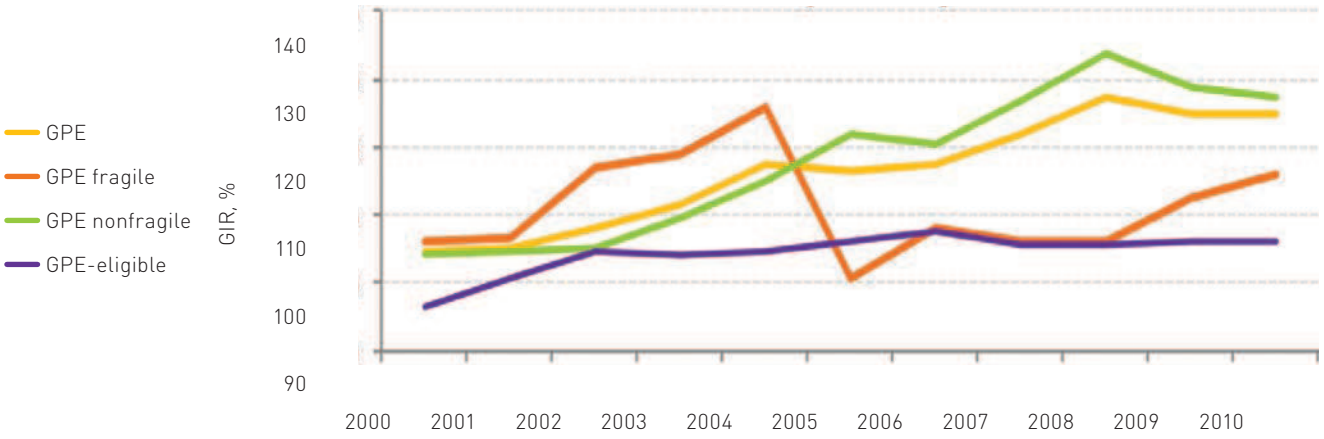
B. Entry into primary education

An important milestone among countries on the path to universal primary education by 2015 is the attainment of a gross primary-school intake ratio of 100 percent. In GPE countries, the trends were positive in 2000–10 (figure 2.5). The GIR, which remained above 100 percent during the whole period, increased and reached a peak in 2008 (127 percent) following stability between 2004 and 2006. The influx was likely caused by an intake of older children entering or reentering education or by the misreporting of repeaters as new entrants. In 2010, the average GIR dropped by 2 percentage points, suggesting that there was

Enrollments grew more rapidly in GPE countries than in other categories of countries during the decade.

a gain in efficiency or in the age-appropriateness of enrollments. Enrollments in GPE countries at the start of the decade were more or less the same as enrollments in the other country groups, but the GPE countries outperformed the other countries during the decade.

FIGURE 2.5. GIRs IN PRIMARY EDUCATION



Source: Data of Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org.

While the trends in GPE countries in nonfragile situations mirror the overall trends, the GIRs in GPE countries in fragile situations dropped significantly, to 100 percent, in 2005 following a surge in the preceding years. Since this decline, entry into the first grade of primary education has recovered slightly in GPE countries in fragile situations.

Compared with GPE-eligible countries that have not joined the partnership, GPE countries have maintained higher levels of access to primary education as defined by the GIR. The gap in GIRs between these country groups increased significantly, from 8 to 19 percentage points, during 2000–10; the differences became more marked beginning in 2004. However, the relatively high ratios in GPE countries may hide inefficiencies and grade repetitions and may not simply reflect true progress in entry. It is not necessarily good that GPE countries have such high GIRs. The report examines these issues in detail.

In 2010, data on gender parity were available on only half the 46 GPE countries. All the countries on which data are available reached gender parity in the access to primary education.

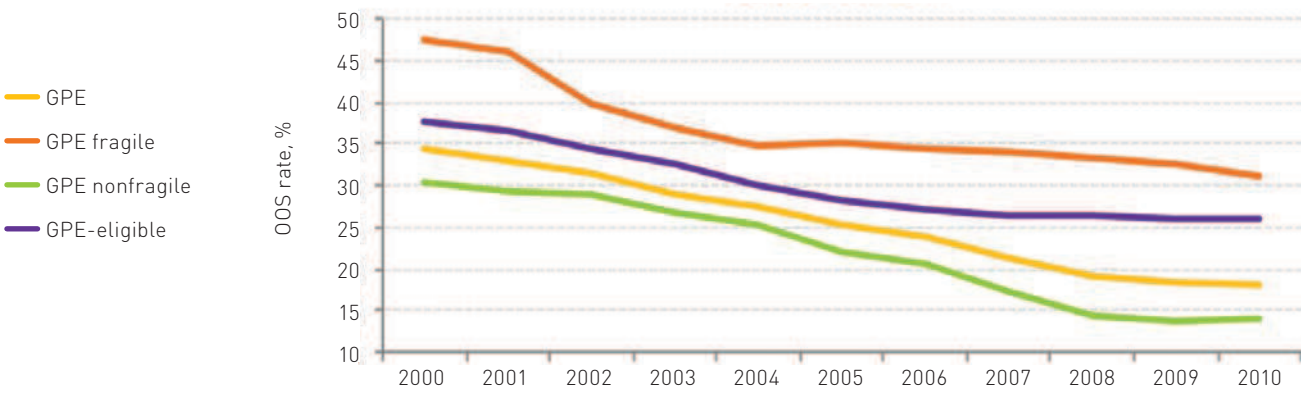
In the absence of sufficient data for 2000–10, we have been unable to conduct trend analysis on gender parity in school entry data. In 2010, data on gender parity were available on only half the 46 GPE countries. All the countries on which data are available reached gender parity in the access to primary education. Among the 21 GPE-eligible countries that have not joined the partnership, data were available for 2010 on 11; only four of these had reached parity by that year. Thus, 100 percent of the GPE countries (with data) had achieved gender parity, while only 36 percent of the GPE-eligible, but not yet endorsed countries had done so.

C. The out-of-school rate

Despite the substantial progress in primary-school enrollments in the last decade, many children still remain out of school.[6] In GPE countries, one in five children of primary-school age was out of school in 2009, compared with one in three in 2000 (figure 2.6). The reduction in the out-of-school (OOS) population in GPE countries is more significant in countries in nonfragile situations; in these countries, the average reduction was 1.9 percentage points per year, compared with 1.5 percentage points per year in countries in fragile situations. In fragile GPE countries, the OOS rate has been stagnant at about 35 percent since 2004 following a steady decline during the preceding years (from 47 percent in 2000). GPE countries improved at a more rapid rate than countries that are GPE-eligible, but not yet endorsed.

Despite the substantial progress in primary-school enrollments in the last decade, many children still remain out of school.

FIGURE 2.6. THE RATE OF OOS CHILDREN



Source: Data of Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org.



PHOTO CREDIT: Nick Cunard/DFID

During 2000–06, the OOS rate was similar in GPE countries and in GPE-eligible countries that had not yet joined the partnership. However, a gap started to appear in 2007 when the rate continued to decline in the first group of countries, while remaining stagnant in the second group. The GPE-eligible countries have higher rates, and the rates appear constant. The rate has become quite low in nonfragile GPE countries (bottom line in figure 2.6), suggesting that efforts to enroll the last 10 or 15 percent of OOS children will require attention to marginal and special needs children.

D. Primary-school completion

In GPE countries in fragile situations, the primary-school completion rate has been stagnant at around 55 percent since 2004, following a small increase during the previous three years.

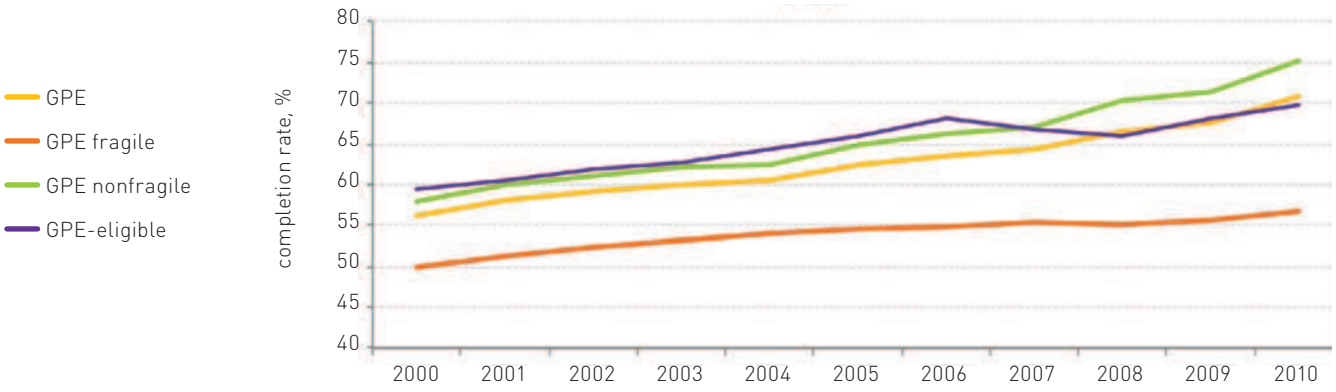
Within the GPE, the primary-school completion rate is an important indicator of progress toward universal primary education. This indicator represents the percentage of children who complete a full cycle of primary education.

At an average growth of 1.3 percentage points per year, the primary-school completion rate in GPE countries increased from 56 percent in 2000 to 71 percent in 2010 (figure 2.7). The levels and trends in the rate are similar in the GPE-eligible countries that have not yet joined the partnership. GPE countries in fragile situations consistently have a lower primary-school completion rate; among these countries, the rate has been stagnant at around 55 percent since 2004, following a small increase during the previous three years.



PHOTO CREDIT: Vicki Francis/DFID

FIGURE 2.7. PRIMARY-SCHOOL COMPLETION RATES



Source: Data of Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org.

In terms of gender parity in completion, we have been unable to conduct trend analysis because of the lack of data. However, data were available on this issue in 31 of the 46 GPE countries in 2010. Among these countries, 12, including a country in a fragile situation (Georgia), had reached gender parity by 2010. This represents 39 percent of the countries on which data are available. In the 21 GPE-eligible countries that have not joined the partnership, data on gender parity were available on 17 countries; only four of these countries had reached parity in 2010, which represents 24 percent of the countries on which data are available. Thus, GPE countries seem to be doing considerably better.

III. Global trends in education: projections

In addition to demonstrating the progress that countries have made in school access and completion rates over the last 10 years, the available data also help forecast education milestones that countries may be expected to reach in the future. In this section, we use a forecasting model that takes into account the historical trends in school entry rates and in student flows—promotion, repetition, and drop-out rates—in the education systems of GPE countries and GPE-eligible countries, as well as United Nations population projections, to analyze possible global trends in education, especially enrollments, over the next 10 years.[7] Because the purpose of the analysis is to help identify outcomes that are realistically achievable by the partnership, we do not simply extrapolate based on past trends, nor do we propose to encourage countries to attempt to reach universal primary education if such a goal is beyond statistical probability. Instead, we use the forecasting methodology to project the rates of progress obtained by good performers over the last 10 years, while setting goals for improvement that are moderate, but doable even in countries where historical trends have been negative. The ultimate aim is to advance toward universal enrollment and full primary-school completion.

In fragile GPE countries, where many children of primary-school age do not participate in education, the GIRs are expected to increase between 2010 and 2015, but decrease subsequently.

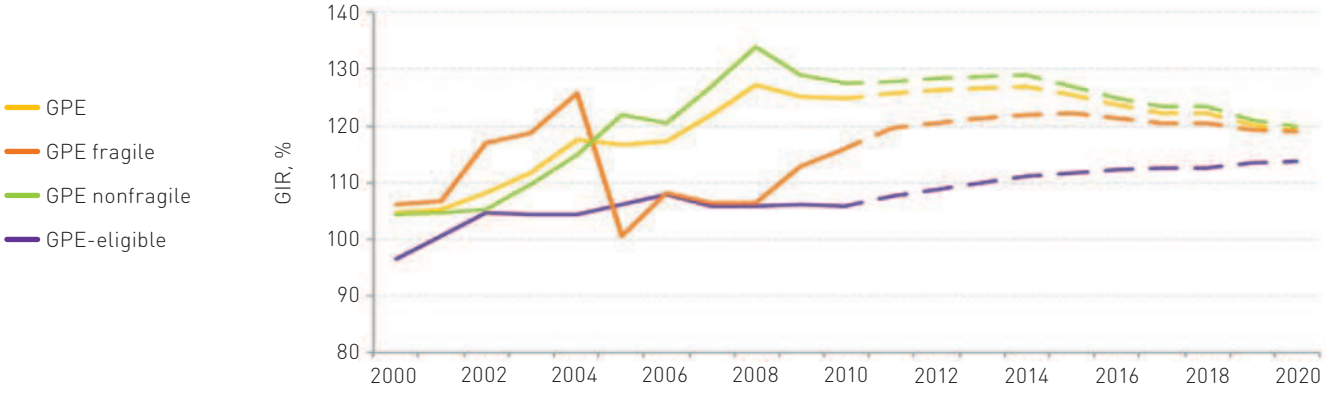
A. Entry into primary education

Historically, the GIRs in most of the GPE countries and GPE-eligible countries have been above 100 percent, indicating that a large number of children who are over the appropriate age for grade 1 have been entering school for the first time each year. The rate of change in the GIR in our forecasting model depends on the values in the most recent data available for the indicator, as well as the trends in historical data across countries.[8] As figure 2.8 shows, the higher the GIR in the baseline year, the larger the decrease that may be expected. Among the four groups of countries under analysis, the nonfragile GPE countries started with the highest GIRs in 2010 (because they often have the most first-time entries of children who are over the age appropriate for grade 1) and are projected to experience the most significant decrease in the GIR by 2020. The GPE-eligible countries are the only group in which the GIRs are expected to increase steadily between 2010 and 2020. This is because the GIRs for this group were only slightly above 100 percent in 2010. In fragile GPE countries, where many children of primary-school age do not participate in education, the GIRs are expected to increase between 2010 and 2015, but decrease subsequently. The large disparities observed in the GIRs in the baseline data among the four groups of countries are expected to diminish by 2020.



PHOTO CREDIT: Mark Kaye/Save the Children

FIGURE 2.8. GIRS IN PRIMARY EDUCATION, 2000–20



Sources: Data for 2000–10: Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org. Data for 2011–20: projections of the Education Policy and Data Center, Washington, DC, http://epdc.org/.

As shown in table 2.1, historical GIRs vary by gender. The share of girls entering grade 1 is lower than the share of boys in all four groups of countries. The differences in the baseline values affect the change projected in coming years. Thus, for example, the GIR among boys in GPE-eligible countries was 111 percent in the baseline year, 2010, and is expected to increase by 5 percentage points by 2020. The GIR among girls in the same group, meanwhile, was 101 percent in the baseline year and is projected to increase by 10 percentage points by 2020, which is still less than the projected ratio among boys.

Historical GIRs vary by gender. The share of girls entering grade 1 is lower than the share of boys in all four groups of countries.

TABLE 2.1. PROJECTED CHANGE IN PRIMARY-SCHOOL GIRs BY GENDER

Country group	Gender	2010 value, %	Change, percentage points	
			2010–15	2010–20
GPE	Male	128	–0.1	–7.1
	Female	121	1.3	–4.2
	Both	125	0.6	–5.7
GPE fragile	Male	123	4.2	0.4
	Female	109	8.1	5.1
	Both	116	6.1	2.7
GPE nonfragile	Male	130	–1.1	–8.8
	Female	125	–0.3	–6.3
	Both	127	–0.7	–7.6
GPE-eligible	Male	111	4.2	5.1
	Female	101	7.3	10.4
	Both	106	5.7	7.7

Sources: Data for 2010: Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org. Data for 2011–20: projections of the Education Policy and Data Center, Washington, DC, http://epdc.org/.

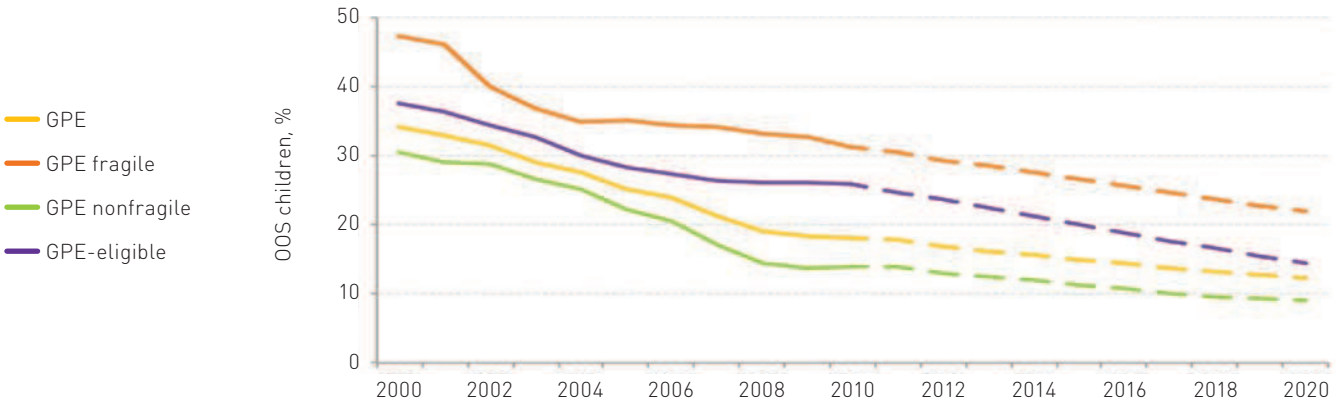
B. Out-of-school children

Projections of the share of OOS children incorporate historical trends in adjusted net enrollment rates (ANERs) and in GERs (figure 2.9).[9] As enrollment grows and an increasing number of children who are over the age appropriate for grade 1 enroll in school for the first time, the number of children who do not participate in education is expected to decline in all four groups of countries. In none of the groups, however, is optimal enrollment expected by 2020. In GPE countries, the rate of OOS children is projected to fall to about 12 percent by 2020. The share of children who will not be participating in education in 2020 is likely to be higher in fragile GPE countries and GPE-eligible countries: 22 and 14 percent, respectively.



PHOTO CREDIT: Dylan Thomas/UKaid/ DFID

FIGURE 2.9. OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN, 2000–20



Sources: Data for 2000–10: Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org. Data for 2011–20: projections of the Education Policy and Data Center, Washington, DC, http://epdc.org/.

Girls are more disadvantaged than boys in accessing primary education, but as access improves, the share of OOS girls is expected to decline more quickly than the share of OOS boys.

Across all four groups of countries analyzed, girls are more disadvantaged than boys in the access to primary education (table 2.2). The gender disparity is largest in the fragile GPE countries, where only 63 percent of girls of primary-school age attend school, compared with 75 percent of the corresponding boys. As access to education improves, girls are expected to benefit significantly, and the share of OOS girls is expected to decline more quickly than the share of OOS boys.

TABLE 2.2. PROJECTED CHANGE IN THE SHARE OF OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN BY GENDER

Country group	Gender	2010 value, %	Change, percentage points	
			2010–15	2010–20
GPE	Male	16	–1.7	–4.4
	Female	20	–4.5	–7.2
	Both	18	–3.1	–5.8
GPE fragile	Male	25	–3.2	–7.2
	Female	37	–6.0	–11.2
	Both	31	–4.5	–9.1
GPE nonfragile	Male	13	–1.3	–3.7
	Female	15	–4.1	–6.3
	Both	14	–2.7	–5.0
GPE-eligible	Male	23	–4.5	–9.7
	Female	28	–7.2	–13.2
	Both	26	–5.8	–11.4

Sources: Data for 2000–10: Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org. Data for 2011–20: projections of the Education Policy and Data Center, Washington, DC, http://epdc.org/.

C. Primary-school completion

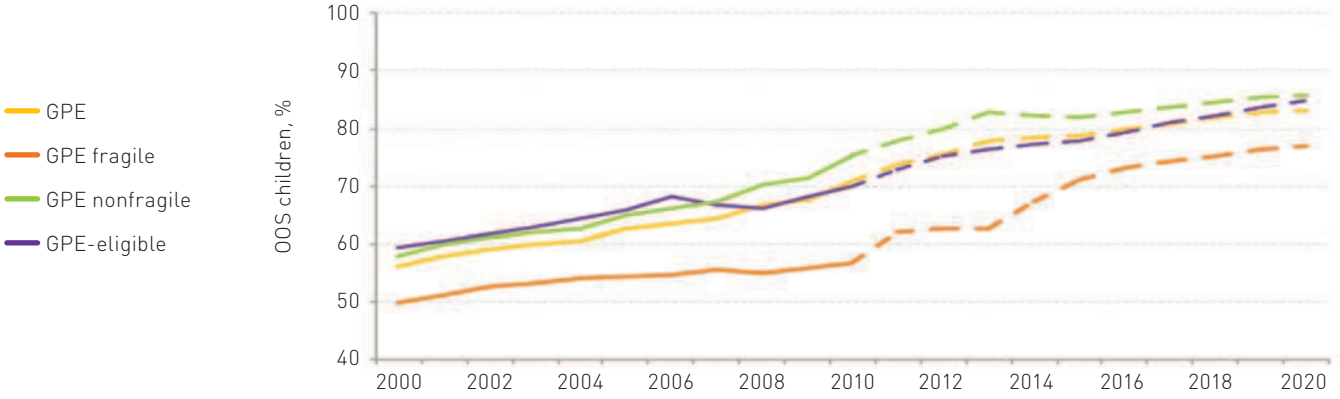
Primary-school completion rates are at 75 percent or less in all four groups of countries, but projections suggest that significant progress can be made by 2020. However, universal completion will continue to be a difficult goal for many countries.

Primary-school completion rates are at 75 percent or less in all four groups of countries, but projections suggest that significant progress can be made by 2020 (figure 2.10). However, universal completion will continue to be a difficult goal for many countries, particularly the fragile GPE countries, where baseline completion rates in 2010 averaged only 47 percent among girls, 66 percent among boys, and 57 percent overall. Even if we assume excellent performance in the next decade so that the completion rate increases in this group by 20 percentage points among both genders, the group will still be behind the other country groups in 2020.



PHOTO CREDIT: Aga Luczakowska/Save the Children

FIGURE 2.10. PRIMARY-SCHOOL COMPLETION RATES, 2000–20



Sources: Data for 2000–10: Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org. Data for 2011–20: projections of the Education Policy and Data Center, Washington, DC, http://epdc.org/.

In all four groups of countries, fewer girls than boys complete the last grade of primary school.

In all four groups of countries, fewer girls than boys complete the last grade of primary school (table 2.3). Expanded access and improved promotion across grades among children are expected to increase completion rates significantly among both genders between 2010 and 2015. In the subsequent five years, however, the pace of the change in completion rates may slow. This can be explained largely by the assumptions made in the model regarding key education variables, particularly GIRs. As the historical data show, a large number of countries included in the analysis have experienced a rapid increase in entries into grade 1 in recent years. The model assumes that, in these countries, the level of the GIRs will become stable for several years, as the most recent available data indicate. However, such high GIRs are not sustainable over the long term because they are mainly fueled by the first-time entries of children who are older than the appropriate age for grade 1 and because the flow of these delayed entries is exhaustible. The GIRs will therefore eventually begin to decline after the initial period of stabilization. At the same time, the model assumes that drop-out rates will gradually decrease as more of the children entering primary school successfully progress through each grade. It is assumed that repetition rates will remain constant in grades 1 and 2 during the period of stabilization, as well as during the initial five-year period of decline in GIRs, but then gradually decrease. As a result of these assumptions, growth in the number of students in the last grade of primary school is expected to slow after 2015, and completion rates will rise at a reduced rate.

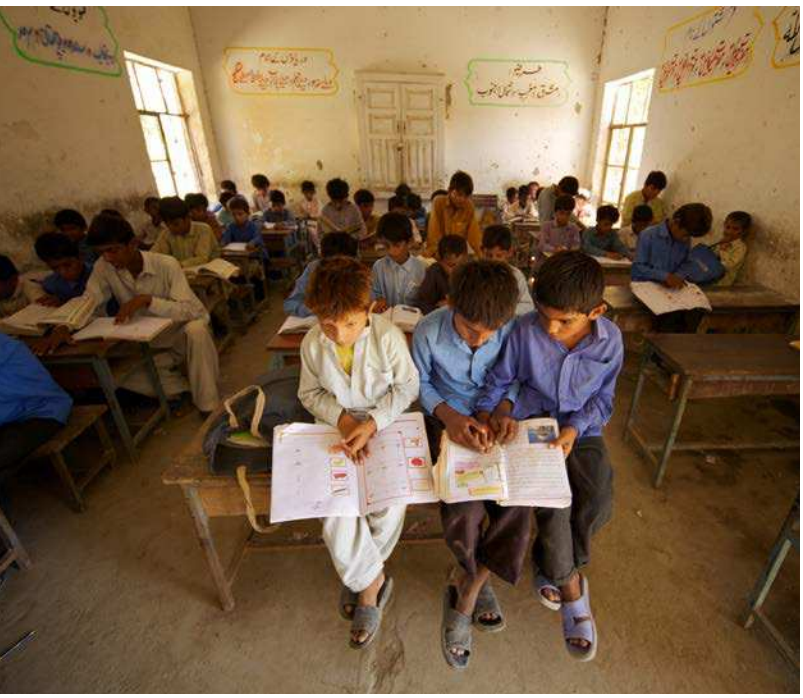


PHOTO CREDIT: Save the Children

TABLE 2.3. PROJECTED CHANGE IN PRIMARY-SCHOOL COMPLETION RATES BY GENDER

Country group	Gender	2010 value, %	Change, percentage points	
			2010–15	2010–20
GPE	Male	74	6.1	10.3
	Female	67	10.0	14.2
	Both	71	8.0	12.3
GPE fragile	Male	66	9.5	14.7
	Female	47	19.6	25.7
	Both	57	14.5	20.1
GPE nonfragile	Male	77	5.3	9.4
	Female	73	7.9	11.7
	Both	75	6.6	10.5
GPE-eligible	Male	73	6.5	12.7
	Female	66	9.3	17.4
	Both	70	7.9	15.0

Sources: Data for 2000–10: Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org. Data for 2011–20: projections of the Education Policy and Data Center, Washington, DC, http://epdc.org/.

D. Lower-secondary completion

In 2010, lower-secondary-school completion rates were below 50 percent in all four groups of countries. However, increased enrollments and completions in primary school, improved transition rates to lower-secondary school, and higher promotion rates within the lower-secondary cycle can be expected to have a large impact on the number of children completing the last grade of lower-secondary school in the next 10 years. The progress expected in the transition rates to lower-secondary school is shown in table 2.4.

Increased enrollments and completions in primary school, improved transition rates to lower-secondary school, and higher promotion rates within the lower-secondary cycle can be expected to have a large impact on the number of children completing the last grade of lower-secondary school in the next 10 years.



PHOTO CREDIT: Aga Luczakowska/Save the Children

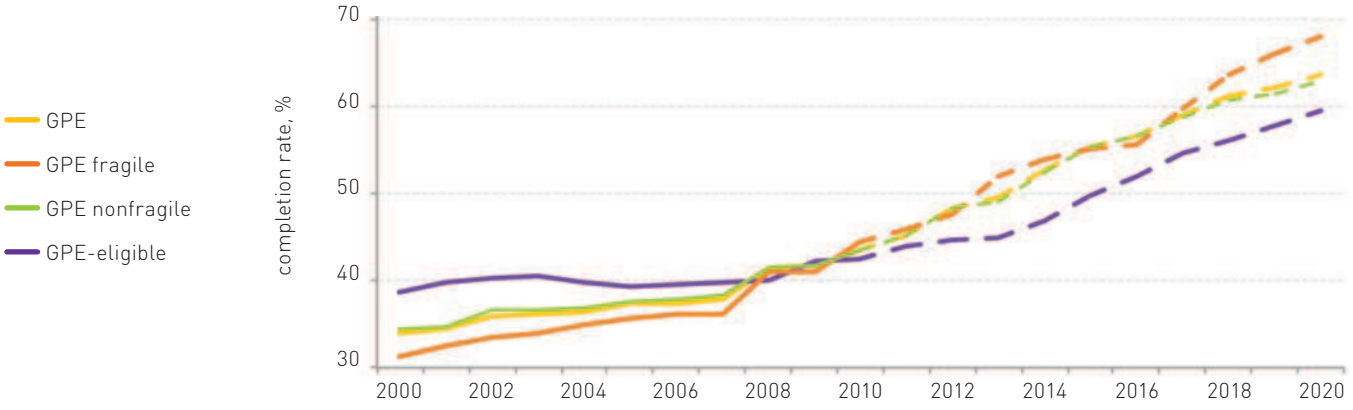
TABLE 2.4. PROJECTED CHANGE IN TRANSITION RATES TO LOWER-SECONDARY SCHOOL BY GENDER

Country group	Gender	2010 value, %	Change, percentage points	
			2010–15	2010–20
GPE	Male	80	6.5	11.1
	Female	78	6.0	10.5
	Both	79	6.2	10.8
GPE fragile	Male	76	7.8	13.4
	Female	73	7.4	13.0
	Both	75	7.6	13.2
GPE nonfragile	Male	80	6.2	10.5
	Female	79	5.7	10.0
	Both	80	5.9	10.3
GPE-eligible	Male	81	5.8	9.8
	Female	81	4.9	8.5
	Both	81	5.4	9.2

Sources: Data for 2000–10: Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org. Data for 2011–20: projections of the Education Policy and Data Center, Washington, DC, http://epdc.org/.

By 2020, average lower-secondary completion rates are expected to be between 59 and 68 percent in all four country groups. The slowest rate of progress may be expected in GPE-eligible countries, where the completion rates in lower-secondary school did not change much in 2000–10 (figure 2.11). The most rapid growth is expected in fragile GPE countries. However, the projections for fragile GPE countries are based on data for a small sample, excluding Afghanistan, Guinea-Bissau, Haiti, Liberia, and Sierra Leone, on which insufficient data are available. It is likely that the inclusion of these countries would result in projections that are much less optimistic for lower-secondary completion in fragile countries.

FIGURE 2.11. LOWER-SECONDARY-SCHOOL COMPLETION RATES, 2000–20



Sources: Data for 2000–10: Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org. Data for 2011–20: projections of the Education Policy and Data Center, Washington, DC, http://epdc.org/.

In many GPE countries in 2010, completion rates among girls in lower-secondary school were still much lower than the corresponding rates among boys (table 2.5). The gender disparity is largest in fragile GPE countries.

In many GPE countries in 2010, completion rates among girls in lower-secondary school were still much lower than the corresponding rates among boys (table 2.5). The gender disparity is largest in fragile GPE countries, where the average difference between the two genders is 12 percentage points. This gender gap is projected to decrease slightly by 2020. In contrast, in GPE-eligible countries, where there was almost no gender disparity in 2010, only slightly more boys than girls are expected to complete lower-secondary school in 2020.

TABLE 2.5. PROJECTED CHANGE IN LOWER-SECONDARY-SCHOOL COMPLETION RATES BY GENDER, 2000–20

Country group	Gender	2010 value, %	Change, percentage points	
			2010–15	2010–20
GPE	Male	47	9.4	17.8
	Female	41	12.8	22.0
	Both	44	11.7	20.2
GPE fragile	Male	50	7.4	18.4
	Female	38	13.9	29.0
	Both	44	10.8	23.7
GPE nonfragile	Male	47	9.8	17.7
	Female	41	12.6	20.5
	Both	43	11.9	19.5
GPE-eligible	Male	43	8.4	19.0
	Female	42	6.2	14.9
	Both	43	7.3	17.0

Sources: Data for 2000–10: Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org. Data for 2011–20: projections of the Education Policy and Data Center, Washington, DC, http://epdc.org/.



PHOTO CREDIT: Save the Children

In most of the outcome indicators over the past decade, the GPE countries outperformed the GPE-eligible countries that have not yet joined the partnership. GPE countries have also improved at a more rapid rate. This suggests that there may be a positive association between partnership status and country performance. More analysis should be carried out to determine if there is a causal relationship. The monitoring and evaluation strategy involves plans to undertake specific studies to understand how GPE processes may be leading to more effective policies and better results.

In most of the outcome indicators over the past decade, the GPE countries outperformed the GPE-eligible countries that have not yet joined the partnership. GPE countries have also improved at a more rapid rate.

Globally, the indicators did not improve as much in GPE countries in fragile situations.

Globally, the indicators did not improve as much in GPE countries in fragile situations as in other GPE countries; the former countries also started out at a lower level. Over the last three years, GPE processes have evolved dramatically to adapt the partnership's support for fragile states. This will help to improve the performance of these countries even if the full impact on indicators such as the primary-school completion rate will take some time.

Country-level averages hide important disparities within countries. It is critical to identify groups that are marginalized within countries to ensure that specific interventions can be undertaken to support these groups. Chapter 3 helps identify these marginalized groups by using household surveys instead of administrative data.



PHOTO CREDIT: Genna Naccache/Save the Children

ENDNOTES

1. Based on the World Bank 2012 definition. See "Fragile and Conflict-Affected Countries," World Bank, Washington, DC, http://go.worldbank.org/BNFOS8V3S0.

2. It takes approximately 15–20 years for a primary education system to affect fully the youth literacy rate.

3. See Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org.

4. Only 29 GPE countries had data for both periods.

5. Data are available for six of the GPE countries that are fragile.

6. C.f. annex 1.C for further details on out of schools assessment.

7. The estimated rates of progress presented in this section are based on the forecasting methodology developed at the Education Policy and Data Center (for example, see Lutz, Goujon, and Wils 2005; Wils 2007), as well as population data of the United Nations (UN 2011).

8. We have estimated the GIRs for coming years using the following equation:

$$GIR_t = GIR_{t-1} + GIR_\Delta, \quad (2.1)$$

where $GIR_\Delta = \alpha + \beta(GIR_{t-1})$. The coefficients calculated based on historical data are $\alpha = 13.83$ and $\beta = -0.12$ for males and $\alpha = 14.10$ and $\beta = -0.13$ for females. Details on the projection methodology are available on the GPE website (http://www.globalpartnership.org/).

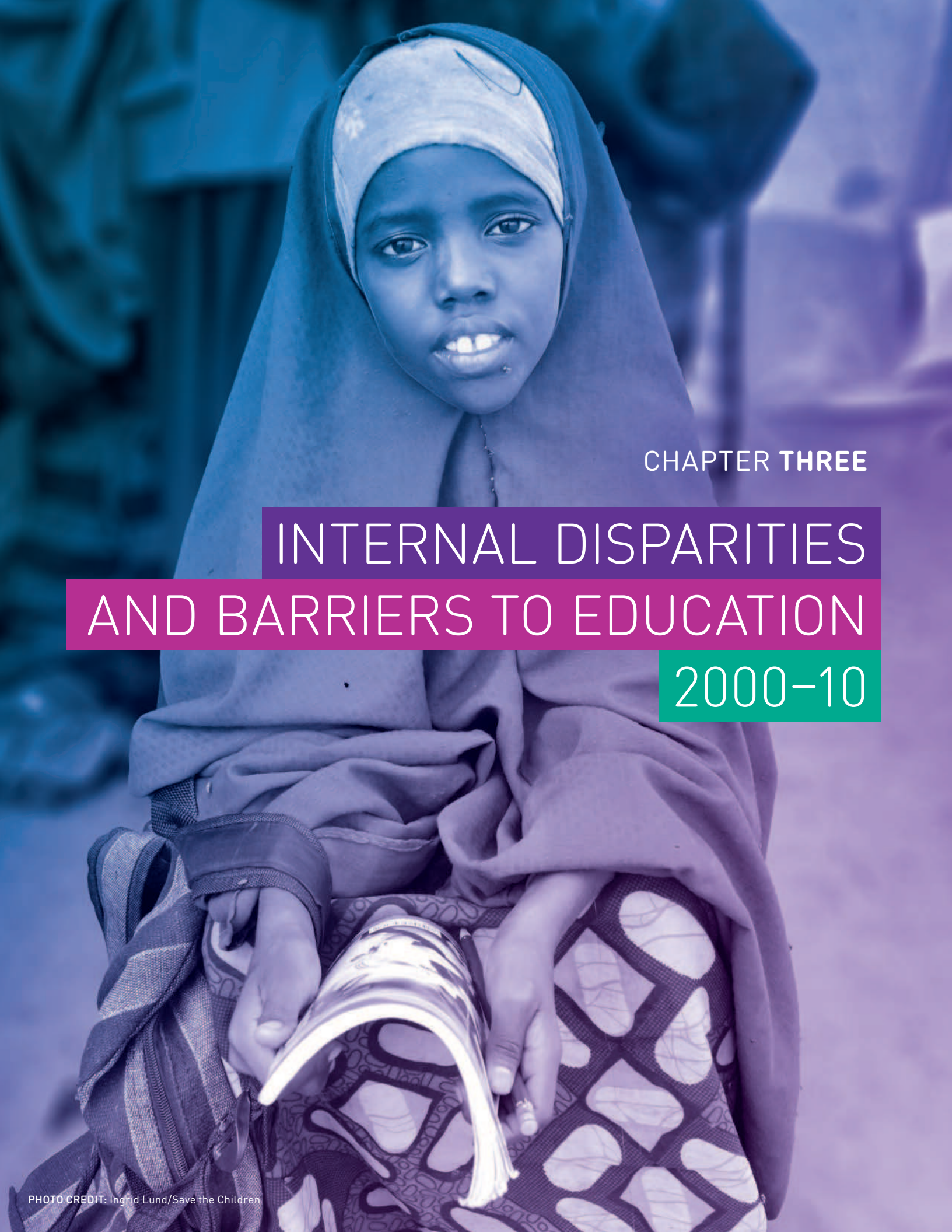
9. We estimate the rate of OOS children based on the ANER, as follows:

$$OOS = 100 - ANER. \quad (2.2)$$

We project the ANER based on the historical trends in ANERs, the GERs, and the slope of the net enrollment rates (NERs) according to the following formula:

$$ANER_t = \alpha + \beta(GER_t) + \beta(t_{year}). \quad (2.3)$$

The coefficients calculated based on historical data are $\alpha = 13.20$, $\beta = 0.62$, and $\beta = 0.65$ for males and $\alpha = 10.22$, $\beta = 0.66$, and $\beta = 0.56$ for females.



CHAPTER **THREE**

INTERNAL DISPARITIES AND BARRIERS TO EDUCATION

2000–10

PHOTO CREDIT: Ingrid Lund/Save the Children

In past decades, there was enormous, unprecedented progress in providing children with education. Unfortunately, millions of children are still out of school, excluded by barriers of poverty, conflict, gender, geography, and culture. This chapter examines this exclusion: What is the situation now? What progress has been made since 2000? The main focus is the 46 developing countries that are currently GPE partners, which are also referred to as GPE countries (see annex 3A).

Where are the persistent pockets of exclusion from education? One way of framing an answer is to conduct a review at the international level: which countries have made the most rapid progress in education; which have stagnated; and where is the progress being sustained (section 2)? Another way is to profile groups of children within countries—by gender, location, income, and other characteristics—to provide a window onto the barriers that might underlie exclusion (section 3). A third way is to profile exclusion by the stage in the education life cycle following the out-of-school (OOS)[1] children approach of the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) and UNICEF: are children out of school because they have never entered education, because they are delaying entry, or because they have dropped out (section 4)? A related issue regards exclusion within school: even if they are enrolled, children could be missing so much school time or learning so little that they are, in fact, not participating (section 5). Finally, one may approach exclusion in education by looking at specific causes as reported by parents, as implied by indirect access indicators such as school coverage locations and costs, or as determined through the level of response to specific interventions (section 6).

Most of the evidence used in this chapter has been taken from household surveys, in particular the Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) and the UNICEF Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS). These surveys provide an internationally consistent framework for measuring disparities in school attendance and absenteeism. Although the survey questionnaires are adjusted to each country context, they are highly standardized, and they are often used in international comparative work on education. For our study, 154 surveys from 1997 to 2011 have been accessed to obtain recent information on 43 of the 46 GPE countries and on 45 non-GPE countries. For 37 of the GPE countries, matching information from the early part of the first decade of the 2000s has been considered. (See annex 3B for a list of the relevant surveys.) For the analysis of country-level progress and indicators on the level of access to education, a second statistical source is the UIS. Important contextual information, especially about relevant programs and success stories, has also been gleaned from the GPE website and GPE country reports, as well as other research.

I. Reaching universal enrollment among children of primary-school age: has there been a slowdown?

The *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010* (UNESCO 2010) sounded the alarm: not only has there been too little progress to reach the target of universal primary education by 2015, but the rate of progress is declining. The report describes the problem of OOS children of primary-school age and the low total net enrollment rate (TNER)[2], two of the most commonly used metrics of the EFA goal of universal primary education.

Annual reductions in the share of OOS children and enrollment increases were greater in the first half of the last decade than in the second half.

This section examines the relevant findings more closely, focusing on OOS children and the TNER.

Globally, in 2000, there were 102 million children of primary-school age who were out of school. By 2005, the number had declined to 77 million, but, from 2005 to 2009, the decrease was only to 67 million.[3] The global share of children of primary-school age in school (TNER), meanwhile, increased from 84.5 to 88.2 percent in 2000–05 and then to 89.7 percent in 2009. Clearly, annual reductions in the share of OOS children and enrollment increases were greater in the first half of the last decade than in the second half.

Because of such numbers, there is an urgent need to discover what underlies the deceleration.

Because of such numbers, there is an urgent need to discover what underlies the deceleration and, in particular, whether the commitment to education has faltered. A small disaggregation exercise reveals some useful insights and also emphasizes the rapid progress in GPE developing-country partners compared with the rest of the world (table 3.1).



PHOTO CREDIT: Guy Calaf/Save the Children

TABLE 3.1. OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN OF PRIMARY-SCHOOL AGE AND TNERs, SELECTED COUNTRIES AND REGIONS, 2000–09

Indicator	World	India	Nigeria	World, less India, Nigeria	GPE developing-country partners
TNER, %					
2000	84.5	84.8	64.5	87.6	60.0
2005	88.2	94.6	67.2	90.4	71.6
2009	89.7	97.6a	62.1b	91.5 b	82.7
average annual increase					
2000–05	0.75	0.47	0.77	0.42	2.32
2000–09+	0.39	0.26	0.52	0.39	2.78
OOS children of primary-school age, millions					
2000	102	18	7	77	28
2005	77	7	7	63	21
2009+	67	2	9	56	14
average annual change, millions					
2000–05	5.0	2.3	0	2.7	1.2
2005–09+	2.5	1.1	–0.5	1.9	1.8

Source: Data and computations based on Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org.

Note: 2009+ TNER values for India and Nigeria are based on one- and two-year projections of the TNER. The results still hold if the shorter observed intervals for India (2005–08) and Nigeria (2005–07) are used.

a. 2008. b.2007.

Globally, the slowdown in the growth rate of the TNER is caused almost entirely by two countries: India and Nigeria.

Globally, the slowdown in the growth rate of the TNER is caused almost entirely by two countries: India and Nigeria. Overall, the annual growth rate of the TNER slowed from 0.7 percentage points in 2000–05 to 0.4 points in 2005–09 (table 3.1, data rows 4 and 5), but, without India and Nigeria, the annual TNER growth rate was almost constant at 0.4 percentage points during both observation periods. Even with this almost constant pace of TNER growth, the annual average reduction in the number of OOS children slowed from 2.7 million in 2000–05 to 1.9 million in 2005–09 (table 3.1, final two data rows). Given that the TNER was rising at a relatively constant pace, the deceleration must be almost entirely caused by population growth. In contrast to the rest of the world, the 28 GPE partner countries on which there are UIS data show rapid and accelerating TNER growth and accelerating declines in the number of OOS children (table 3.1, last column).

In contrast to the rest of the world, the 28 GPE partner countries show rapid and accelerating TNER growth and accelerating declines in the number of OOS children.

India accounted for half the global drop in the number of OOS children in 2000–05 and in 2005–09. Through the government's national program Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (Education for All Movement), India reduced the number of OOS children from 18 million in 2000 to 7 million in 2005 and then to 2 million in 2009. It

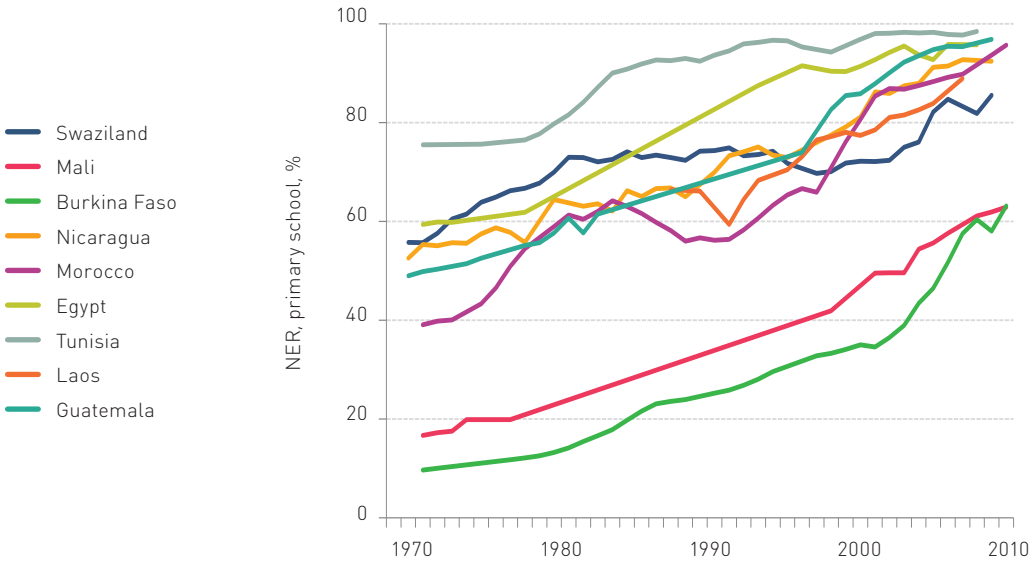
is likely that reducing the number from 18 million to 7 million was easier than making progress from 7 million toward zero. This pattern is discussed in more detail below.

Population growth is continually putting upward pressure on the number of OOS children.

Population growth is continually putting upward pressure on the number of OOS children. In some countries where enrollment has grown sluggishly, this growth has been somewhat overtaken by population growth, and the number of OOS children has expanded. This has happened in Côte d'Ivoire (a GPE country) and Iraq. Nigeria is the archetypal case, and, because Nigeria has such a large population, results there have a heavy impact on the totals. In Nigeria, enrollment has remained fairly constant since 2000 while the population of school age has not. Thus, the number of OOS children grew from 6.7 million in 2005 to 9.1 million by 2009.

Usually, the enrollment growth rate slows as the number of enrollments rises, especially once the net enrollment rate (NER)[4] reaches 90, which is, globally, the situation now. From 2000 to 2010, annual average NER growth was 0.1 percentage points lower for every percentage point gain in the NER.[5] Figure 3.1 shows the 40-year TNER path for nine countries and highlights the deceleration if the NER is over 90.[6] In general, an expectation of a linear rise in improvement is therefore unrealistic.

FIGURE 3.1. FORTY-YEAR NER GROWTH PATH, NINE DEVELOPING COUNTRIES



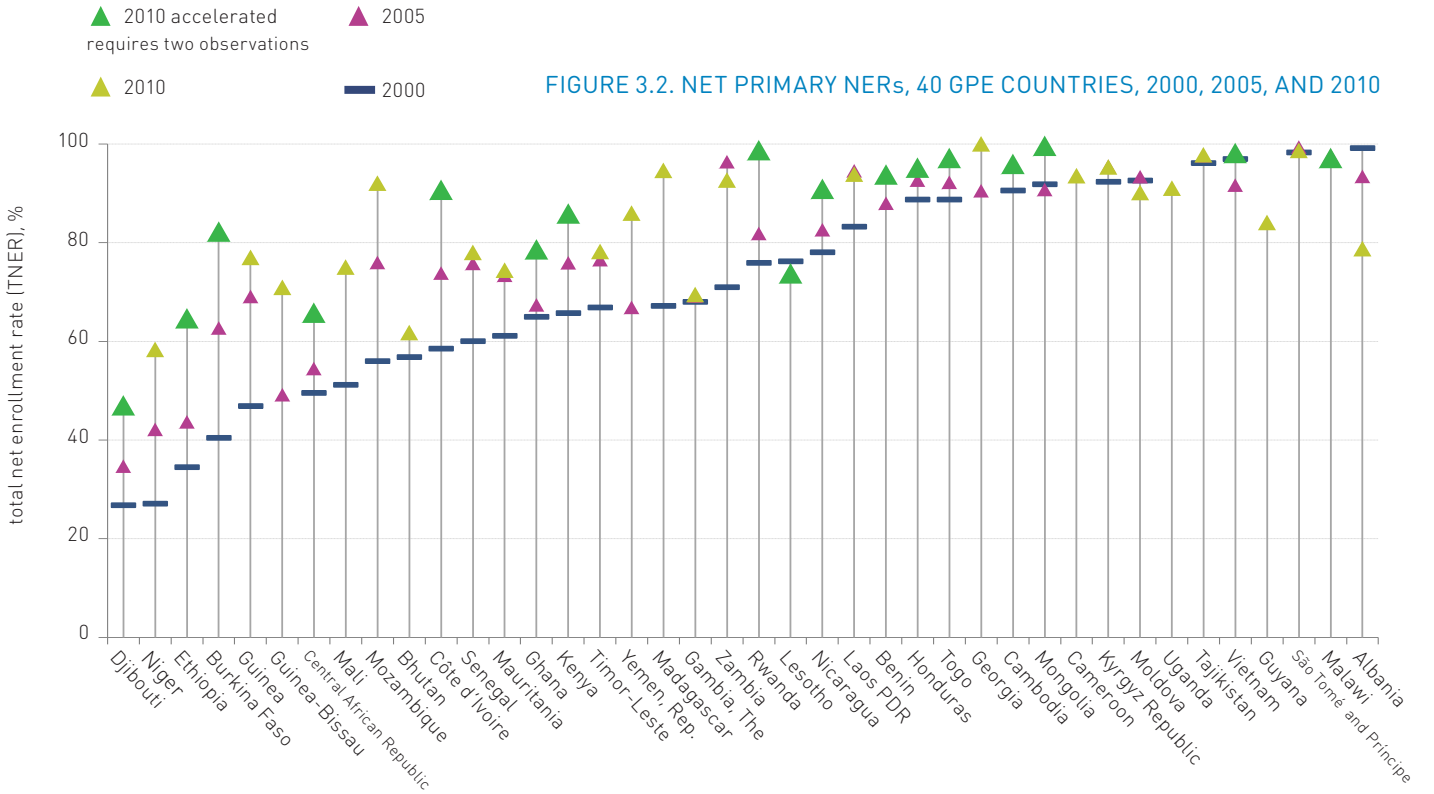
Source: Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org.

Although it is undeniable that, globally, the decline in the number of OOS children has slowed, it would be unfair to attribute this to a loss of commitment because, as noted, the slowdown is following the expected curve; furthermore, the phenomenon is largely attributable to two countries and to population growth. Nonetheless, to keep the decline of OOS children on a steady pace or to shift the curve, an increase in commitment is needed. This commitment can be found among a majority of GPE countries.

The majority of GPE countries were on a more rapid enrollment growth track in 2005–09 than in 2000–05.

The majority of GPE countries were on a more rapid enrollment growth track in 2005–09 than in 2000–05. Table 3.1 shows that, as a group, the GPE countries outperformed the rest of the world. In part, this was because many GPE countries have low enrollment rates, and more rapid growth is therefore more likely. Figure 3.2 shows the TNERs in 40 GPE countries in 2000, 2005, and 2010 (or the closest years). It is clear from the figure that, in general, the lower the starting point, the more progress countries have made, a finding that is consistent with an S-shaped path of growth. Nonetheless, of the 28 GPE countries about which a comparison of enrollment growth trends in the first half and the second half of the period 2000–10 can be made, 16 were on a more rapid growth path during the latter years.[7] These countries, marked with dark green triangles in the figure, include Bhutan, Burkina Faso, Djibouti, Ethiopia, Ghana, Mali, and Rwanda. Other GPE countries that made rapid progress include Guinea-Bissau, Madagascar, Mozambique, and Niger. The annual percentage point gains in the TNER increased in half the GPE countries, as did the average annual reductions in the number of OOS children.

FIGURE 3.2. NET PRIMARY NERs, 40 GPE COUNTRIES, 2000, 2005, AND 2010



Source: Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org.

II. Disparities in school attendance

Universal primary and secondary education is an equity challenge.

To gauge disparities, studies often rely on household surveys that provide information about children's backgrounds. Relevant household surveys report attendance (the child went to school) as opposed to enrollment (the child registered in school) (see section 1). The two measures often produce somewhat different numbers, although the general picture, by country, is usually the same (for example, see FASAF et al. 2004; Stukel and Feroz-Zada 2010; EPDC 2007).

Among children in almost all countries, even countries with low national average attendance rates, there are at least some subgroups with high attendance rates, typically, children in higher-income urban households. In 9 of 10 GPE countries, more than 80 percent of the children of primary-school age in high-income urban households attend school, and, in half the countries, the rate is above 90 percent.[8] Where school attendance is below 100 percent, this is because particular subgroups are excluded from education.[9] Across countries, a relatively consistent exclusion pattern emerges, including similar background characteristics correlated to lower attendance (Filmer 2008; Ingram et al. 2006, 2007; UIS and UNICEF 2005; UNESCO 2010, 2011). These characteristics or dimensions of exclusion are as follows:

- Poverty
- Female gender (or, rarely, male gender)
- Disability
- Rural location
- Orphan status
- Nomadism
- Living in conflict-affected areas

Across countries, a relatively consistent exclusion pattern emerges, including similar background characteristics correlated to lower attendance: poverty, female gender (or, rarely, male gender), disability, rural location, orphan status, nomadism, or living in conflict-affected areas.

The *2011 EFA Global Monitoring Report* (UNESCO 2011) provides effective visual evidence that, for children whose profile includes more than one dimension of exclusion, the effects are cumulative. An example of such cumulative exclusion is offered by Ethiopia, a GPE partner country. According to the 2005 DHS survey, the net rural primary attendance rate was 40 percent. However, the attendance rate among rural children of primary-school age who were also in households in the poorest income quintile was 26 percent. Among the poorest were rural children who were living in Afar Regional State, which has a large nomad population: the attendance rate was only 7 percent among these children, and, among the girls in this group, the rate was only 3 percent.

Different aspects of a child's profile can also balance each other out. For example, although the attendance rate among rural children of primary-school age in Ethiopia is only 40 percent, among rural children who are in households in the highest income quintile, it is 58 percent, much higher than the rate among urban

children in households in the poorest quintile; the attendance rate among the latter is only 33 percent.

The next subsection shows attendance differentials along each exclusion dimension separately. Among the many children whose profiles include several exclusion dimensions, the attendance rates will be lower than the rates shown. Considering each dimension independently is nonetheless a useful first pass at assessing important barriers to schooling. In the next subsection and in subsequent subsections, the measure used is the gross attendance rate (GAR), but the insights are the same if net primary attendance ratios are used (see annex 3C).[10]

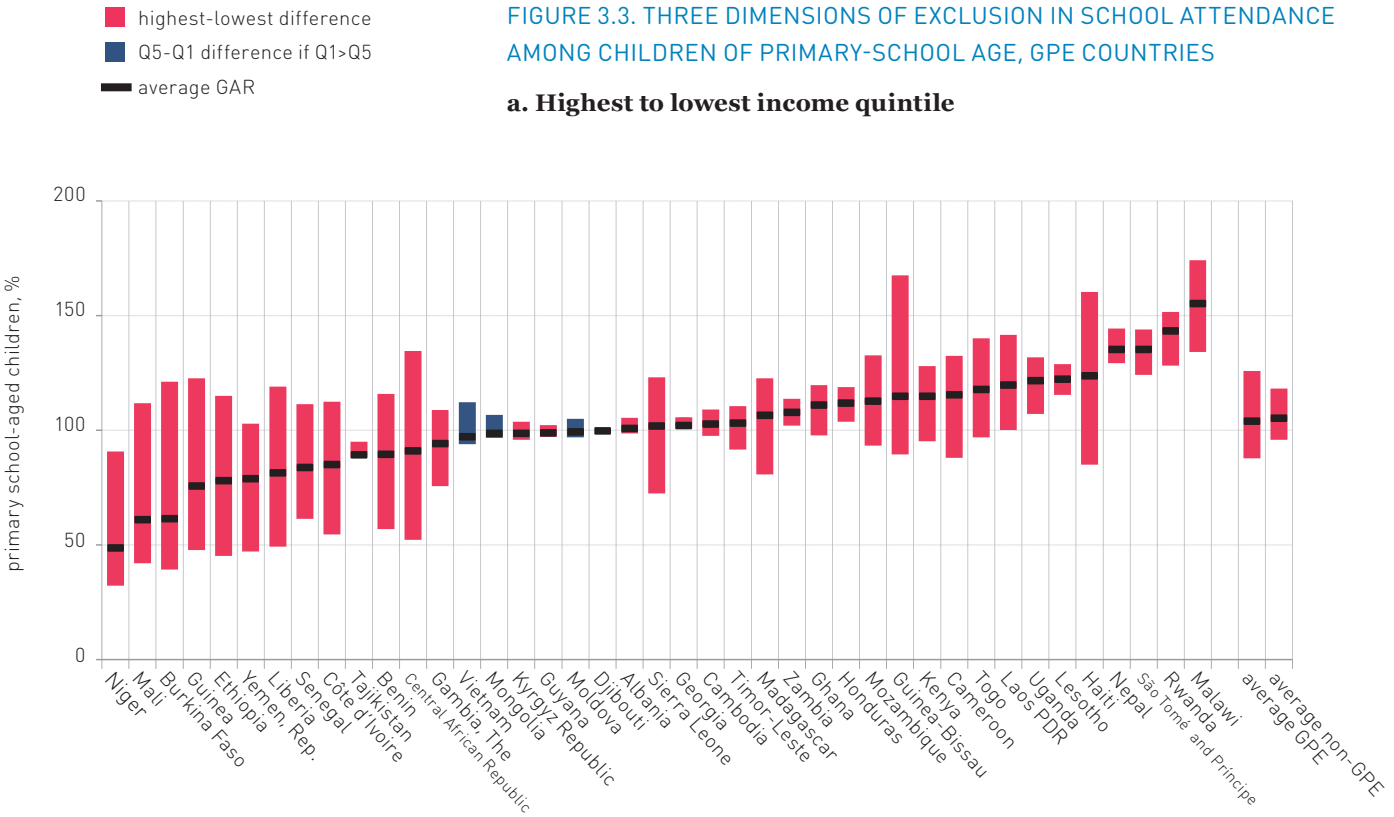
A. Disparities and inequality, 2005–10

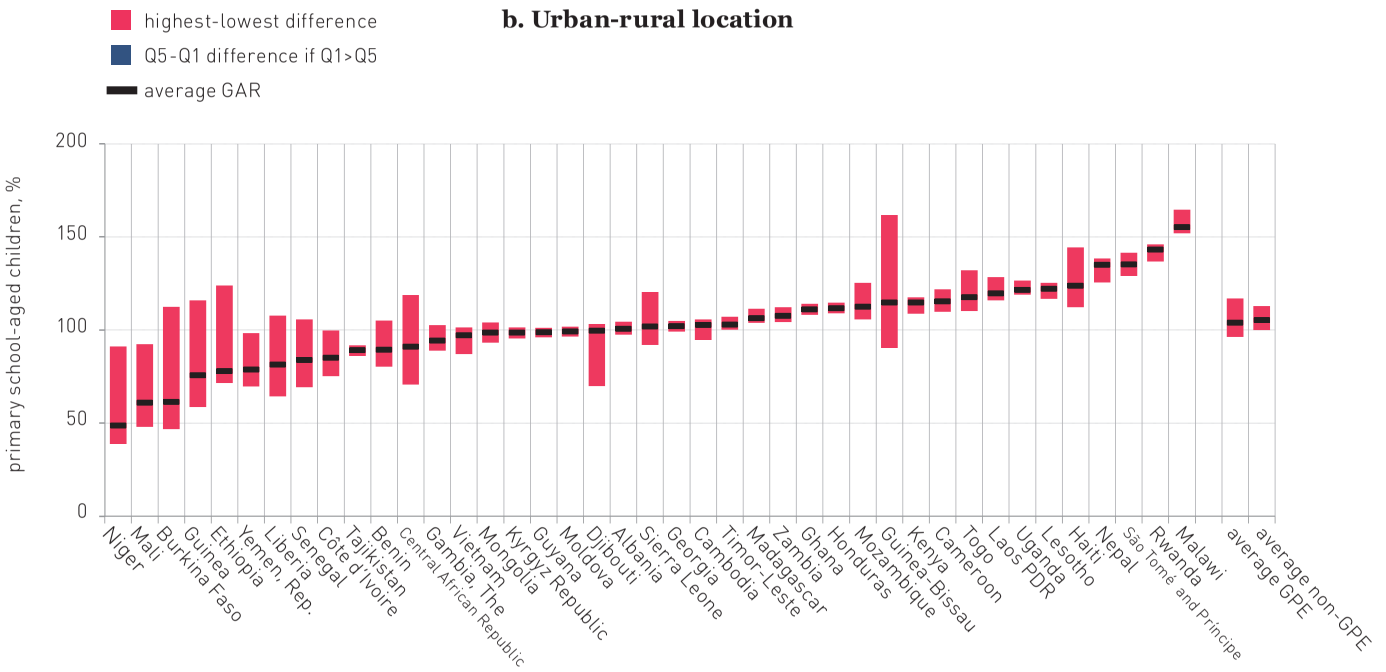
Poverty is now the most important barrier to school attendance.

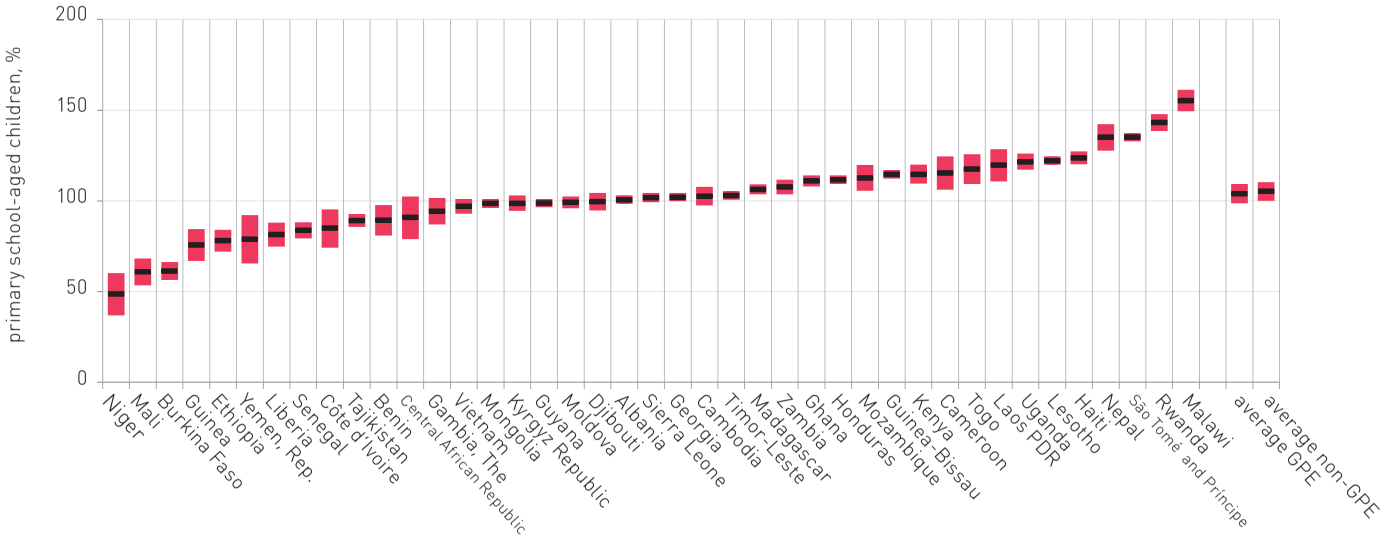
Three of the most frequently considered dimensions of exclusion are poverty, rural location, and gender. Figure 3.3 shows the level of inequality in GARs in GPE countries by household income quintiles (chart a), urban-rural location (chart b), and gender (chart c), using the most recent DHS or MICS surveys (2005–10).[11]

FIGURE 3.3. THREE DIMENSIONS OF EXCLUSION IN SCHOOL ATTENDANCE AMONG CHILDREN OF PRIMARY-SCHOOL AGE, GPE COUNTRIES

a. Highest to lowest income quintile







Source: Based on data of the Deprivation and Marginalization (database), Global Monitoring Report, United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (accessed February 16, 2012), http://www.unesco.org/new/fileadmin/MULTIMEDIA/HQ/ED/GMR/html/dme-3.html.

Note: The figure shows average national GARs among children of primary-school age (black dashes) and the difference between the highest and lowest values of attendance by lowest-highest household income quintiles, urban-rural location, and gender, respectively (colored bars).

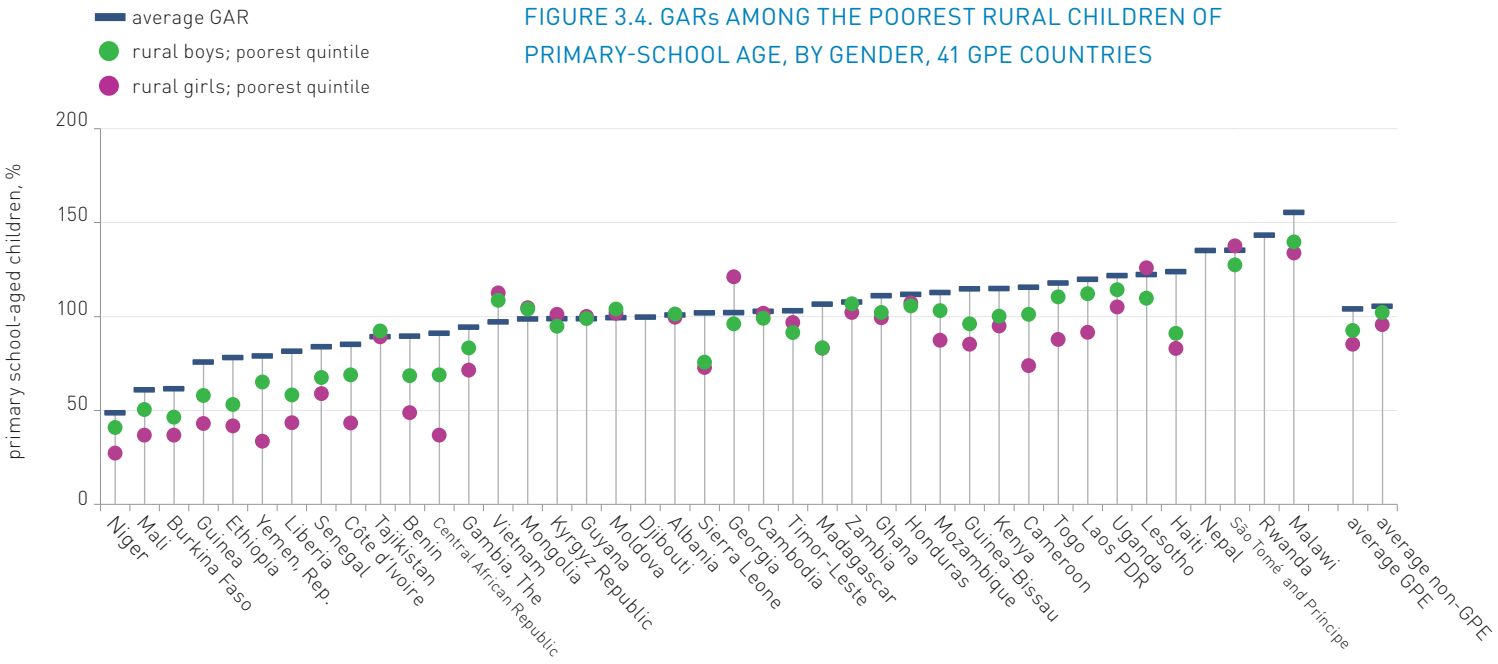
It is clear from figure 3.3 that the inequalities are greatest by household income.[12] The gross attendance differentials between children in households in the top income quintile and children in households in the bottom quintile are more than 60 percentage points in Niger, Mali, and Burkina Faso (in the order shown in the figure). Across the board, countries with low national average attendance rates exhibit large education inequality based on income. Some countries with high GARs also show large income differentials, for example, Guinea-Bissau and Haiti. In the small group of countries with GARs at around 100 (Albania, Guyana, the Kyrgyz Republic, Moldova, Mongolia, and Vietnam), children in households in the poorest quintile show higher gross attendance (the blue bars in the figure); perhaps they progress through primary school with high repetition rates.

The disparities are smaller according to urban-rural location than according to income, but are nonetheless substantial in, for example, Liberia, Niger, Ethiopia, Burkina Faso, Guinea, Ethiopia, and Guinea-Bissau (listed in the order of the figure). A portion of the low rural attendance rates is surely caused by the concentration of poverty in these areas, but may also be caused by a lack of access: the coverage of schools is too thin, and many rural children cannot reach the closest school. A recent study in Afghanistan found that attendance rates in rural areas fall by 16 percent for every mile the children must travel to school (Burde and Linden 2009).

Gender parity is high compared with other inequality measures except among the rural poor and other excluded groups, where girls are still disadvantaged. An important policy decision revolves around the issue of whether to focus on these excluded groups as a whole or only on the girls.

The disparities by gender are relatively small in most GPE countries: 11 countries on which data are available show disparities in excess of 10 percentage points in GARs (Benin, Cameroon, the Central African Republic, Côte d'Ivoire, The Gambia, Guinea, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Mali, Niger, Togo, and the Republic of Yemen).[13] According to administrative data, gross enrollment disparities by gender are also high in Afghanistan (114 for boys versus 79 for girls in 2010). The narrowing in disparities in primary-school GARs by gender is relatively new: data from the 1970s and 1980s show that attendance differentials by gender were much larger then.[14] The new and relatively high level of gender parity may well be the successful outcome of the many programs and policies that have been directed at encouraging girls to go to school and should be celebrated. The success is not complete. There are still countries where the gender parity index is not sufficiently close to 1. Moreover, within countries, there may be girls in particular population groups who experience significant exclusion: recall the attendance of only 3 percent among poor, rural nomad girls in Afar Regional State, Ethiopia (see above), which is less than one-third the rate among the boys there (11 percent). Figure 3.4 shows GARs for the poorest rural children according to gender. Within this group, the gender disparities are large in the Central African Republic, Côte d'Ivoire, and the Republic of Yemen. Yet, in these same countries, the attendance rates among poor rural boys are also low.

FIGURE 3.4. GARs AMONG THE POOREST RURAL CHILDREN OF PRIMARY-SCHOOL AGE, BY GENDER, 41 GPE COUNTRIES



Source: Data of DHS and MICS surveys.

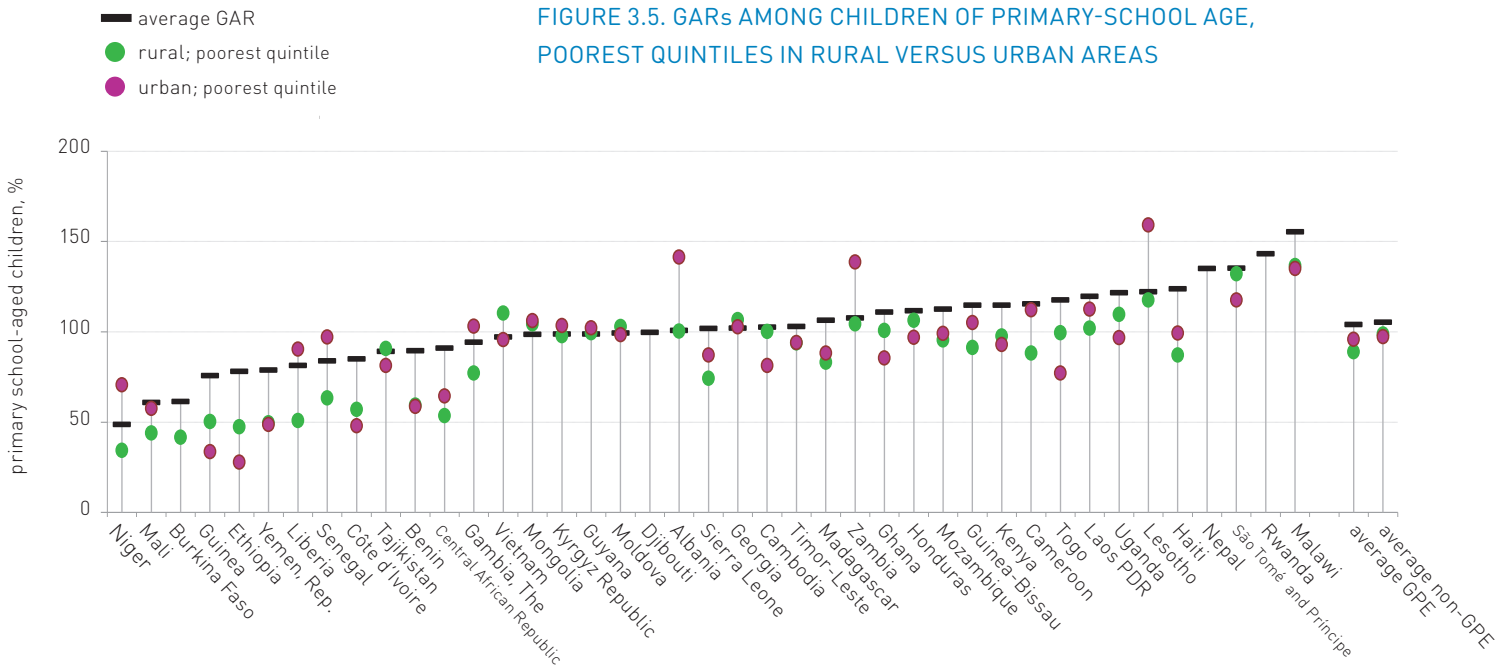
Poor urban households account for a rapidly growing share of deprived and excluded children.

Urban attendance rates are not as high as they could be because of a rapidly growing group of excluded children: the urban poor, living in the sprawling slums of cities in developing countries. Figure 3.5 shows GARs among the poorest children in urban areas (pink dots) and in rural areas (green dots). In a number of GPE countries, the attendance rates among the urban poor are lower than the corresponding rates among the rural poor. This is the case in Cambodia, Côte d'Ivoire, Ethiopia, Ghana, Guinea, and Togo. This is of particular concern because, over the next decades, according to United Nations population projections, "the urban areas of the world are expected to absorb all the population growth… , while at the same time drawing in some of the rural population" (UN 2010, 1). In Sub-Saharan Africa, where most of the GPE countries are located, the urban population is projected to increase by 40 percent, from 384 million in 2010 to 537 million in 2020. In contrast, the rural population is projected to increase by only 15 percent, from 542 million to 624 million (UN 2010). It is a challenge for countries to track these continuously growing populations and the needs of the urban poor to provide sufficient schools.



PHOTO CREDIT: Rebecca Janes/Save the Children

FIGURE 3.5. GARs AMONG CHILDREN OF PRIMARY-SCHOOL AGE, POOREST QUINTILES IN RURAL VERSUS URBAN AREAS



Source: Data of DHS and MICS surveys.

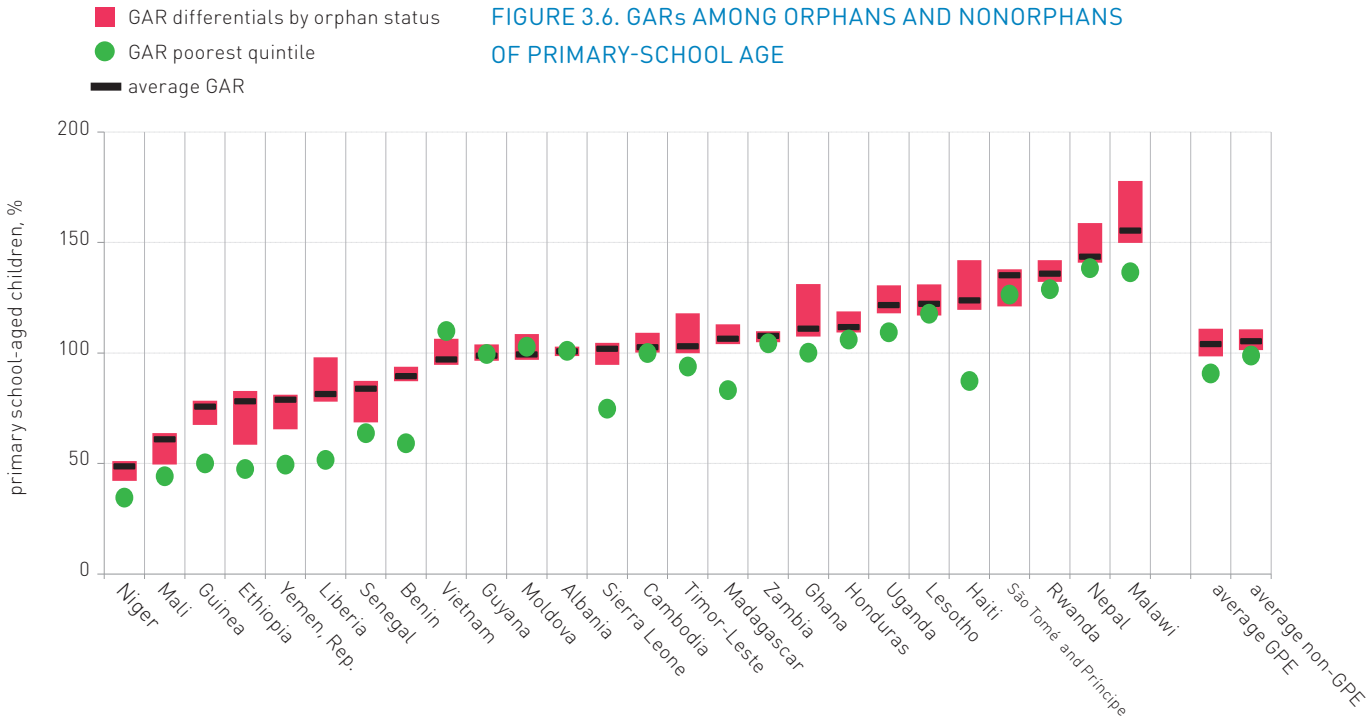
Specific groups face special barriers, particularly people with disabilities and nomads.

Other dimensions of exclusion include orphan status, disability, and nomadic life. Figure 3.6 shows the disparities in gross attendance among orphans[15] and nonorphans of primary-school age. In the countries on which data are available, orphans do show somewhat lower attendance rates, but the exclusion factor is relatively small and tends to be mostly related to income, that is, orphans who live in households with access to similar levels of income tend to attend school about as often as nonorphans.



PHOTO CREDIT: Natasha Graham/Global Partnership for Education

FIGURE 3.6. GARs AMONG ORPHANS AND NONORPHANS OF PRIMARY-SCHOOL AGE

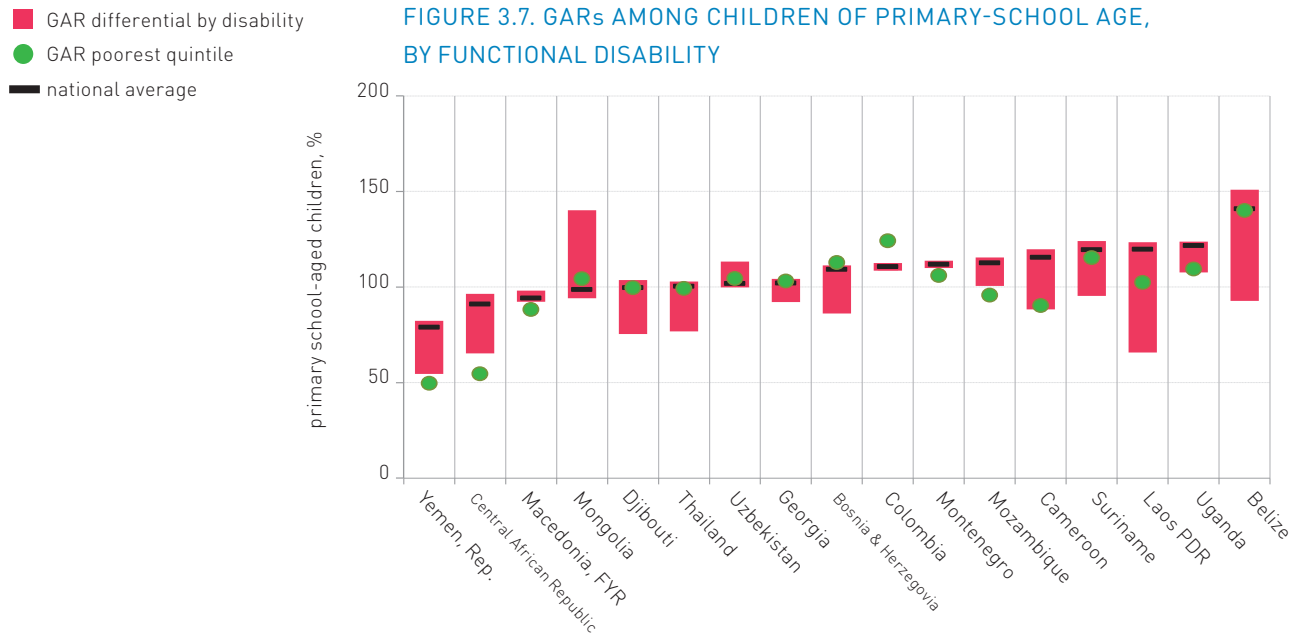


Source: Data of DHS and MICS surveys.

Filmer (2008), who pioneered the study of inequality using a mix of household surveys, found that disability was a strong exclusion factor, although it affects only small groups of children. We can now add 17 countries to his compilation by using DHS and MICS surveys post-2005. The disability rates in these surveys are measured based on questions on specific activities in daily living such as seeing, hearing, walking, and concentrating, as recommended by Mont (2007). Using these measures, we find that the disability rates in our set of 17 surveys ranges from 1 to 18 percent; the variation suggests that milder forms of disability are sometimes also being reported (Mont 2007).

Figure 3.7 shows the attendance rates among disabled children of primary-school age (red bars) and, for comparison, the attendance rates among children of the same age in the poorest households (green dots). In many of the countries, children with disabilities show attendance rates comparable with those of the poorest children although not all the children with disabilities are poor.

FIGURE 3.7. GARs AMONG CHILDREN OF PRIMARY-SCHOOL AGE, BY FUNCTIONAL DISABILITY



Source: Data of DHS and MICS surveys, 2005–10.

BOX 3.1. ACCESS TO EYE CARE TO CHILDREN IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES: CAMBODIA

As part of Cambodian Ministry of Education Youth and Sport's strong commitment to provide quality education for all Cambodian children, the Government welcomed the Refractive Error Research Program – or the eye glasses project as we informally call it in GPE. This program is led by a partnership of organizations specializing in eye health, child development, education and health that have come together to conduct a pilot study which aims to examine the acceptability, usability, wearability and implementation of eye glasses in Cambodia. The program is being guided by technical advice from a consortium of 11 agencies and individuals across the spectrum of eye health, including representatives of low-income countries.

The research objectives of this study are:

1. How does acceptability, 'wearability' and durability of adjustable spectacles compare with that of ready-made spectacles among children?
2. What are the key operational factors, including costs associated with the implementation of eye health service interventions and how do adjustable spectacles compare with ready-made spectacles in that context.

As the adjustable spectacles for children were not available (but expect to be later in 2012) a decision was made to conduct research to assess the proportion of children with uncorrected refractive error who could obtain good vision with ready-made spectacles.

The initial study will feed in to operational development and intervention targeting for a larger scale multi-country study into how refractive error can be diagnosed and corrected on-site through both ready-made spectacles and other solutions which is to be conducted in 2012-2014. The current partners for the research program are the Global Partnership for Education, The Partnership for Child Development, Sightsavers and the World Bank."

Cambodia is the first GPE country taking part in this important work – in June 2012 13,175 children aged 11-15 were screened in 56 schools. Children who are not in school, but living in these communities, were also invited to be screened and provided with eye glasses. For most of these children it was their first screening, and first pair of glasses to the children who need them. A specially designed training program for teachers included awareness and education about correction of vision so that in areas where few adults or children wear glasses support can be given to those children who will be prescribed glasses.



PHOTO CREDIT: Natasha Graham/Global Partnership for Education

Teachers from 56 schools were trained to test vision to assess children who needed to be referred for refraction or an eye exam. Testing was conducted in school playgrounds or under shelter outside classrooms. Teachers found the format of the test easy to use and could quickly obtain results. As expected, most children had vision within the normal range. The most common cause of vision impairment was uncorrected refractive error. Sixteen children could not have vision corrected with glasses, so they were referred to the eye clinic. Records of all children who were referred by teachers and seen by refractionists were copies so that the schools had copies to share with parents.

In Siem Reap town, 32 children who needed glasses to correct impaired vision already had glasses, another 16 children who had previously obtained glasses did not have them at school. Of the 44 children who needed glasses, 31 could have their vision corrected with ready-made glasses.

In November 2012, schools where children have been prescribed glasses will be visited to check whether children still have their glasses, whether they are using the glasses, and to check the condition of the prescribed glasses. The cost of the ready-made glasses ranged from US$1 to US$3. The reading glasses for teachers were US$1 and the cost of the complete vision test kit was US$9.

Nomad children are a special group. They are often difficult to reach. Because of their lifestyle, they are not able to attend a permanently situated school for the entire school year, and the typical school curriculum may not be relevant to their culture and knowledge needs (Krätli 2001). Recognizing this problem, many countries have instituted roaming schools and adapted curricula for these children and other children who are similarly inaccessible. Examples are Bangladesh (Rivers 2010); Ethiopia, Tanzania, and Uganda (Oxfam 2005); Nigeria (Aderinoye, Ojokheta, and Olojede 2007); and Sudan (Dood 2011). Mongolia has a long tradition of maintaining boarding schools for nomad children that ensured full attendance during the socialist era, although the system has come under pressure in the market economy (Steiner-Khamsi and Stolpe 2005; Reddy 2010).

There are three types of nomads: pastoralists (the largest group), hunter-gatherers, and, together, traders and migrant workers. These nomads may coexist within individual nomad populations. All these groups have been under pressure, and, in many countries, it is likely their numbers have declined. The precise number of nomads is not known. A commonly cited estimate for the total number in the world is 30 to 40 million. This number is based on outdated data (UNESCO 1989). The number of nomads in 2012 may actually be quite different.

GARs are often lower among nomad children than among the children from the poorest households. A few countries have been able to provide schooling for nomad children by making curricula meaningful and schools accessible for these groups.

In any case, taking the 30 to 40 million as accurate and estimating that about 14 percent are children of primary-school age (the share in Sub-Saharan Africa), we arrive at 4 to 6 million children of primary-school age who are living in nomad families. Our net attendance estimates for nomads range from 11 percent (Ethiopia) to 96 percent (Mongolia), with an average of 40 percent. Applying this average to our estimate of 4 to 6 million nomad children of primary-school age, we conclude there may be 2 to 3 million nomad OOS children in the world, less than 5 percent of the total OOS population. This contrasts with Oxfam's estimate (2005) that 15–25 percent of the OOS population is accounted for by nomad children.[16]

To find the attendance rates among nomads, nomad groups must first be identified in the household surveys. Most household surveys do not have questions to identify nomads; to do so in each country, we conducted a web search for the names of languages or ethnic groups commonly associated with nomadism, and we compared these findings with a variable associated with an ethnic group or a language in the surveys. We then made a selection to define a (new) identifier, nomad, in the surveys. We included only those ethnic or language groups living in rural areas in the group of nomads. Table 3.2 outlines our findings.

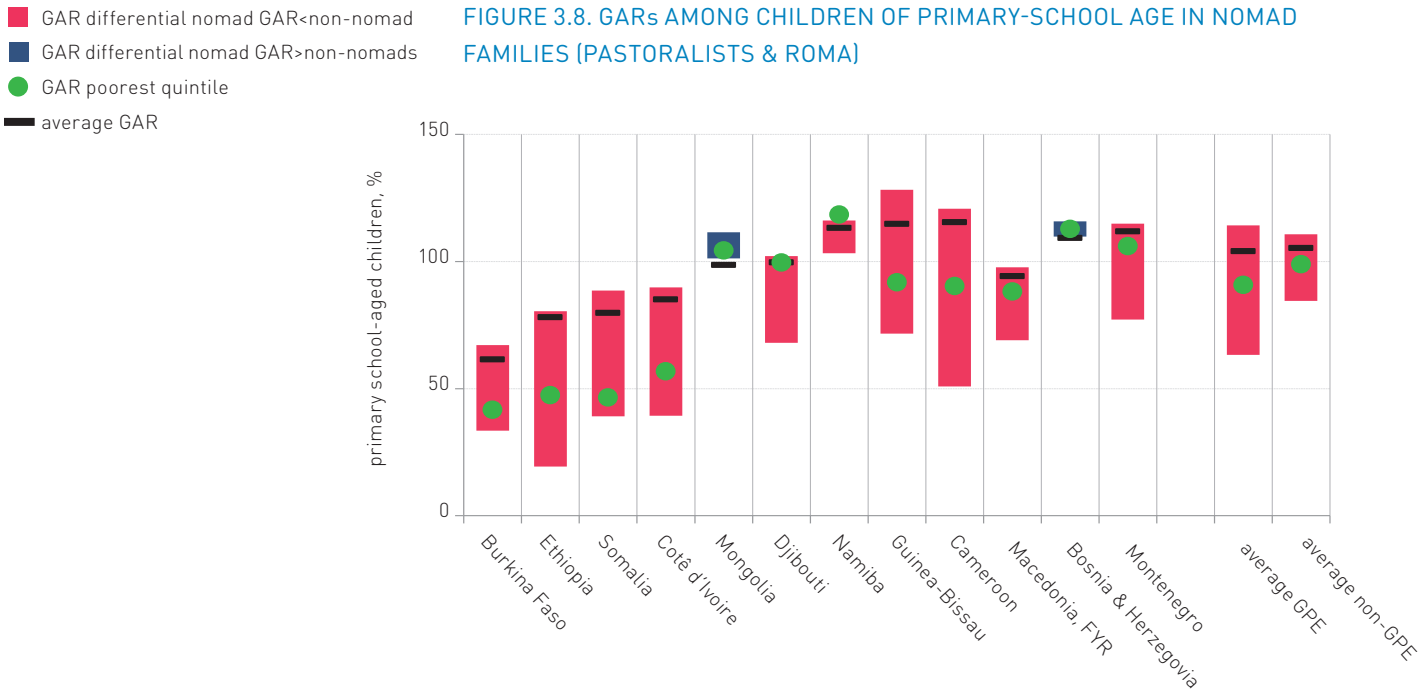
TABLE 3.2. NOMADS IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

Country	Nomadic groups	Country	Nomadic groups
Burkina Faso	Rural Fulani and Tuareg	**Mauritania**	Rural residents and living in tents (no ethnic groups defined)
Bosnia and Herzegovina	Roma	**Macedonia, FYR**	Roma
Cameroon	Rural Choa, Peulh, Haussa	**Mongolia**	Rural people living in yurts (tents)
Côte d'Ivoire	Rural Senoufo people	**Montenegro**	Roma
Djibouti	Rural Afar people	**Namibia**	Rural Himba, San, and others
Ethiopia	People living in rural areas of Afar Regional State	**Somalia**	Nomads are listed in the data set; no ethnic identifier is given
Guinea-Bissau	Rural Fula		

Source: Based on web searches and data of DHS and MICS surveys, 2005–10.

Figure 3.8 shows the GARs among children in nomad families using these definitions. For comparison, the attendance rates of the poorest quintiles are also shown (green dots). It is apparent that the attendance rates of children in nomad families are often even lower than the rates among children in the poorest households.

FIGURE 3.8. GARs AMONG CHILDREN OF PRIMARY-SCHOOL AGE IN NOMAD FAMILIES (PASTORALISTS & ROMA)



Source: Data of DHS and MICS surveys, 2005–10.

The disadvantages experienced by children in nomad families are quite pronounced in most of these countries. Attendance rates among Roma children in Bosnia and Herzegovina and in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia are much lower than the average. The most highly disadvantaged are the children of pastoralists in certain countries in Africa, including Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Côte d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Ethiopia, and Somalia, where school access barriers and low demand for school may both contribute to the low attendance rates. However, the problems in education faced by these children are not insoluble. Children among the Himba and San in Namibia and children in nomad families in Mongolia show relatively high GARs. Successful programs in these countries may offer useful guidelines for other countries in areas such as the application of flexible school schedules, adapted curricula, and the roaming school concept (box 3.2).

BOX 3.2. A GPE-SPONSORED PROGRAM: BRINGING EDUCATION TO MONGOLIA'S REMOTE REGIONS

During the socialist era, the children of nomads attended boarding schools near their parents. This system has come under pressure in the market economy. For many children in Mongolia's remote rural areas, herding activities and the nomad lifestyle offer few opportunities for education. GPE grants totaling US$29.4 million are helping finance basic education programs in Mongolia's remote regions. This funding, together with other donor grants, has contributed to the financing of 100 gers (mobile schools conducted in yurts) in 21 rural provinces. The gers operate eight hours a day during the summer months and move to a new location every 45 days. The gers also function as early childhood development centers serving 5- and 6-year-olds. (Until 2008, mandatory basic education began at age 7; now, it begins at age 6.) The support of GPE partners is geared toward improving the quality of education, acquiring better school equipment, and extending the primary-school cycle by one year.

Source: "Success Stories," GPE, http://www.globalpartnership.org/results/success-stories/.

B. Out-of-school children in secondary school



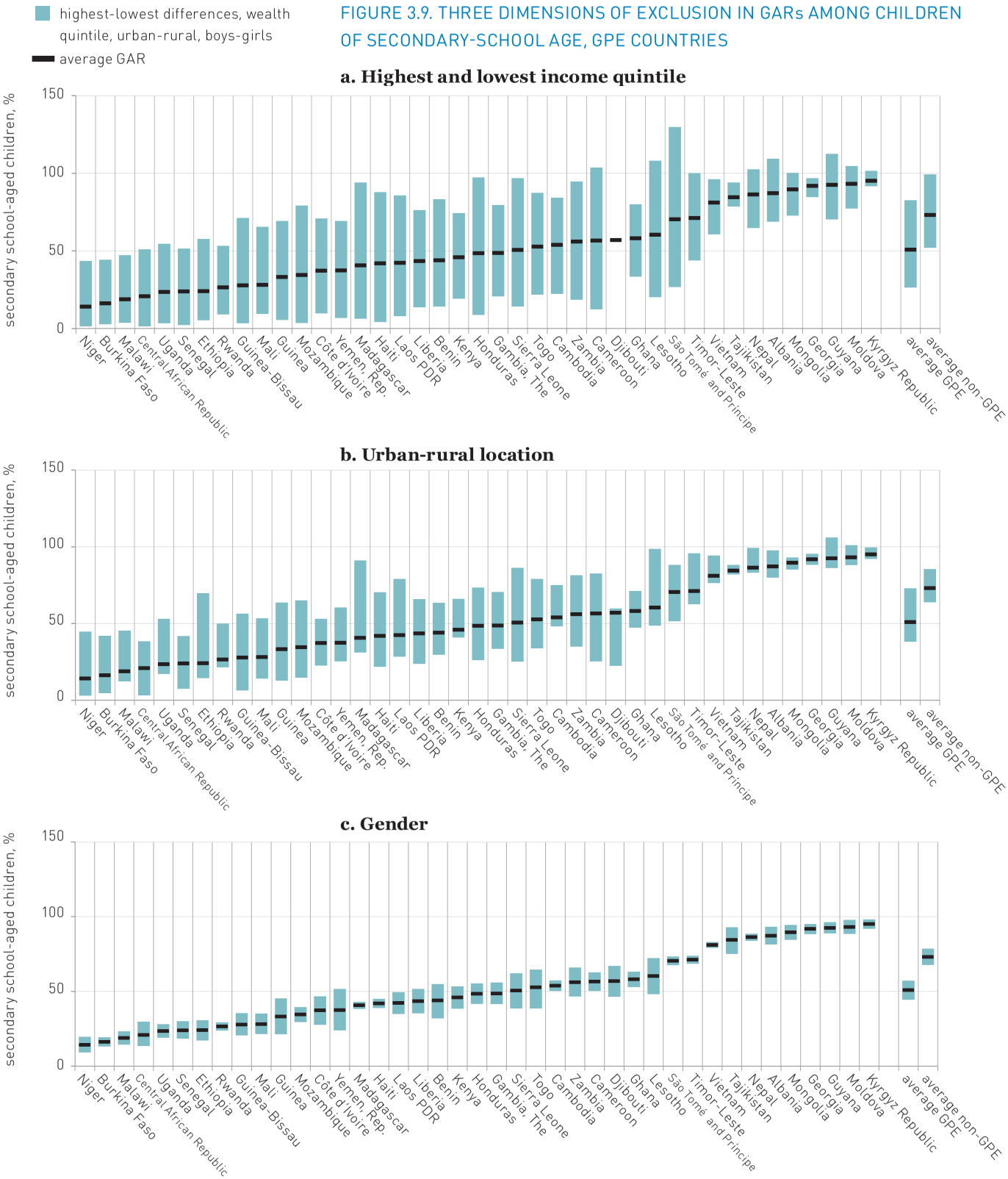
PHOTO CREDIT: Guy Calaf/Save the Children

Increasingly, secondary school is necessary for participation in modernizing economies, particularly in urban areas. Meanwhile, exclusion is greater in secondary education than in primary education (for example, see Bruneforth and Wallet 2010).

Figure 3.9 shows the gross attendance disparities among children of secondary-school age in GPE countries. The countries are arranged according to the average GAR. The top chart shows the disparity between the highest and lowest household income quintiles; the middle, by urban-rural location; and the bottom, by gender.

Secondary-school exclusion among the poor is close to universal in many countries.

FIGURE 3.9. THREE DIMENSIONS OF EXCLUSION IN GARs AMONG CHILDREN OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL AGE, GPE COUNTRIES



Source: Data of DHS and MICS surveys. Note: The figure shows the relevant average national GARs (black dashes) and the highest and lowest values of attendance by household income quintiles, urban-rural location, and gender, respectively.

The level of exclusion and the disparities are much larger among children of secondary-school age than among children of primary-school age.

The level of exclusion and the disparities are much larger among children of secondary-school age than among children of primary-school age, as one might expect given the lower average attendance rates and the correlation between inequality and low attendance. The level of exclusion associated with poverty is massive: in a large group of GPE countries, the GARs among children of secondary-school age in households in the poorest quintile are nearly nil. This exclusion has significant implications for upward mobility among this group of children. Poor adolescents are likely to face stronger pressure to leave school and contribute to family income than are less-poor adolescents. Also, poor adolescents are more likely than less-poor adolescents to be in primary school past the appropriate age (UIS and UNICEF 2005).

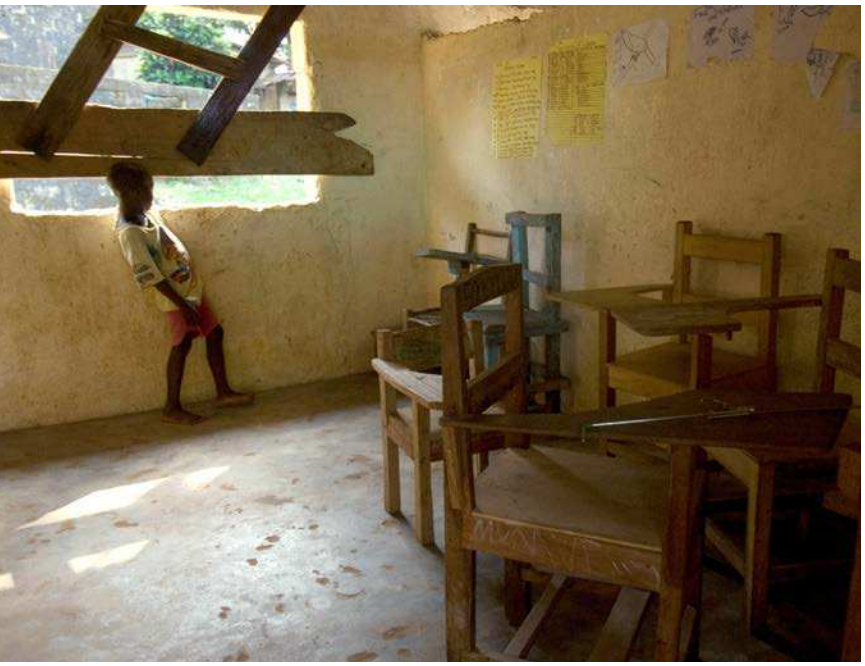


PHOTO CREDIT: Candace Feit/Save the Children

The GARs among adolescents of secondary-school age even in households in the highest income quintile in many countries do not reach 100 percent. Overall, the disparities are similar among GPE and non-GPE countries, although the average rates are lower in the GPE group than in the non-GPE group. The disparities in net attendance rates (NARs) are similar (see annex 3C).

Rural GARs among children of secondary-school age are similarly low in many GPE countries, but not as low as the GARs among poor children in the same age-group. Providing universal access in rural areas is more difficult in secondary education than in primary education because secondary schools rely on teachers who are specialized by subject and often offer laboratory courses; they also tend to serve larger numbers of students relative to primary schools and therefore tend to cover wider areas. In developed countries, public transportation, school bus companies, and transportation by bicycle or automobile help ensure access to secondary schools in rural areas. Some of these options are also available in developing countries; bicycles, for instance, can be provided at low cost. Other options may not be so readily available. The possibility of establishing smaller secondary schools with teachers who are less specialized and the use of high-quality self-guided learning materials should be explored. Thus, a portion of a GPE grant provided in Côte d'Ivoire in December 2011 to support the implementation of the country's education plan will finance small lower-secondary schools (*collèges de proximités*) that help to ensure wider coverage in remote rural areas, thereby encouraging more girls to attend school and providing an incentive for more children to complete primary school.

The gender disparity at the secondary level has diminished remarkably, although teenage girls tend to leave school early because of pregnancy and marriage.

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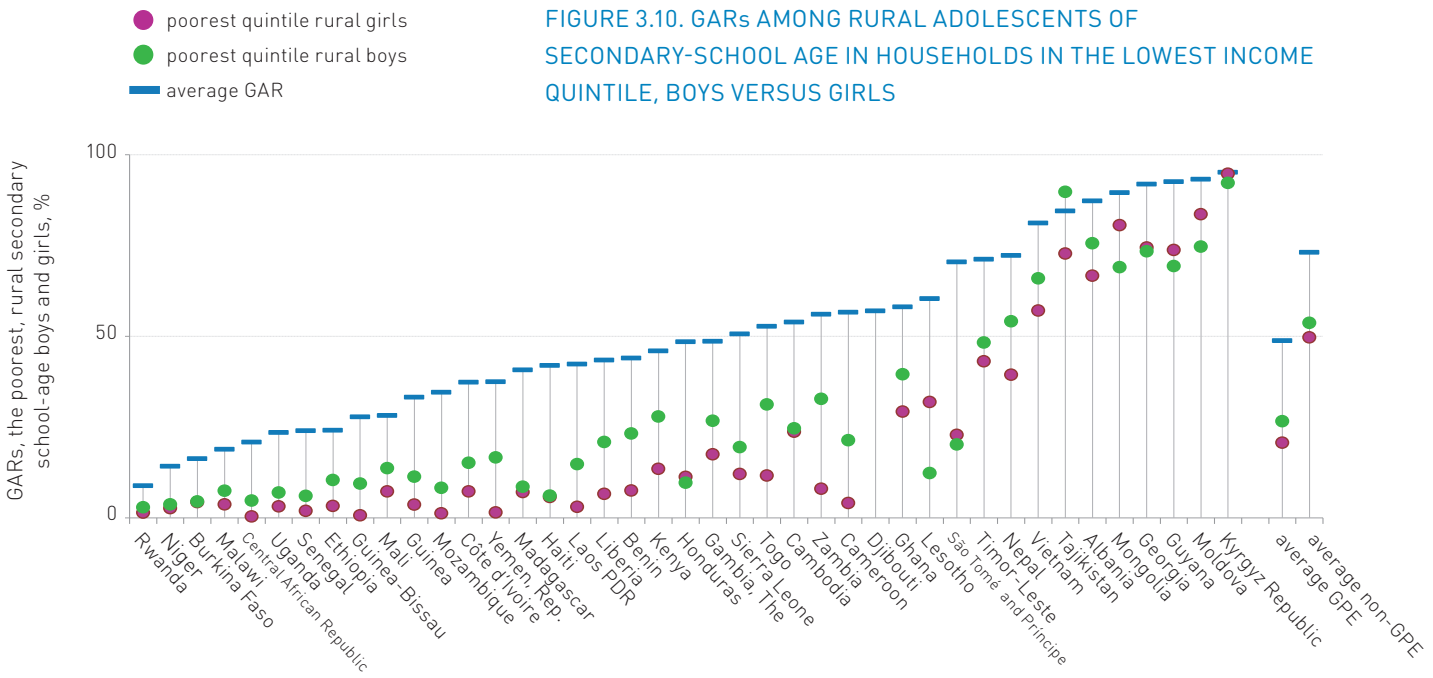
The gender disparity at the secondary level has diminished remarkably, although teenage girls tend to leave school early because of pregnancy and marriage (see below on Mozambique). Whereas, in the 1980s, secondary-school enrollment rates were only one-third among girls relative to boys in many countries, only one-quarter of the GPE countries had a gender parity index (GPI) in the 1.5–2.0 range (none above 2.0) by 2010, and the average GPI for secondary attendance was 1.15.[17] Programs and other efforts to keep girls in school beyond the onset of puberty are certainly a part of the story (box 3.3).

Gender inequalities can be large within groups of excluded adolescents such as the rural poor (figure 3.10). Typically, boys in these groups are also excluded.

BOX 3.3. GPE-SPONSORED PROGRAM: INCREASING SECONDARY-SCHOOL ENROLLMENTS AMONG GIRLS IN GHANA

In 2004, Ghana endorsed a new education sector plan that includes a general policy to reach gender parity and many specific interventions to make schools more girl-friendly. These measures include separate sanitation facilities, eliminating gender stereotyping in educational materials, encouraging the recruitment of women teachers, making schools safer for girls, and scholarship programs for girls. During the first five years of plan implementation, the annual growth in the enrollment of girls in lower-secondary school more than doubled, from 1.8 to 4.4 percent.

FIGURE 3.10. GARs AMONG RURAL ADOLESCENTS OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL AGE IN HOUSEHOLDS IN THE LOWEST INCOME QUINTILE, BOYS VERSUS GIRLS



Source: Data of DHS and MICS surveys.

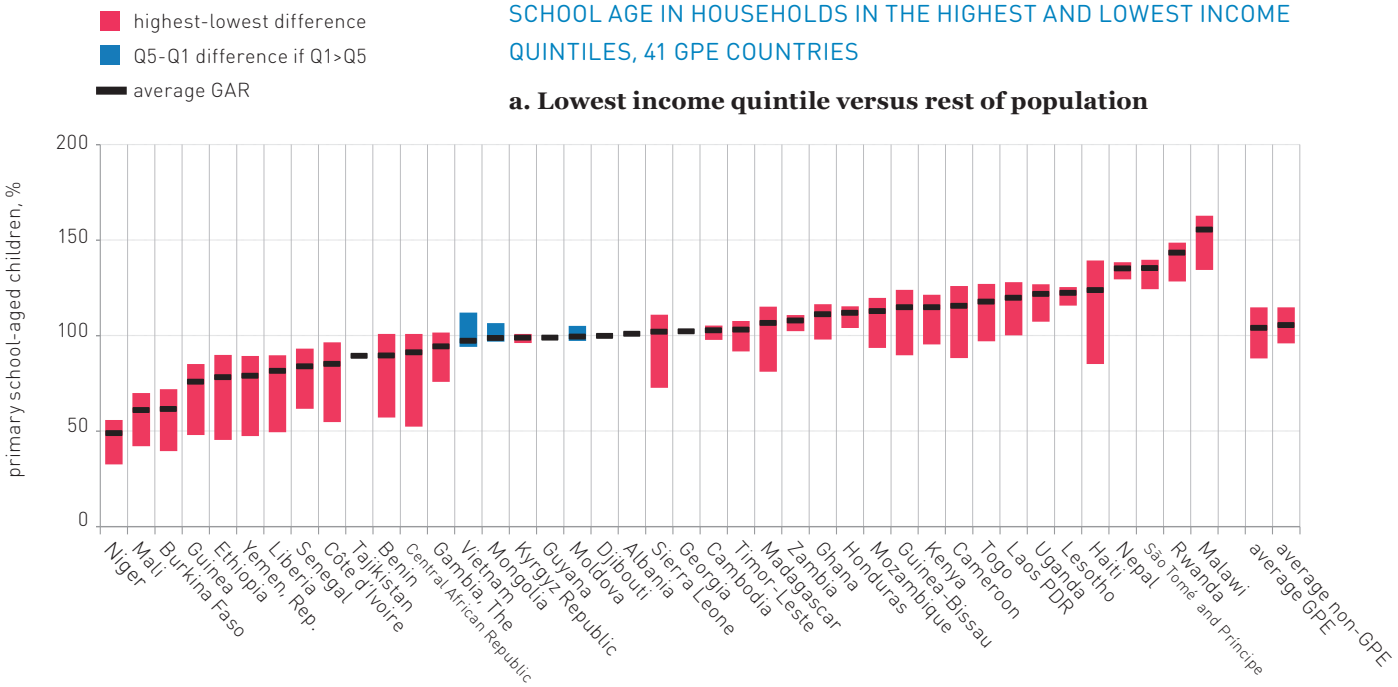
C. A filter on poverty: comparing the lowest income quintile with the rest of the population

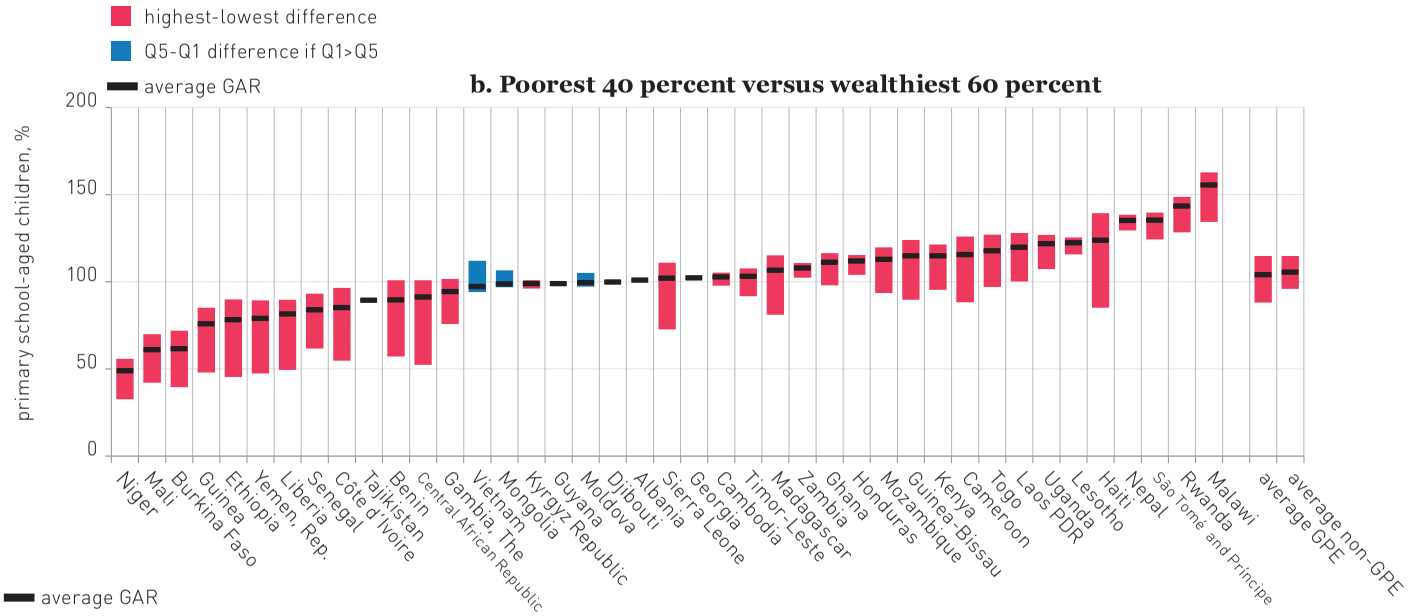
The income differentials are still far larger than the differentials by gender and somewhat greater than the location differentials.

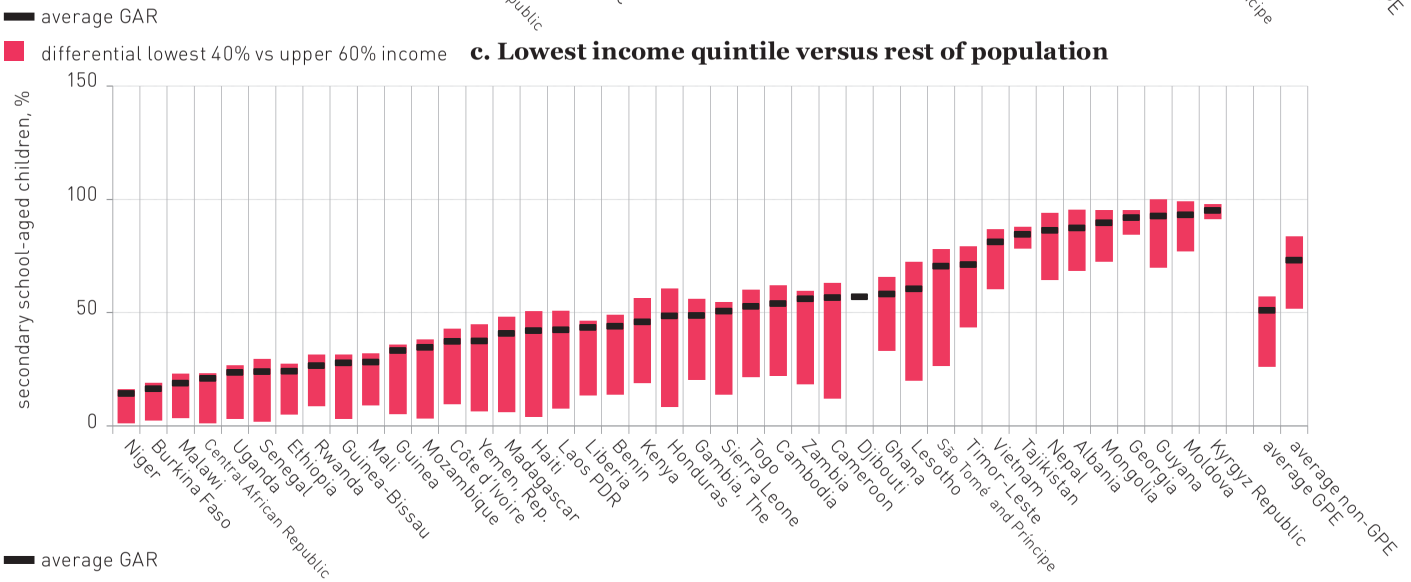
Above, we highlight poverty as the main factor of exclusion in education; although children in nomad families show lower attendance rates, they are, in most countries, a smaller group. One might challenge this result by arguing that the higher degree of differentiation across household income quintiles (five groups) relative to the gender (only two groups) and urban-rural location (only two groups) measures stretches out the impact of income, and thus biases the results in favor of a greater disparity by household income. To examine this hypothesis, figure 3.11 shows the gross attendance differentials among children of primary- and secondary-school age using population data based on two groups: the lowest household income quintile (the poorest 20 percent) and the rest of the population (80 percent) in one case which is taken to exaggerate the impact of income as it focuses on the two extreme groups out of five groups, and the bottom 40 percent (the poor) and the top 60 percent (the non-poor) in a two-group classification. The colored bars show the differentials. The bottom of the bar marks the GAR of the lowest quintile, and the top of the bar marks the GAR of the remaining four quintiles (which is only a little higher than the average rates). Even if we use this weaker measure of education disparity by income, the income differentials are still far larger than the differentials by gender and somewhat greater than the location differentials, providing additional evidence in favor of policies that directly and specifically assist poor children.

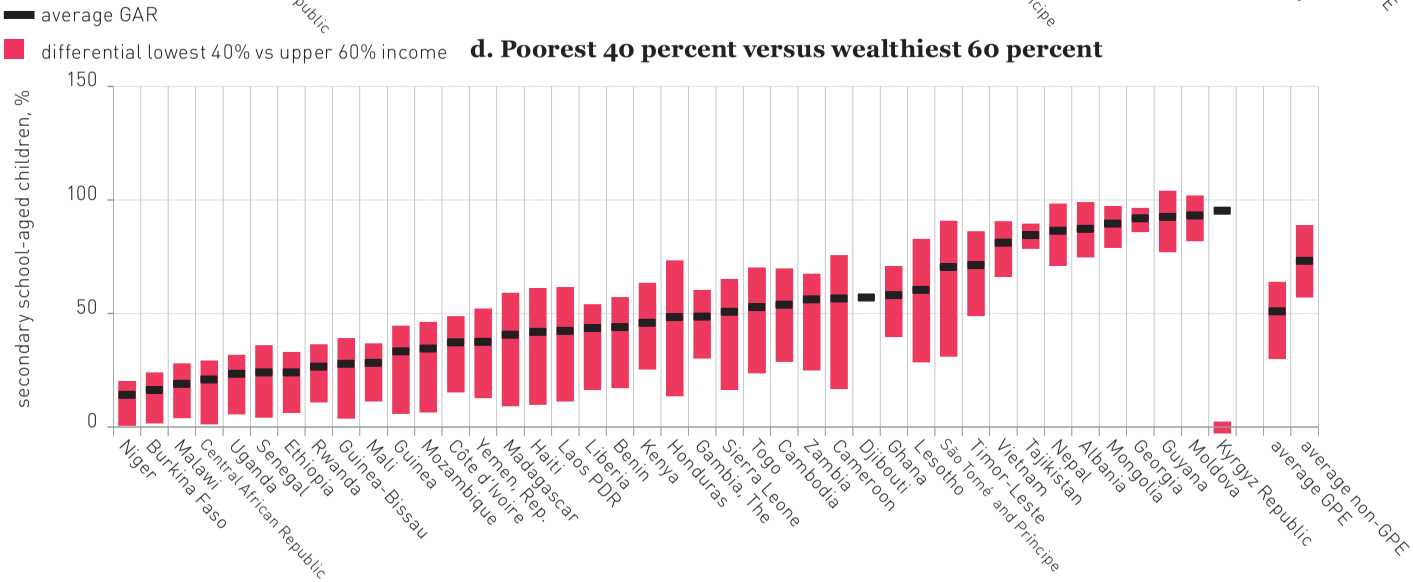
FIGURE 3.11. GAR DIFFERENTIALS, CHILDREN OF PRIMARY- AND SECONDARY-SCHOOL AGE IN HOUSEHOLDS IN THE HIGHEST AND LOWEST INCOME QUINTILES, 41 GPE COUNTRIES

a. Lowest income quintile versus rest of population









Source: Data of DHS and MICS surveys.



PHOTO CREDIT: Nick Cunard/DFID

D. Changes in inequality, 2000–10

Inequality by gender in GARs among children of primary-school age, already low, declined by 40 percent in 2000–10. Inequality by urban-rural location fell by 25 percent in GPE countries. In contrast, the drop in GARs according to income inequality in some countries was completely offset by increases in other countries.

It is clear, above, that the differentials are still large in the latter half of the first decade of the 2000s. In particular, the poor, rural inhabitants, the disabled, and nomads are disadvantaged in education. Has there been any progress at reducing the level of inequality? To answer this question, we compare recent data on disparities among children of primary- and secondary-school age with data from an additional set of 62 DHS and MICS surveys from around 2000 (of which 37 were conducted in GPE countries). The average interval between an early and a late survey was 6.4 years; so, the progress examined here covers about two-thirds of the period 2000–10.

Table 3.3 compares the inequality in school attendance among children of primary-school age in the earlier and later years of the period by gender, by urban-rural location, and by household income (highest to lowest quintiles) in GPE and non-GPE countries. The measure of disparity used here is the highest minus the lowest values, similar to the analysis by Porta et al. (2011). Figure 3.12 shows the same averages, but also includes country-specific data points to emphasize that, within the groups, there is a wide range of differences.

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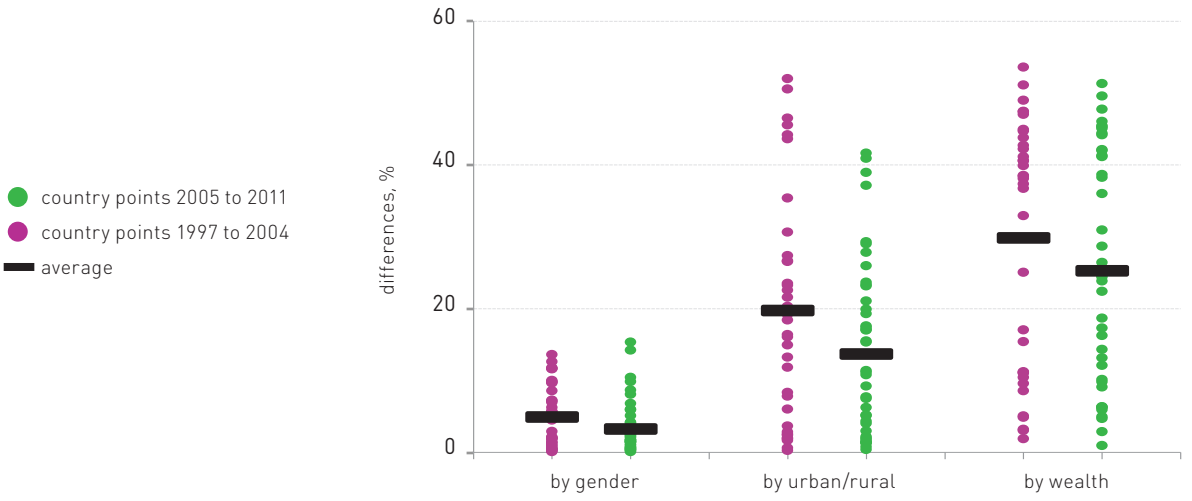
TABLE 3.3. AVERAGE DIFFERENCES IN NARs AMONG CHILDREN OF PRIMARY-SCHOOL AGE, 1997–2011

percentage points

Period	Observations		Boys – girls		Urban – rural location		Highest – lowest income quintile	
	GPE	Non-GPE	GPE	Non-GPE	GPE	Non-GPE	GPE	Non-GPE
1997–2004	35	17	5	3	19	9	29	23
2005–11	49	37	3	2	14	7	25	17

Source: Data of DHS and MICS surveys.

FIGURE 3.12. DISPARITIES IN NARs AMONG CHILDREN OF PRIMARY-SCHOOL AGE, 37 GPE COUNTRIES, 1997–2011



Source: Data of DHS and MICS surveys.

Note: The figure shows differentials by gender, urban-rural location, and lowest and highest household income quintile.

The early gender disparities (shown in the pink lines to the left in figure 3.12) ranged from 0 to 14 percentage points. The average was a 5 percentage point difference between the respective total NARs of boys and girls of primary-school age in GPE countries and 3 percentage points in non-GPE countries (table 3.3). In the later period, the average gender disparity in GPE countries had fallen to only 3 percentage points, *almost halving the difference.*

The urban-rural disparities also fell considerably, by one-fourth, from an average of 19 to 14 percentage points in GPE countries. This matches an earlier finding of the Education Policy and Data Centre (EPDC 2007), which analyzed urban-rural

disparities from around 2000 to around 2005. Some countries with high urban-rural differentials around 2000 managed to achieve rapid declines (table 3.4). Some of these gains reflect focused policies to build schools in rural areas and develop programs and timetables that fit the lifestyles of children in these regions (box 3.4).

TABLE 3.4. TOTAL URBAN-RURAL NAR DIFFERENTIALS AMONG CHILDREN OF PRIMARY-SCHOOL AGE, AROUND 2000 AND IN 2005–10

percentage points

Country	Urban-rural differentials		Country	Urban-rural differentials	
	Around 2000	2005–10		Around 2000	2005–10
Burkina Faso	52	39	Haiti	45	23
Ethiopia	50	41	Niger	44	39
Guinea-Bissau	46	27	Guinea	44	37

Source: Data of DHS and MICS surveys. Note: The figure shows the six countries with the highest differentials around 2000.

BOX 3.4. GPE-SPONSORED EFFORT: ETHIOPIA BUILDS PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN RURAL AREAS

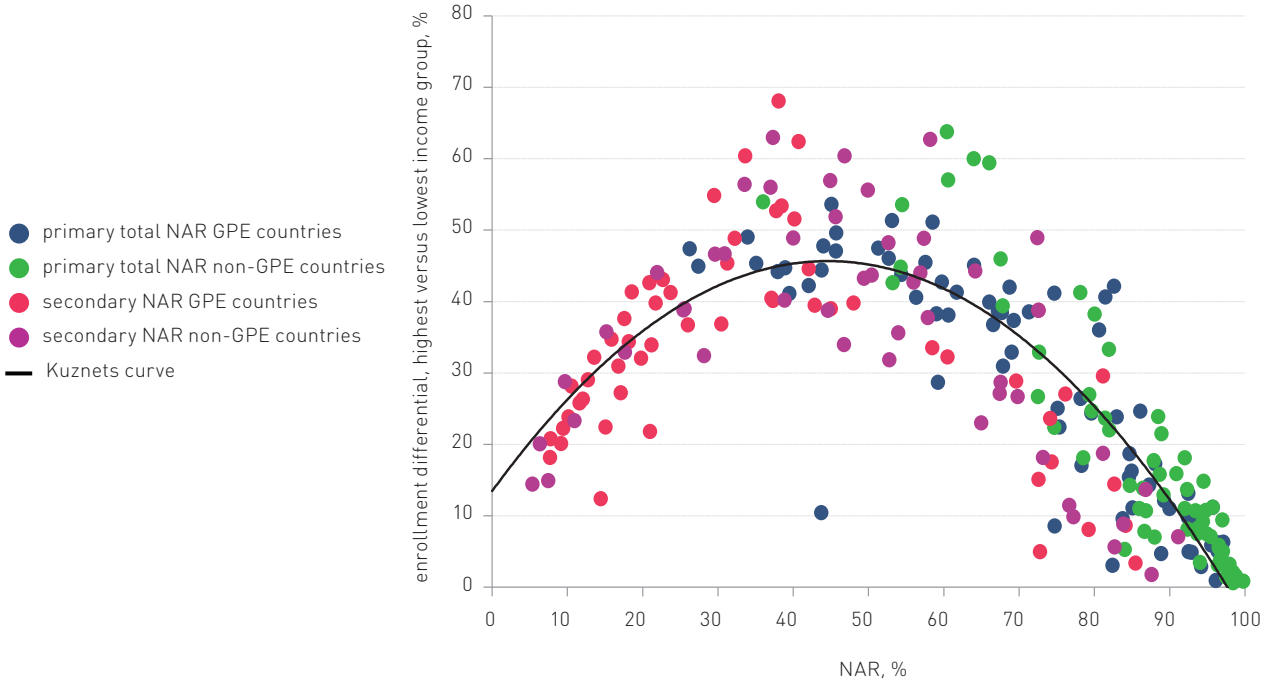
In the past decade, the expansion in primary education in Ethiopia has been one of the most rapid globally; urban-rural differentials also declined by a fifth. An important component has been the outreach to rural areas. From 1997/98 to 2004/05, 85 percent of all the new primary schools were constructed in rural areas. The education sector plan for 2005/06 to 2010/11 called for the addition of almost 100,000 primary-school classrooms by relying on low-cost strategies such as the use of local labor and materials, as well as the implementation of alternative basic education programs to reach remote rural children and children in nomad families.

In contrast to the progress in reducing gender and urban-rural gaps, the differentials by household income appear more intractable. During the early part of the period 2000–10, the average differential in 37 GPE countries was 29 percentage points, and, by the later part of this period, the situation had barely changed, to an average of 27 percentage points. Meanwhile, in the 25 non-GPE countries with which a comparison can be made, the corresponding differentials declined from 23 to 17 percentage points.

In contrast to the progress in reducing gender and urban-rural gaps, the differentials by household income appear more intractable.

One explanation for the poorer performance of the GPE countries according to this measure is the fact that, on average, the GPE countries are in a different stage in education expansion than the non-GPE countries. A Kuznets effect characterizes education expansion; thus, as attendance grows from low levels, inequality first increases and then declines (for example, see Thomas, Wang, and Fan 2002).[18] There is precisely this kind of Kuznets relationship between attendance rates among children of primary- and secondary-school age and attendance differentials by household income in figure 3.13. More of the GPE countries are in the lower part of the curve, and the income-attendance differentials are still widening in some GPE countries.

FIGURE 3.13. NARs AMONG CHILDREN OF PRIMARY- AND SECONDARY-SCHOOL AGE AND HOUSEHOLD INCOME DIFFERENTIALS: EVIDENCE OF A KUZNETS CURVE



Source: Data of DHS and MICS surveys.

This Kuznets curve emerges because the progress in education expansion reaches children in different population groups in stages across time. Attendance levels rise first among children in households in the highest income group and then among children in households in the next highest income group, and so on. The attendance levels among children in households in the lowest income group rise last. The widest gap in inequality occurs when the attendance rates have reached a peak among children in households in the highest income group, but are only starting to rise among children in households in the lowest income group.

Some countries manage to reduce inequalities associated with the level of income more quickly by implementing policies such as increasing school access in poor regions, reduce financial barriers by eliminating fees and instituting cash transfers, and structuring education so that it meets the needs of particularly disadvantaged groups.

This general Kuznets pattern should not be considered a reason for complacency. There are many reasons to invest in policies to counter the pattern and reduce the inequalities associated with the level of income. Some countries manage to accomplish this more quickly by actively removing the education barriers experienced by the poor; these countries lie on the lower portions of the Kuznets curve shown in figure 3.13. Such policies include efforts to increase school access in poor regions, reduce financial barriers by eliminating fees and instituting cash transfers, and structuring education so that it meets the needs of particular disadvantaged groups through, for instance, adjustments in schedules or curricula.

The education differentials associated with income have declined considerably in some GPE countries.

The education differentials associated with income have declined considerably in some GPE countries. Table 3.5 shows the change in NARs according to income level in the 12 GPE countries in which the disparities in 2000 were the greatest. Among these countries, one may distinguish two groups: (1) a group in which the disparities associated with income declined and (2) a group in which these disparities increased. In most of the group 1 countries, children in households in the highest income quintile already exhibited high attendance rates in 2000, and the subsequent rise in attendance occurred mainly among children in poor households. This rise was quite rapid in Guinea-Bissau, Madagascar, and Mozambique. Also notable was the progress in Ethiopia and Niger, where the attendance rates increased at a similar pace among children in households in both quintiles (though slightly more rapidly among the poor). The attendance rates in the five group 2 countries are now similar to the earlier rates in the group 1 countries. It is likely that, in the coming 10 years, the differentials will decline in the group 2 countries as they advance past the hump in the Kuznets curve. This natural progress may be accelerated considerably through targeted interventions—supported by the GPE—among the poorest segments of the population.

TABLE 3.5. CHANGES IN NARs AMONG CHILDREN OF PRIMARY-SCHOOL AGE, BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME QUINTILE, 12 GPE COUNTRIES

Country	Highest quintile, %		Lowest quintile, %		NAR differential, percentage points		
	Around 2000	2005–10	Around 2000	2005–10	Around 2000	2005–10	Change
Guinea-Bissau	80	88	27	54	53	34	–19
Mozambique	88	91	45	64	43	27	–16
Madagascar	93	95	42	59	51	37	–14
Niger	61	71	14	26	47	45	–2
Côte d'Ivoire	79	83	31	42	47	42	–5
Ethiopia	64	70	15	26	44	38	–6
Sierra Leone	74	87	27	46	47	41	–6
Burkina Faso	60	82	15	34	45	49	+4
Benin	76	87	33	39	44	48	+4
Central African Republic	64	86	21	40	43	47	+4
Mali	73	79	28	31	45	48	+3
Guinea	54	84	13	36	41	52	+11

Source: Data of DHS and MICS surveys. Note: The countries shown are those in which the disparities around 2000 were the greatest.

III. Changes in exclusion across stages in the education life cycle

Some OOS children have no prospect of ever entering school unless conditions change: there is no school nearby; the family is too poor or the children have disabilities.

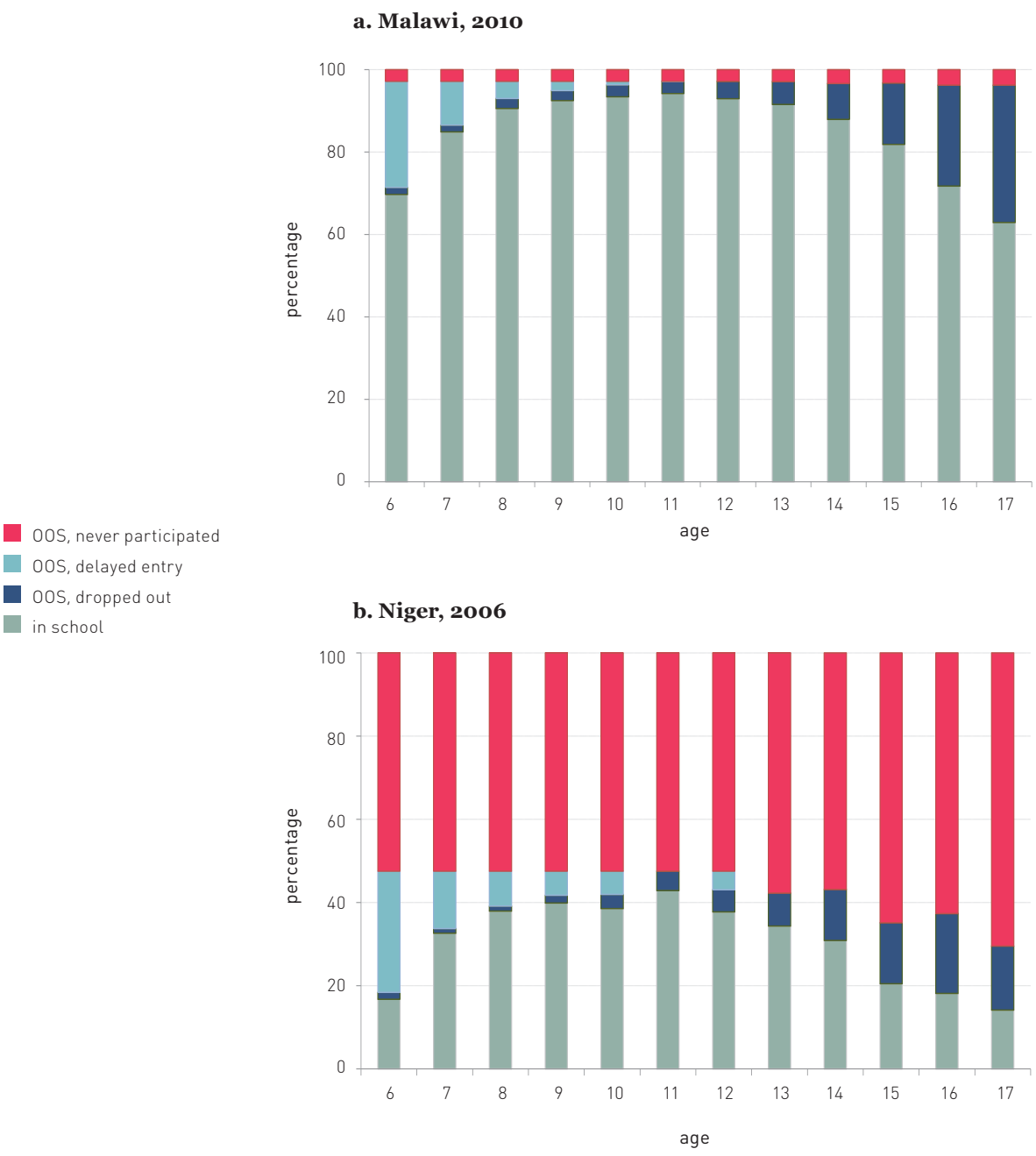
Some OOS children have no prospect of ever entering school unless conditions change: there is no school nearby; the family is too poor; the children have disabilities; or some other reason. Other OOS children may first enter school after a delay of a few years. Still other OOS children attended school for a while, but have dropped out. Separating these three groups for purposes of analysis—never participated, delayed entry, and dropped out—is useful because each of these groups reflect types of exclusion across the stages in the education life cycle that call for a different mix of policies (UIS and UNICEF 2005; UNICEF and UIS 2011; UNESCO 2011).

UIS and UNICEF (2005) have established a simple method to calculate the distribution of OOS children according to this breakdown. The method is based on age-specific attendance rates among children who are attending school or who have ever attended school. The arrangement is presented graphically for Malawi in 2010 and Niger in 2006 in figure 3.14. In gray are the age-specific attendance rates, which show a typical tapered increase to a maximum at around age 10 or 11 and then a slow decline. Together, the gray and the green portions of the bar represent those children who have attended school at some point. The difference between the attendance rates and the rates among children who have ever attended (in dark blue) indicates those children who have dropped out. The share of children who will never enter school is calculated as 1, minus the maximum of the share of children up to age 12 who have ever entered school (after age 12, entry is highly unlikely). The children who will never participate in school are indicated by the small red portion at the top of the bars for Malawi in 2010. Finally, the children who will delay entry are indicated by the light blue portion of the bars: the difference between the share who have ever attended and the share who have never participated (up to age 12).[19]



PHOTO CREDIT: Kullwadee Sumnalop/Save the Children

FIGURE 3.14. EXCLUSION IN THE EDUCATION LIFE CYCLE: NONPARTICIPATION, DELAYED ENTRY, AND DROPPING OUT, MALAWI AND NIGER



Source: Data of DHS surveys.

Note: The figure is based on age-specific attendance rates among children who are attending or who have ever attended school.

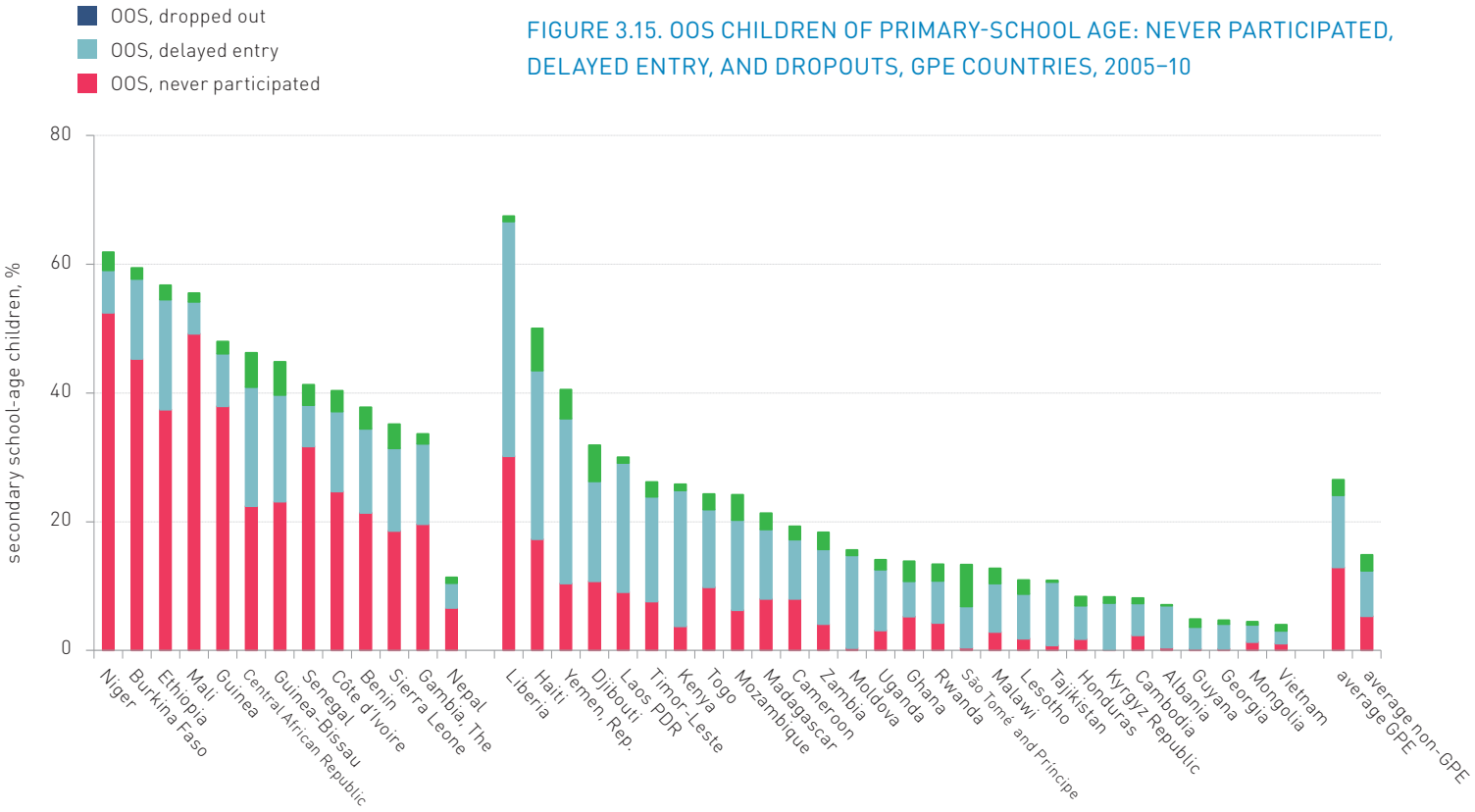
In GPE countries, nonparticipation and delayed entry contribute equally to the share of OOS children of primary-school age; dropouts are a small factor.

The OOS pattern in Malawi 2010 is a common one: many OOS children of primary-school age are delayed entrants. In the other common pattern of school exclusion, the majority of OOS children of primary-school age never participate. Niger in 2006 is an extreme example. In both cases, a serious drop-out problem does not emerge until about age 13 or 14, which runs counter to the widespread notion that, in many countries, the drop-out rates are high even in the early grades (see below).

A. Nonparticipation, delayed entry, and dropping out at primary-school age, 2000–10

Figure 3.15 shows the distribution of OOS children in GPE countries by nonparticipation, delayed entry, and dropping out. The countries are arranged in two groups, as follows: (1) those countries in which total nonparticipation predominates and (2) those countries in which delayed entry predominates. (There were no countries in which dropping out predominates.) Within these groups, countries are arranged in order from the highest to the lowest proportions of OOS children overall.

FIGURE 3.15. OOS CHILDREN OF PRIMARY-SCHOOL AGE: NEVER PARTICIPATED, DELAYED ENTRY, AND DROPOUTS, GPE COUNTRIES, 2005–10



Source: Data of DHS and MICS surveys.

Three patterns are apparent. First, overall in 2005–10, the shares of children who delayed entry and children who never participated are large and roughly equal contributors to the total of all children who were not in school: on average, in GPE countries on which data are available, 13 percent of children of primary-school age were out of school because they were not participating at all, and 12 percent were out of school because of delayed entry.

Nonparticipation is concentrated among poor children; delayed entry is more widespread.

Second, the countries in which nonparticipation predominates tend to have the most children out of school and are geographically clustered: all but one of these countries are in Sub-Saharan Africa, and most are in West Africa.

Third, dropping out is a much smaller factor explaining why children of primary-school age are out of school: on average, in GPE countries, only 3 percent of children of primary-school age are out of school because they have dropped out. Dropping out predominates in no countries in this group. At the same time, it is a common view that, in many countries, drop-out rates are high and that high drop-out rates lead to low primary-school completion rates (see below).[20]

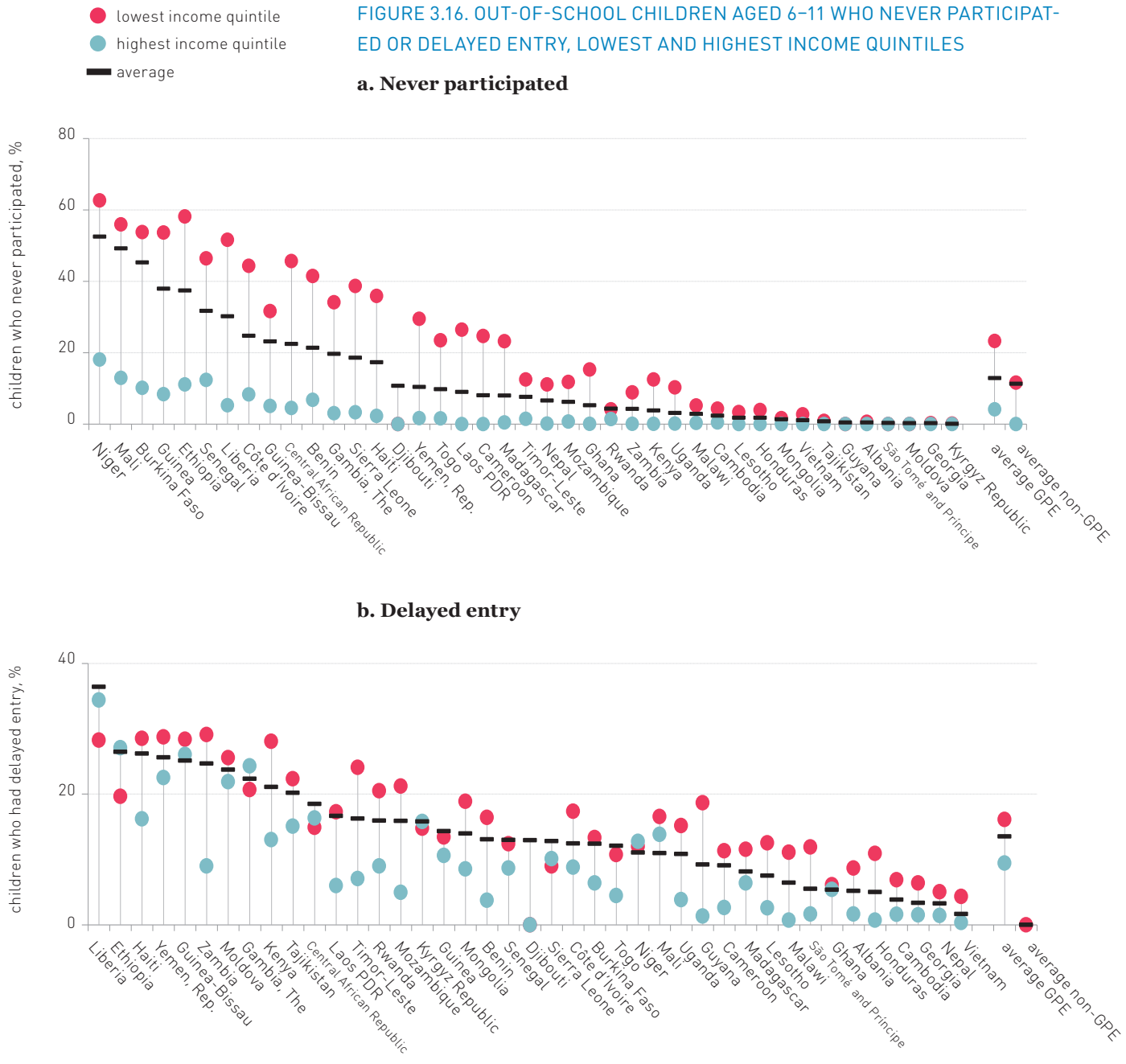
The countries in which nonparticipation predominates tend to have the most children out of school and are geographically clustered.

The most serious form of school exclusion is nonparticipation, and it is highly concentrated among poor children. Figure 3.16 shows the proportion of children in households in the lowest income quintile who are likely never to be in school, compared with children in households in the highest income quintile. The disparities are large and are *greater than the disparities in attendance overall*. In Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, Guinea, Mali, and Niger, more than half the poorest children are unlikely ever to enter school. In comparison, in 36 GPE countries, more than 90 percent of the children in households in the highest income quintile will participate in education. The pattern for delayed entry, shown in figure 3.16, chart b, is different. The incidence of delayed entry is more widespread across household income quintiles, although it is somewhat more common among poor children.



PHOTO CREDIT: Guy Calaf/Save the Children

FIGURE 3.16. OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN AGED 6–11 WHO NEVER PARTICIPATED OR DELAYED ENTRY, LOWEST AND HIGHEST INCOME QUINTILES



Source: Data of DHS and MICS surveys.

This finding has useful policy implications. Because nonparticipation is so highly correlated with household poverty, policy interventions should focus on reducing the financial constraints to education access. Delayed entry, meanwhile, affects children across several household income quintiles, and the barriers appear to be less correlated with household income; perhaps they are more closely related to

social norms about the proper age to send children to school or to safety concerns with respect to younger pupils. Broad social campaigns directed at educating parents on the benefits of age-appropriate school entry and attendance and more research into the causes of delayed entry would be helpful. One of the benefits of age-appropriate entry and attendance is that children would be able to complete primary school before the critical years of adolescence, an advantage that has implications for drop-out rates (see below).

Drop-out rates in primary school appear to be considerably lower than commonly believed; children remain in school in large numbers up to the middle of their teenage years.

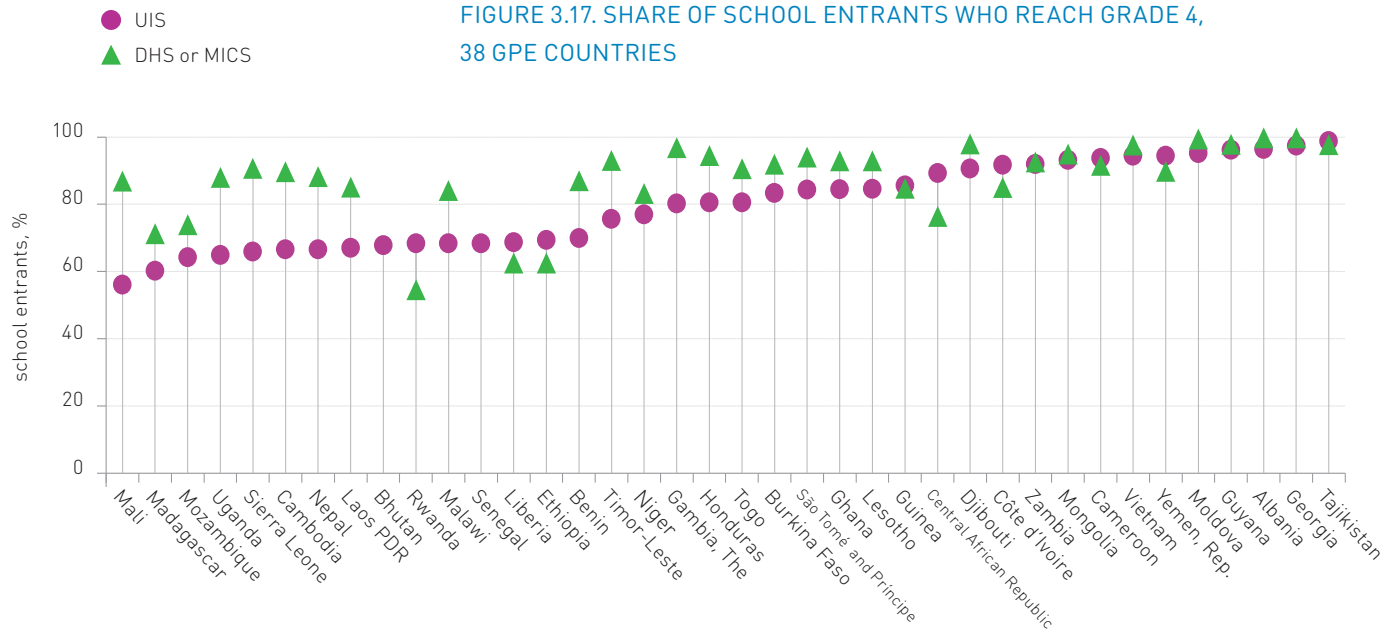
According to administrative data (or the analytical implications of such data), such as data compiled by the UIS, high drop-out rates in the early grades of primary school are a serious problem in many countries. According to these data, more than a quarter of pupils drop out before the fourth grade in at least 27 developing countries.[21] In 16 of the 37 GPE countries on which there are data, drop-out rates calculated before grade 4 reach 25–45 percent. In some countries, high drop-out rates may have been expected following surges in the number of pupils after school fees were abolished, but Lewin and Sabates (2011) note that high apparent drop-out rates measured by comparing relative numbers of pupils in each grade have not abated in many countries.



PHOTO CREDIT: Mats Lignell/Save the Children

Household survey data present quite a different picture, namely, relatively high survival rates in the early grades of primary school. Figure 3.17 shows the share of school entrants who reach grade 4 based on household surveys in 38 GPE countries, compared with survival rates based on administrative data.[22] According to the administrative data, survival rates to grade 4 in Mali in 2006 were only 56 percent, but, according to the 2006 DHS, 87 percent of children who started school reached grade 4. In other countries, household surveys similarly record higher survival rates, including in Benin, Cambodia, The Gambia, Honduras, Malawi, Nepal, Sierra Leone, Timor-Leste, and Uganda. The surveys record lower survival rates in only a few countries, including the Central African Republic, Ethiopia, Liberia, and Rwanda. These differences cast doubt on the accuracy of low survival rates. In addition, administrative data by themselves, when highly disaggregated and when the disaggregated data are analyzed carefully, also throw doubt on the notion of high dropout in the early grades, as discussed elsewhere in this report. The high enrollment drop-off between grades 1 and 2, very often taken as a sign of dropout, is almost certainly due to extremely high and unreported repetition in grade 1. It is more a sign of poor learning and lack of early childhood learning opportunity, than of dropping out behavior. In fact, considering how little learning takes place, the surprising thing is how little dropout there is until the later grades.

FIGURE 3.17. SHARE OF SCHOOL ENTRANTS WHO REACH GRADE 4, 38 GPE COUNTRIES



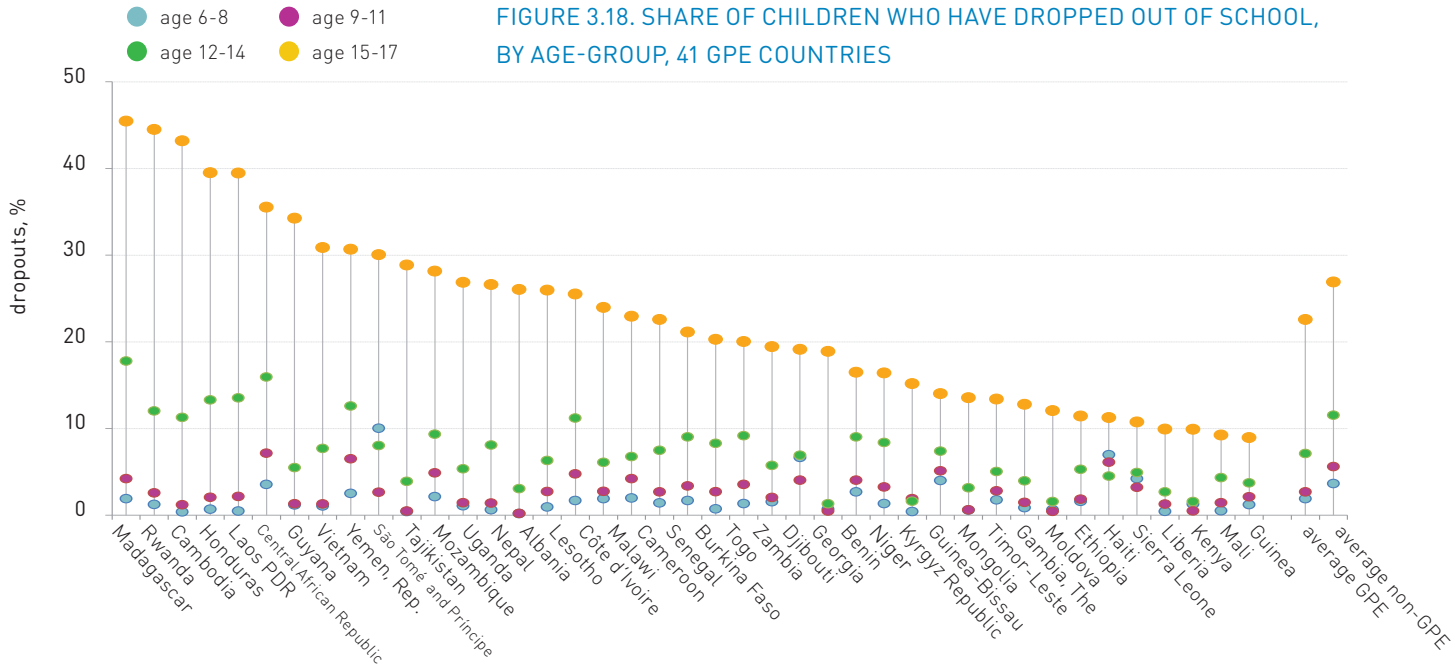
Source: Administrative data of the UIS and data of DHS and MICS surveys, 2005–11.



PHOTO CREDIT: Colin Crowley/Save the Children

A second piece of evidence suggesting that administrative data may be less than accurate about primary-school drop-out rates is provided in figure 3.18, which shows the share of OOS children who have dropped out in four three-year age intervals—6–8, 9–11, 12–14, and 15–17—in 41 GPE countries. The share of OOS children who have dropped out is a small group up to age 11 (as shown also in figure 3.15), but then increases moderately in the 12–14 age-group, before rising markedly in the 15–17 age-group. This mirrors the finding of the Education Policy and Data Centre (EPDC 2008) that, overall, drop-out rates are far higher among adolescents than among pupils of primary-school age, quite possibly because, among adolescents, the competing responsibilities of work and family put more pressure on schooling. The household surveys suggest that, in almost all countries, about 95 percent of all pupils in the first grade are younger than 10, implying that most pupils in the lower grades of primary school are below age 14 and, thus, below the ages when drop-out rates begin to rise steeply.

FIGURE 3.18. SHARE OF CHILDREN WHO HAVE DROPPED OUT OF SCHOOL, BY AGE-GROUP, 41 GPE COUNTRIES



Source: Data of DHS and MICS surveys, 2005–11.

The rise in drop-out rates among adolescents represents an argument in favor of policies that promote age-appropriate school entry so that children may complete the primary-school cycle before they reach an age at which they are more likely to drop out. To the extent that age-appropriate entry may help reduce OOS rates and drop-out rates in the primary grades, there is a policy overlap: the two related, but distinct, goals of universal attendance and universal primary completion may be partly addressed through a policy aimed at age-appropriate school entry.

A possible explanation for the discrepancy between findings on dropping out based on administrative data and findings based on household surveys is underreported repetition. If many children are repeating grades 1 and 2 multiple times, this would inflate the size of these grades relative to higher grades. If they are not officially counted as repeaters, a casual observer may believe there are high drop-out rates in grades 1 and 2.

Direct evidence for underreporting in repetition would be represented, for example, by household survey data indicating higher shares of repeaters in grade 1 relative to administrative data. Among GPE countries, this is the case in Cameroon (household survey: 61 percent; UIS: 30 percent), the Central African Republic (45 versus 1 percent), The Gambia (29 versus 11 percent), Lesotho (37 versus 22 percent), Mali (52 versus 23 percent), Mozambique (20 versus 3 percent), Rwanda (34 versus 15 percent), Togo (35 versus 25 percent), and Uganda (34 versus 18 percent). This evidence is not entirely consistent. In a few countries, household surveys show lower shares of repeaters. This is the case in Benin (10 versus 24

percent), São Tomé and Príncipe (25 versus 14 percent), and Timor-Leste (4 versus 28 percent). However, the evidence is strong enough to suggest that underreported repetition is at least likely and should be a subject of additional research.[23]

Since 2000, many countries have made good progress in reducing nonparticipation.

Another piece of evidence is offered by excessive gross intake rates.[24] Reported gross intake rates exceed 100 in many countries in many years, which is demographically impossible for more than a few years, and may be explained by underreported repetition. Given the low levels of learning during the early grades in many countries (see chapter 4), repeating these grades may be a reasonable parental or child choice, even in countries where promotion is automatic according to policy.

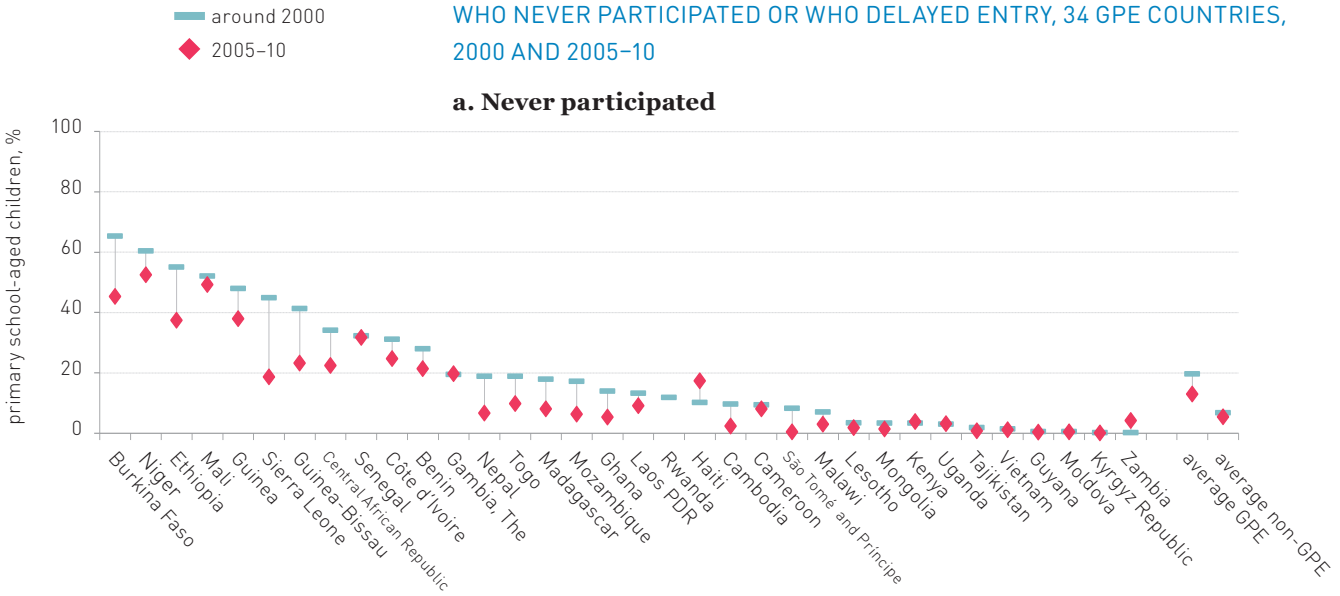
If repetition is underreported, then nonparticipation may be masked because children who repeat may be reported as new pupils, leading to higher—and inaccurate—intake estimates. Nonparticipation may thus be a much more serious problem than is acknowledged even by planners in countries that already have a serious nonparticipation problem. As shown in figure 3.16, this is an important issue especially for poor children in many countries.

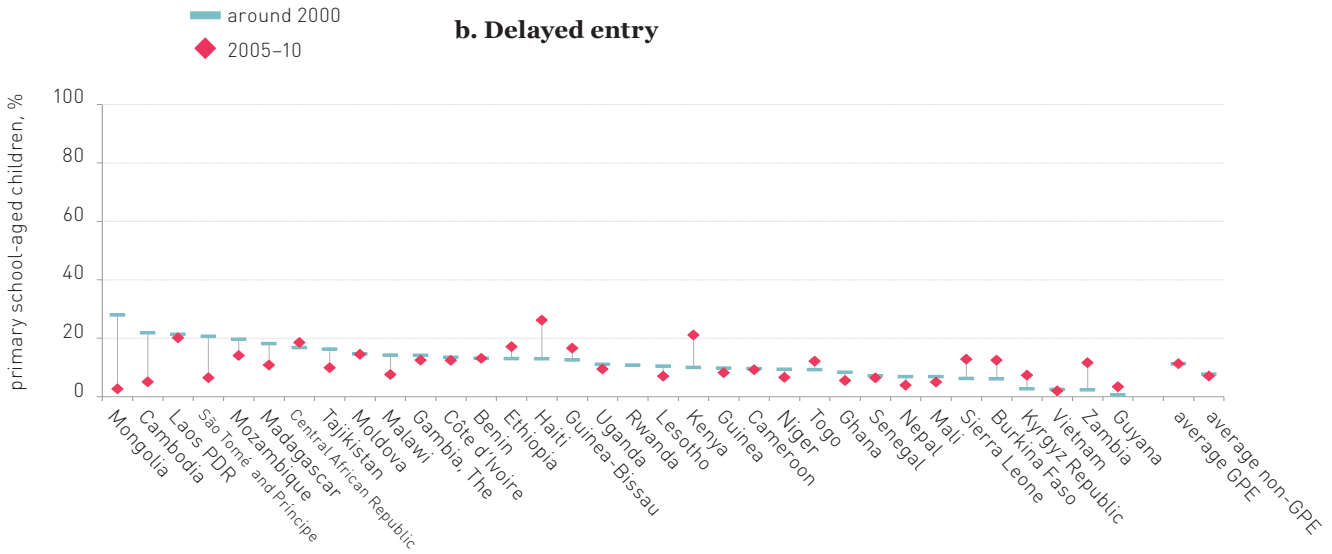
Over the past decade, the most progress in GPE countries appears to have been made in reducing the share of OOS children associated with nonparticipation.

Over the past decade, the most progress in GPE countries appears to have been made in reducing the share of OOS children associated with nonparticipation (figure 3.19 and table 3.6). The top chart in figure 3.19 shows the share of children of primary-school age who, around 2000 (blue dashes) and in 2005–10 (red diamonds), were out of school because of nonparticipation in 34 GPE countries for which DHS or MICS survey data are available. The bottom chart shows children who were out of school because of delayed entry during the same periods.

FIGURE 3.19. OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN OF PRIMARY-SCHOOL AGE WHO NEVER PARTICIPATED OR WHO DELAYED ENTRY, 34 GPE COUNTRIES, 2000 AND 2005–10

a. Never participated





Source: Data of DHS and MICS surveys.

TABLE 3.6. OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN OF PRIMARY-SCHOOL AGE, BY STAGE OF EXCLUSION, 34 GPE COUNTRIES

percentage points

Indicator	Around 2000	2005–10
average OOS	36	28
Never participated	20	14
Delayed entry	12	11
Dropped out	4	3

Source: Data of DHS and MICS surveys.

Progress in boosting school entry and attendance among children is apparent in most countries, particularly Cambodia, the Central African Republic, Ethiopia, Ghana, Guinea-Bissau, Madagascar, Mozambique, Nepal, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, and Togo. However, there has been little progress in, for example, Cameroon, The Gambia, and Senegal, and, in Haiti, nonparticipation increased between the DHS of 2000 and the DHS of 2006.

Around 2000, the average share of children out of school because of nonparticipation was 20 percent in the 34 GPE countries listed in figure 3.19. By the time of the later surveys (on average, 6.4 years later), the average share of children out of school because of nonparticipation had declined to 14 percent. If this trend has continued, the average share of children out of school because of nonparticipation is a few percentage points less in 2012.

Progress in reducing delayed entries has been much more uneven. On average, the share of children out of school in GPE countries because of delayed entry was the same around 2000 and in 2005–10, namely, 11–12 percent. Countries that have reduced both nonparticipation and delayed entry include Ethiopia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mozambique, Nepal, and São Tomé and Príncipe. Countries that have forfeited part of the gains made in reducing nonparticipation because of the rising share of delayed entry include Guinea-Bissau, Sierra Leone, and Togo. In Haiti, nonparticipation and delayed entry have both increased; the increase is particularly troublesome given that the data predate the recent severe earthquake, which disrupted the educational system additionally.

The shares of OOS adolescents are greater than the shares of OOS children of primary-school age.

B. Changes in exclusion across the education life cycle among adolescents aged 12–17

Although OOS adolescents have received less attention than the younger OOS children, they are an increasingly important issue in education policy. The shares of OOS adolescents are greater than the shares of OOS children of primary-school age, and it is within the former group that dropping out is a major contributor to nonattendance. In many countries, some of the primary-school pupils who are older than the age appropriate to primary school are swelling the share of adolescents in school.

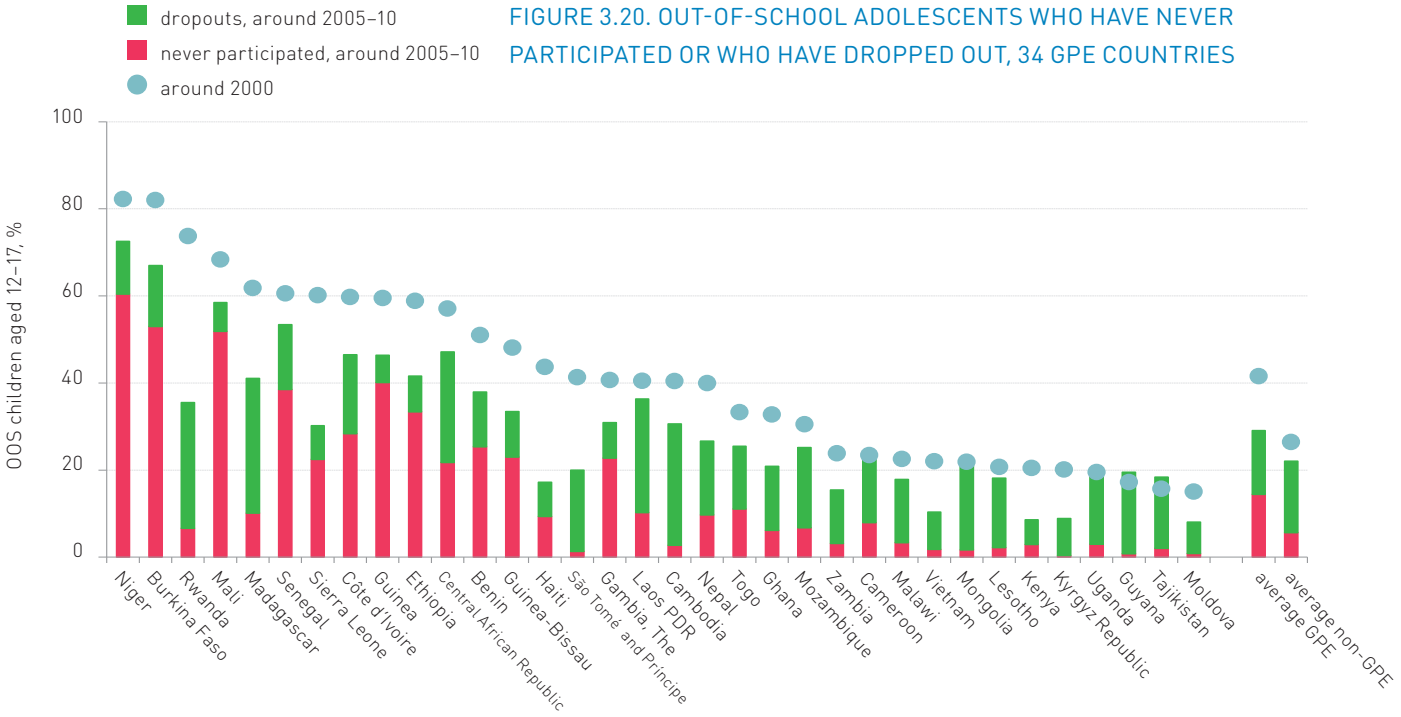


PHOTO CREDIT: Colin Crowley/Save the Children

In the 34 GPE countries for which data are available, the average share of OOS adolescents aged 12–17 fell from 43 to 32 percent over the period.

Figure 3.20 provides a sketch of OOS adolescents who, around 2000 (blue dots) and in 2005–10, had dropped out of school or never participated in education. In the 34 GPE countries for which data are available, the average share of OOS adolescents aged 12–17 fell from 43 to 32 percent over the period (table 3.7). Most of this progress derived from a rise in the number of first-time entrants, an echo of the widening access to primary school. The average share of OOS adolescents who had never participated fell from 24 to 16 percent, a decline of one-third. In contrast to the situation among children of primary-school ages, the share of OOS adolescents who had dropped out also fell, from 19 to 15 percent, a decline of one-quarter. This achievement deserves more attention; the causes should be investigated to provide lessons for additional reductions in the drop-out rate.

FIGURE 3.20. OUT-OF-SCHOOL ADOLESCENTS WHO HAVE NEVER PARTICIPATED OR WHO HAVE DROPPED OUT, 34 GPE COUNTRIES



Source: Data of DHS and MICS surveys.

TABLE 3.7. OUT-OF-SCHOOL ADOLESCENTS AGED 12–17 BY STAGE OF EXCLUSION, 34 GPE COUNTRIES

percentage points

Indicator	Around 2000	2005–10
average OOS	43	32
Delayed entry	24	16
Dropped out	19	15

Source: Data of DHS surveys.

IV. Enrollment and poor attendance: de facto nonenrollment?

Sometimes, the time devoted to instruction and the quality of it may be so little that the children are, de facto, unenrolled.

Even if children are enrolled in or are attending school, the amount of time they spend in instruction may be too little for meaningful learning. In the extreme, the amount of time may be so little and the loss in the quality of the instruction the children receive may be so great that the children are, de facto, unenrolled. Many recent studies have documented the significant losses in the amount of instruction because of teacher absenteeism, school closures, and time in school not spent learning (Chaudhury et al. 2004; EDUCA 2005; Duflo and Hanna 2005; Sathar et al. 2006; Das et al. 2005; Muralidharan and Sundararama 2010; Abadzi 2009; De Stefano and Moore 2010).

A. Absenteeism among children

In this subsection, we look at a major contributor to time lost in instruction: pupil absences. In some countries, pupil absences can be quite frequent, especially among poor children. The reasons children might be absent from school are many: they may be sick, need to work, not have a uniform, need to attend to a sick parent, or need to take part in a wedding or funeral; among adolescent girls, a lack of school sanitary facilities may be an added reason. Programs that have tackled common illnesses and diseases have been successful in reducing absenteeism. Deworming campaigns in rural Kenya have helped reduce school absenteeism from 28 to 16 percent; deworming and the provision of micronutrients have reduced absenteeism from 30 to 24 percent in rural India; and handwashing to prevent diarrhea has reduced absences from 8 to 6 percent in a village in Kenya (Miguel and Kremer 2004; Bobonis, Miguel, and Sharma 2004; Blanton et al. 2010). Numerous studies have also found that the need to work contributes to absenteeism; usually the work is required because of poverty in the household or because help is needed on the family farm (for example, Hua 2008 on Armenia; Machado, Huguenin, and Milcent 2011 on Brazil; Weideman et al. 2007 on South Africa). Programs to reduce absenteeism arising because of child work need to be cognizant of children's contributions to household income and discover ways to compensate by, for example, setting school recess and closing periods in rural areas to overlap with times when children are needed for farming chores.

Absenteeism is a significant problem in many countries. In countries where there are differentials in absenteeism, the differentials are greatest between children in households in the lowest income quintile and children in households in the highest income quintile.

A large, underexploited resource on absenteeism is the UNICEF MICS surveys, which include questions about school attendance during the week previous to the interview. The information is self-reported and in retrospect, which may be a source of inaccuracies as compared to direct school observations. However, the survey data are available for 38 countries over the period 2005–08. One DHS survey also contains data on absenteeism (Uganda in 2006). Among the 38 countries on which data are available on absenteeism, 21 are GPE countries across all regions in which the GPE is active. In addition to providing information about overall levels of absenteeism, the surveys also offer valuable insights into differences in absenteeism across subgroups.

Overall, the absenteeism data are consistent with commonsense expectations, increasing our confidence in the validity of the self-reported attendance rates: a majority of children attend five days of school; there are fewer children with five absences than with four; and so on. A number of the surveys show high numbers of children with no school attendance during the week previous to the interview period, which is apparently associated with school breaks. UIS data on the months of school recess and breaks are excluded from our analysis.[25] There were a few, smaller blocks of time with clearly higher levels of no attendance during the week previous to the interviews. These are likely to have coincided with shorter school breaks such as the January 1–5 holiday in The Gambia in 2006, the October

20–27 holiday in Jamaica in 2006, and the month of January in Kazakhstan in 2006. One survey, in the Republic of Yemen, had to be entirely excluded because, according to 95 percent of the responses, there had been no attendance the previous week.

Absenteeism is a significant problem in many countries.

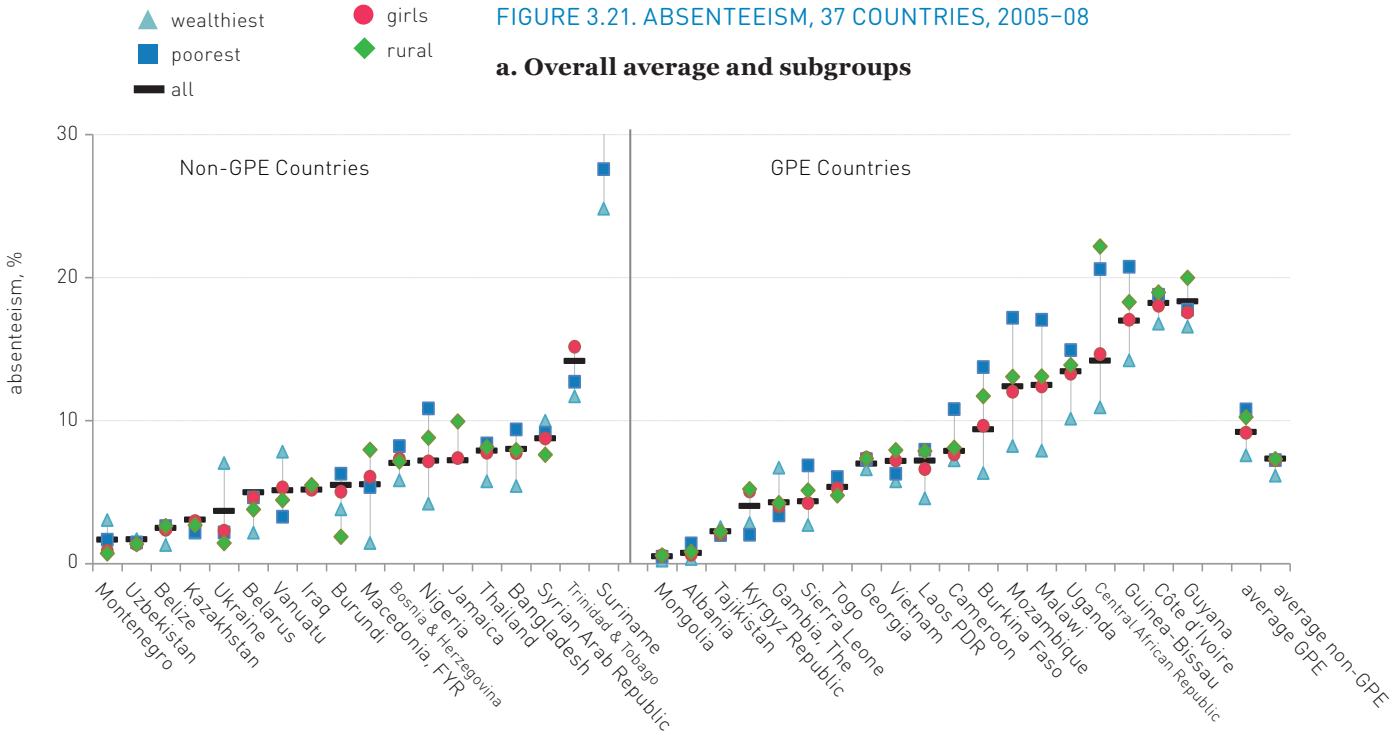
The absenteeism information extracted from the surveys concerns six groups, as follows:

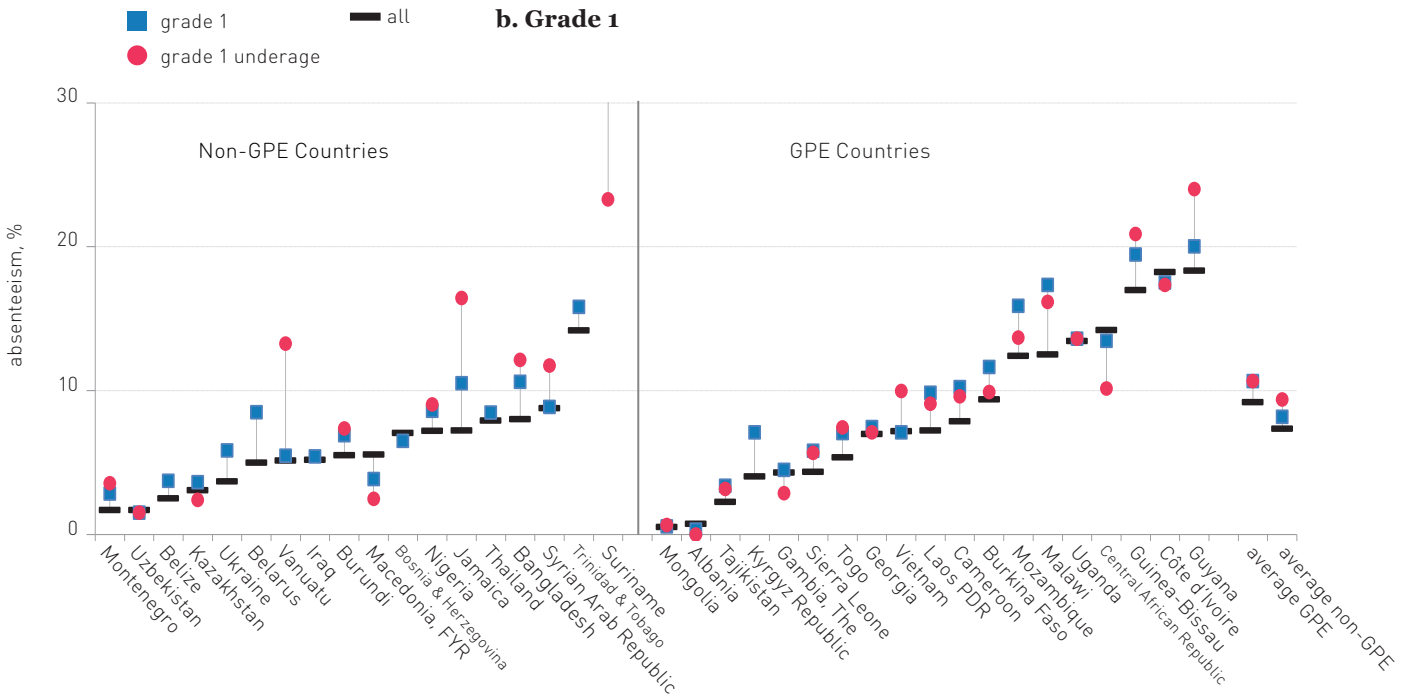
- All children, primary-school age
- Lowest household income quintile, primary-school age
- Highest household income quintile, primary-school age
- Girls, primary-school age
- Rural residents, primary-school age
- All adolescents, secondary-school age

Figure 3.21 shows the absenteeism rates among these subgroups in 37 countries during the period (19 GPE countries and 18 non-GPE countries). The national average rate of absenteeism is shown by black dashes, and the absenteeism rates among girls in households in the lowest income or highest income quintiles and among rural children are indicated by colored symbols.

FIGURE 3.21. ABSENTEEISM, 37 COUNTRIES, 2005–08

a. Overall average and subgroups





Source: Data of the third round of MICS surveys, 2005–08; DHS surveys for Uganda only.

The absenteeism rates are, on average, higher in GPE countries than in non-GPE countries, and the absenteeism rates vary greatly across GPE countries, from a low of 1 percent in Albania to a high of nearly 20 percent in Côte d'Ivoire and Guyana. Absenteeism is a significant problem in many countries; eight of the 19 GPE countries have absenteeism rates in excess of 10 percent: the Central African Republic, Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, Malawi, Mozambique, and Uganda.

Poorer children are absent two or three times more frequently than the children in more well off households.

In general, the absenteeism rates among girls are close to the average, while the absenteeism rates among rural children are not more than a few percentage points above the average. In those countries where there are differentials in absenteeism, the differentials are widest between children in households in the lowest income quintile and children in households in the highest income quintile: poorer children are absent two or three times more frequently than the children in more well off households. Table 3.8 shows the absenteeism rates among children in households in the lowest and highest income quintiles in the five countries with the largest differentials. The differences range from 5 to 12 percentage points. Over time, such differences in absenteeism will exacerbate the tendency for poor children to fall behind in learning.

TABLE 3.8. ABSENTEEISM RATES AMONG CHILDREN IN HOUSEHOLDS IN THE HIGHEST AND LOWEST INCOME QUINTILES, FIVE COUNTRIES

percentage points

Countries	Lowest quintile	Highest quintile	Average
Mozambique	17	8	12
Malawi	17	8	13
Uganda	15	10	13
Guinea-Bissau	21	14	18
Central African Republic	25	13	19

Source: Data of DHS and MICS surveys.

Note: The five countries shown exhibit the widest rate differentials among the countries examined.

The findings suggest that children's health is critical to school attendance and that the higher absenteeism rates among children in the lowest household income quintile is associated with child work and with the lack of school materials and clothing.

We have also pursued the hypothesis that absenteeism is higher in grade 1, where the class sizes are much bigger than the sizes in the upper grades and where pupils may be repeating multiple times. The absenteeism rates for all pupils, for all grade 1 pupils, and for all grade 1 pupils who are under the appropriate age-for-grade are shown in figure 3.21, chart b. Overall, particularly in GPE countries, the absenteeism rates are higher in grade 1 by a few percentage points. Even these small differences may reflect a lack of continuity in learning, which is especially critical at this early stage of education, and, hence, may contribute to higher repetition rates (for example, see RTI 2011).

B. Why children do not attend school: parent responses

The most direct way to assess why children are not in school is to ask the parents, though one must take into account that the responses may be biased if parents do not respond accurately about the level of household poverty and so on. Within the time constraints of the project, we have been able to locate and analyze four recent household surveys that included questions on the reasons children were not in school: the India DHS of 2006, the Mozambique DHS of 2009, and the Uganda National Household Surveys of 2005/06 and 2009/10. Other surveys that included such questions are available and may be accessed in a separate study in the future. The four surveys presented here, however, provide some useful insights.

1. Reasons children do not attend school: Uganda

Of the many surveys examined, only one includes information on why children have been absent from school, the 2005/06 Uganda DHS. The responses to the question about the reasons for absence include work, illness, family events (wedding, funeral, recreation), lack of a desire to go to school, mistreatment

at school, or lack of a school uniform or writing materials. Table 3.9 shows the results. Overall, children missed about 14 percent of all school days. Children in households in the top income quintile are slightly less likely to miss school than children in households in the bottom income quintile. Eleven percent of the absences were associated with school closures. On days when school was open, the most common reason for missing school was illness, which accounted for one-third of the absences amongst all income groups; in this case, the shares were similar for children in lowest-income households and children in highest-income households. Aside from illness, the reasons for absence diverge according to household income. Child work is a serious obstacle to school attendance among children in households in the lowest income quintile and accounted for one-quarter of the absences. Another cause of absence that may be related to poverty is a lack of proper clothing or school materials (no uniform or stationery). Together, these two causes explain much of the absenteeism differential between children in households in the lowest income quintile and children in households in the highest income quintile.

TABLE 3.9. REASONS CHILDREN MISSED SCHOOL DAYS, UGANDA, 2006
percent

	All	Highest quintile	Lowest quintile
% of school days missed	**14**	**11**	**14**
Reason (in percentages)			
School closed	11	12	10
Illness	30	26	26
Other	23	29	19
Lack of materials (no uniform, no stationery)	12	12	17
Work	11	9	25
Did not want to go to school	9	9	0
Funeral, wedding, fun	3	3	2
Mistreated at school	0	0	0
Total	100	100	100

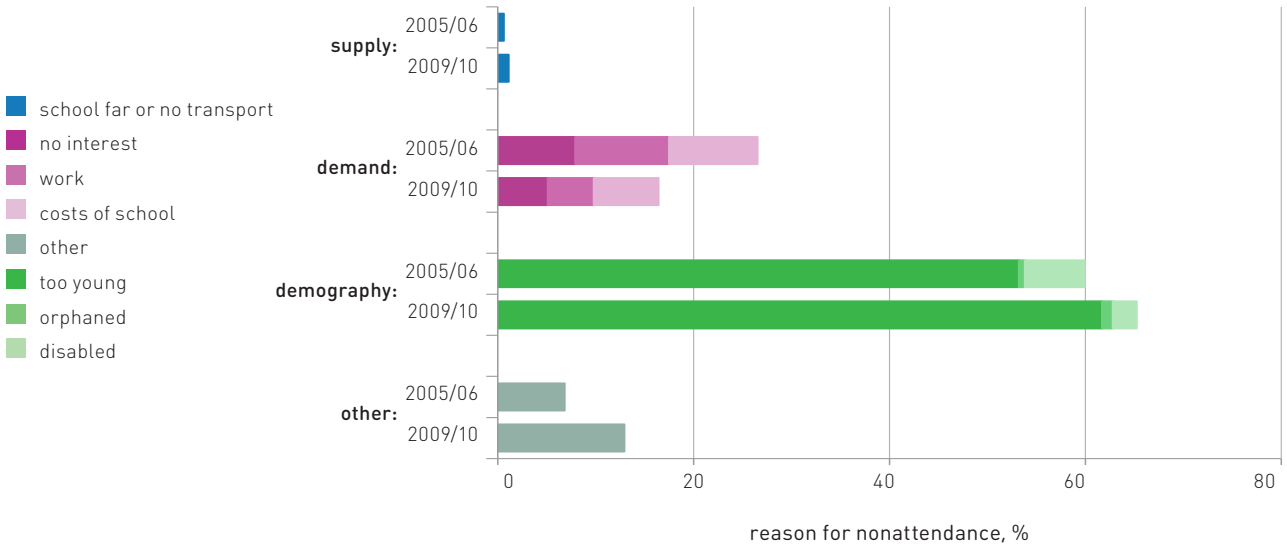
Source: DHS survey data.

In Uganda, school costs, the need to work, and disability posed fewer barriers to attendance in 2009/10 than in 2005/06.

Uganda is the only country found that has comparative data that provide insights into the reasons for nonattendance during two periods and the way the reasons changed from one period to the next (figure 3.22). Two consecutive National Household Surveys—one in 2005/06 and another in 2009/10—both inquired about the reasons children of primary-school age were not attending school. By far, the most common reason was that the child was "too young" (53 percent of nonattendance in 2005 and 62 percent in 2009). The increase in the share of this

response corresponded to a rise in the number of preschools and therefore may be a function of the availability of an alternative to age-appropriate school entry.

FIGURE 3.22. REASONS FOR SCHOOL NONATTENDANCE, UGANDA, 2005/06 AND 2009/10



Source: UBOS 2010.

In both 2005/06 and 2009/10, a primary school was within 5 kilometers of more than 90 percent of all children and within 3 kilometers of 70 percent of all children. The vast majority of children walk to school, and distance is seldom reported as an obstacle in either survey.

On the demand side, nonattendance because of a lack of interest, a need to work, and the high cost of school declined. Nonattendance because of disability also declined. Uganda implemented a proactive program to allow disabled children to attend school; the program led to a 50 percent drop in the share of children out of school because of disabilities (Swedberg 2011). This is a powerful reminder of the value of solid public policy and of the positive results that can be achieved even in a short time.

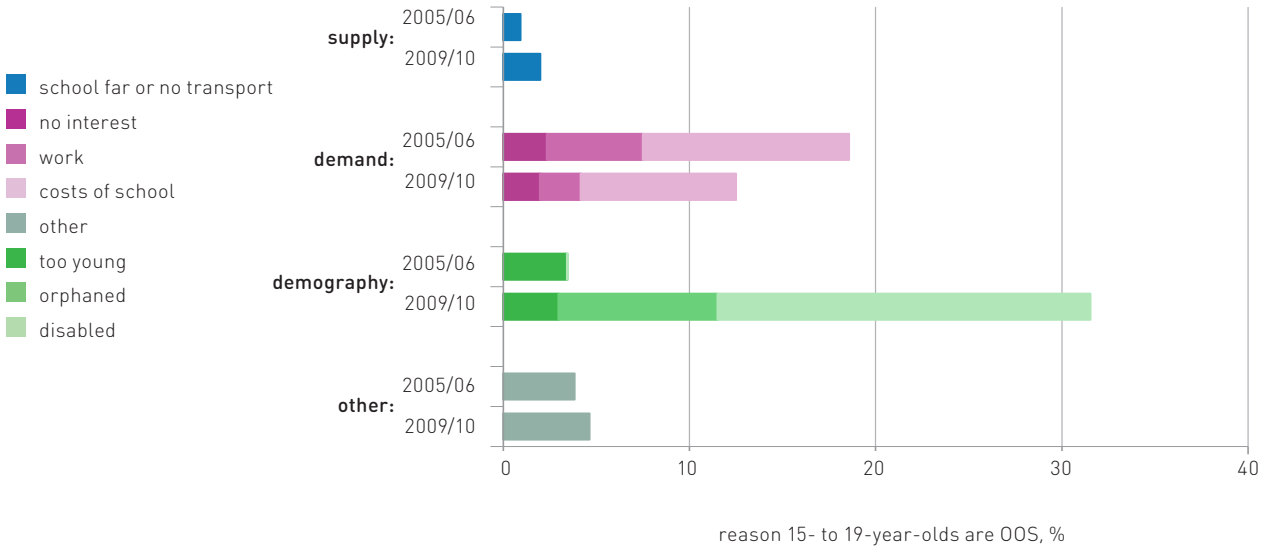
In the case of Uganda, we have categorized the reasons for nonattendance as supply, demand, and demography. The share of nonattendance explained by supply factors is small, although distance to school may be a cause of the high levels of delayed enrollment. Nonetheless, supply factors are often the first area governments and donors address in their efforts to raise attendance. The relatively larger importance of lack of interest as a reason for nonattendance suggests that much more attention should be paid to school quality and learning outcomes.

2. Teenagers out of school: Mozambique Demographic Household Survey 2009

All the difference between teenage male and female attendance rates arises because of pregnancy and marriage.

The 2009 Mozambique DHS asked young adults 15 years of age or older why they no longer attend school. Overall, the attendance rate of 15- to 19-year-olds was 72 percent among males and 48 percent among females. Among 15- to 19-year-olds, many of whom would presumably go to more widely dispersed secondary schools, supply-side constraints, such as the distance to the closest school, make only a small contribution to nonattendance. High costs, presumably relative to the perceived benefits of schooling, are a greater barrier and, among males, constitute the primary reason for nonattendance (figure 3.23). The shares of females who are out of school because of costs or the need to work are similar to the shares for males, but, in addition, many teenage girls are out of school because of pregnancy or marriage; indeed, all the difference between teenage male and female school attendance is associated with these factors.

FIGURE 3.23. REASONS FOR SCHOOL NONATTENDANCE, 15- TO 19-YEAR-OLDS, MOZAMBIQUE, 2008



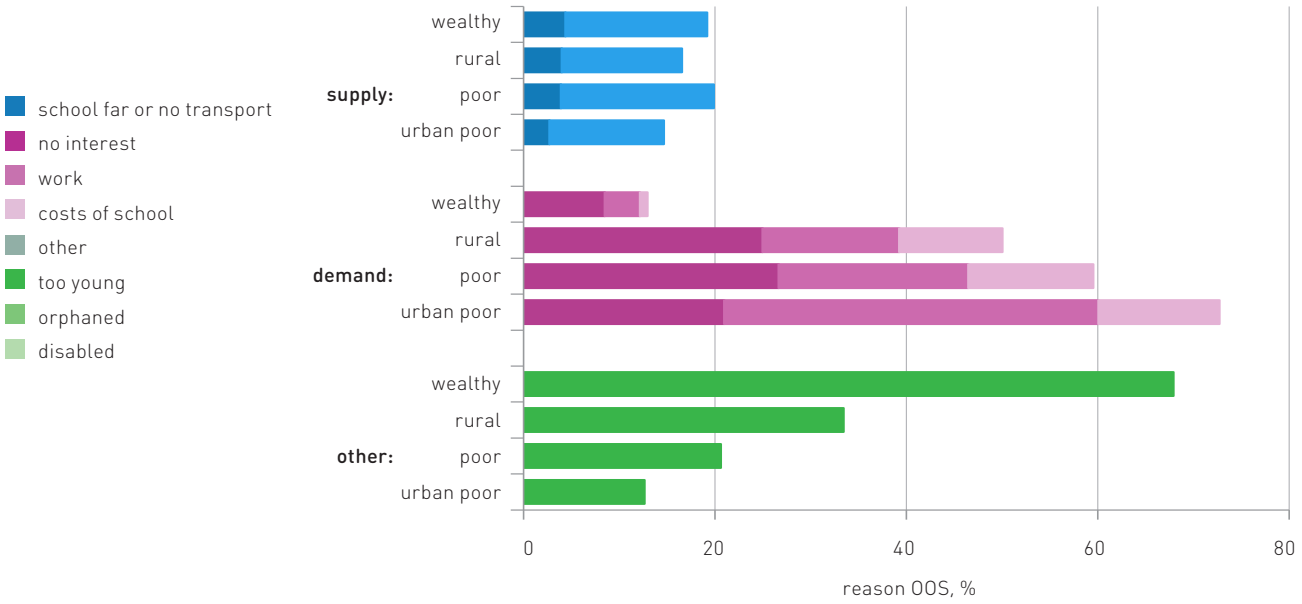
Source: DHS survey data.

3. Disparities in the reasons for school nonattendance: India, 2005/06

The 2006 India DHS included a question on the reasons for nonattendance in school. The responses in India, which is not a GPE country, provide insights into the barriers faced by different groups of children. Figure 3.24 shows the distribution of the reasons for nonattendance among children in four primary-

school age-groups: children in households in the highest income quintile, children in households in the lowest income quintile, rural children, and urban slum children, that is, urban children in households in the lowest income quintile.

FIGURE 3.24. REASONS FOR SCHOOL NONATTENDANCE, INDIA, 2006



Source: India DHS, 2006.

Relative to other groups of children in India, urban slum children are more likely to be out of school because of the need to work.

The reasons for nonattendance are grouped into supply-side (access) constraints and demand-side constraints. The supply-side constraints are similar among all four groups, including rural children, suggesting that schools are widely available. The supply-side exclusion arising because children have not been admitted, as well as the category "other," mostly involve young children aged 6 or 7.

High-income households experience few demand-side constraints. The groups facing the most serious demand-side constraints are poor children, particularly poor urban children, who are engaged in work more than any other group. Work becomes a more important factor with age. Meanwhile, in India, rural children are out of school because of work far less frequently than their urban counterparts, despite the traditional view that more rural children miss school because of farm chores. It appears that poor urban children are engaged in large numbers in work on the streets, in small industries, as household servants, and so on. According to a report of the International Labour Organization (ILO 2002, 24), "urban households tend to share fewer assets with others, making them more dependent on jobs for income. In such conditions, the risks of children being pulled into income-earning activities are all too obvious."



PHOTO CREDIT: Kullwadee Sumnalop/Save the Children

The lack of interest in school is also an important reason for nonattendance in India, particularly among the nonpoor and more than in the case of Mozambique or Uganda, though similar results have been found in other countries. The lack of interest may be a signal of low inherent demand for schooling, or it may be a response to poor-quality schooling. The India data suggest the latter. Thus, "no interest" was a response less often with respect to OOS children 6 or 7 years of age, but rose in frequency with respect to children age 8: a pattern more suggestive of a reaction to poor-quality schooling than of an inherent low demand for education; indeed, all the OOS children involved had previously attended school.[26]

V. Barriers to universal access

The profiles of children excluded from primary and secondary school—the poor, children in nomad families, the disabled, and, to a lesser extent, rural children—suggest some of the barriers these children face, such as an inability to carry the costs of school, costs of school that exceed the benefits, a lifestyle incompatible with a fixed school location, disabilities that make participation in school education difficult, and the inaccessibility of schools. This section investigates these causes by focusing on the barriers to universal access: the inaccessibility and lack of affordability of schools. The issue of quality, which may also affect school attendance, is discussed in chapter 4.

A. Breaking down supply-side barriers: distance to school

School proximity can be important. Studies show that gross primary-school enrollment rates drop off steeply with each kilometer of distance between children and their school.

Raising the access to schools—the provision of sufficient school places close to where children live—has been a major focal point of development assistance in education. The World Bank Rural Access Initiative involved vocal advocacy for placing schools closer to children in sparsely populated areas (World Bank 2003; EQUIP2 2004). In fact, school proximity can be important. Studies show that gross primary-school enrollment rates drop off steeply with each kilometer of distance between children and their school. For example, a recent study on Afghanistan found that enrollment rates fall by 16 percent for every additional kilometer, and this affects girls more than boys (Burde and Linden 2009). This finding echoes a similar result in Chad in 2002/03 (World Bank 2003; EQUIP2 2004). However, the influence of distance is not universal. For example, in Jamaica, gross attendance is 100 percent regardless of the distance to primary school (MICS round 3, 2006). One can imagine that school proximity is a more important determinant of school attendance in less-developed settings where there are fewer (or no) roads and vehicles.

The bad news about school access? The evidence suggests that, in the least developed countries, there are still 10 percent or more of all children who do not have a school within 2 or 3 kilometers of home.

As part of UNICEF's pro-equity initiatives, the UNICEF Regional Office recently commissioned the country offices in West and Central Africa to analyze the bottlenecks to school access and learning, including distance to school. Table 3.10 shows the results for 10 countries, including two of the countries with the highest nonparticipation rates, plus data on Uganda. In all the countries, 10 percent or more of children have no school within 2 or 3 kilometers. In Burkina Faso, the share is 17 percent; in Côte d'Ivoire, it is 34 percent; in the Democratic Republic of Congo, 18 percent; and, in Uganda, 27 percent.

TABLE 3.10. SHARES OF CHILDREN WITH A SCHOOL WITHIN 1–5 KILOMETERS

Location	School distance				Children entering school by age 12
	1 km	2 km	3 km	5 km	DHS or MICS (percent)
Ghana		89			95
Upper West Region		70			
Upper East Region		63			
Nigeria			90		83
Imo State			87		
Borno State			82		
Osun State			94		
Cape Verde	76				
Gambia, The		61	84		80
Central African Republic				84[a]	78
Côte d'Ivoire		66[b]			75
Burkina Faso			83		55
Togo			88[a]		90
Congo, Dem. Rep.			82[c]		90
Kinshasa			67[c]		
North Kivu			71[c]		
Niger			92[a]		48
Uganda					
2005/06			71	92	97
2009/10			73	94	

Sources: UNICEF 2012a; UBOS 2010; data of DHS and MICS surveys.

Note: The school distance is within the number of kilometers indicated. a. Includes schools within a walk of 30 minutes, assuming an average walking speed of 5 kilometers per hour. b. Includes all schools "nearby." c. Includes all schools with no distance given.

The last column in table 3.10 shows the share of children who have ever entered school (see above). For most of the countries, there is a correspondence between the share of children who have a school within 2 or 3 kilometers and the share of children who have ever entered school; one may surmise that these are roughly the same groups of children, but this is not certain because the data sources are mute about this issue. In any case, the correspondence suggests that there may be a relationship between school distance and nonparticipation and that a distance of more than 3 kilometers may represent a barrier to school entry (although, in Uganda, the barrier may be closer to 5 kilometers).

In two countries, the shares of children who have entered school are much lower than the shares who have a school nearby. In Burkina Faso, according to the 2006 MICS survey, only 55 percent of children entered primary school, although 83 percent had a school within 2 kilometers; in Niger, only 48 percent entered school, but 92 percent had a school within 2 kilometers. It is possible that, in these countries, social distance, that is, mistrust among neighboring villages even within a few kilometers of each other, forms a barrier. It may also be that factors unrelated to distance are important, including direct costs and opportunity costs.

These results can already be juxtaposed with the survey responses on the reasons for nonattendance. An analysis of these reasons and the distance to school might shed more light on the factors involved in nonattendance. This issue and the related issues call for more research.

The good news about school access? It appears there has been enormous progress in the past decade. The evidence suggests that the provision of schooling has expanded rapidly, particularly in the countries where the shortages were greatest 10 years ago.

Because the data are sparse on schools and the placement of schools, we use a proxy measure: the school-age population relative to the number of teachers. We assume that all children should be in school. The ratio of school-age children to teachers therefore provides an approximation of the extent to which the supply of teachers is adequate to meet the learning needs of all children. The measure is rough because teachers tend to be unevenly distributed and because other factors, such as the availability of classrooms and school materials, also influence school access. One should keep these shortcomings in mind in examining table 3.11, which shows the child-teacher ratios in primary schooling in 19 GPE countries in 2000 and 2010. (Annex C shows the corresponding data on world regions.)

TABLE 3.11. PRIMARY-SCHOOL CHILD-TEACHER RATIOS, 19 GPE COUNTRIES, 2000 AND 2010

children per teacher

Country	2000	2010	Country	2000	2010
Afghanistan	—	41	Malawi	—	65
Burkina Faso	110	60	Mali	111	52
Cambodia	49	41	Mozambique	85	51
Central African Republic	137[a]	92	Niger	126	58
Chad	103	63	Pakistan	48	47
Ethiopia	122	53	Papua New Guinea	52	—
Gambia, The	41	41	Rwanda	51	44
Guinea	76	46	Zambia	71	52
Guinea-Bissau	55	47			

Source: Based on UIS data.

Note: The table covers GPE countries with child-teacher ratios above 40 in 2000. The 2010 data are for 2010 or the most recent year.

— = not available.

a. 2005.

In 2000, 6 of the 19 countries had more than 100 children per teacher, indicating that universal enrollment at that time was out of reach because of supply constraints. By 2010, all but one country (Central African Republic) had child-teacher ratios below 65, a sign of enormous effort. In Ethiopia, Mali, and Niger, in a context of rapid population growth, the child-teacher ratio was halved over the course of the decade. Even at the lower 2010 levels, teacher shortages undoubtedly still constrain the provision of school access to all children, particularly because of the uneven distribution and lack of training among teachers. Nonetheless, it is clear that rapid progress can be made and is being made. The pace at which the provision is rising is sufficient that, in all countries shown, except Central African Republic, child-teacher ratios will reach around 45 or less by 2015.

B. Breaking down demand-side barriers

1. School fees

A major deterrent to school access is school costs. The removal of school fees, where the effect has been documented, has had an enormous impact on enrollment and has been associated with a surge in school entries and attendance even to the point that a troublesome result has been classroom crowding, a deterioration in education quality, and more strain on education budgets (World Bank and UNICEF 2009; Bentaouet Kattan and Burnett 2004; Bentaouet Kattan 2006). All these problems need to be solved if school fees are removed, but the consistent enrollment surges after the removal of tuition and other fees and the high exclusion rates among poor children indicate that school costs are a large barrier

to school access (for five case studies, see World Bank and UNICEF 2009; see also chapter 5 on household expenditures in education).

Teacher shortages undoubtedly still constrain the provision of school access to all children, particularly because of the uneven distribution and lack of training among teachers.

The scope and levels of school fees are not monitored consistently. Given the importance of school costs to attendance, this appears to be a serious monitoring oversight by governments and the international community. The country reports provided to the GPE Secretariat typically contain little or no information on school fees.

The only consistent international comparison of school fees has been carried out by the World Bank, which conducted two large-scale surveys of these fees in countries in which it has education programs; the surveys covered 80 countries in 2000 and 93 countries in 2005 (Bentaouet Kattan and Burnett 2004; Bentaouet Kattan 2006). The surveys found that most developing countries charge a range of school fees and that, in many countries, fees are charged even if they are prohibited by law. In 2005, primary school was entirely free in only 16 of the 93 countries included in the survey.

Table 3.12 shows the results of the two World Bank surveys for 28 GPE countries. (Tables with larger coverage are available in the original reports and in Excel format from the GPE Secretariat.) The table covers five types of fees: fees for tuition, textbooks, uniforms, and parent-teacher associations, and other fees. The blue cells indicate no fee in either period (light blue) or fees abolished during 2000–05 (purple). Yellow indicates that the fees were charged in both years, and pink shows that the fees were added during the period. Some countries charged tuition fees even though such fees were not permitted (Honduras, Mali, and Vietnam). This is indicated by the Ns in the table.

As of 2005, none of 28 GPE countries had legal primary-school tuition fees. In half of these countries, tuition fees were abolished between 2000 and 2005.



PHOTO CREDIT: Jahne Hahn/ Save the Children

TABLE 3.12. SCHOOL FEES IN GPE COUNTRIES, CHANGE FROM 2000 TO 2005/06

Country	Tuition	Textbooks	Uniforms	PTA	Other
Cambodia					
Gambia, The					
Mozambique					N
Nepal					
Senegal					
Yemen, Rep.				N	N
Zambia					
Malawi					
Ghana				N	
Guinea-Bissau					
Lesotho					N
Madagascar					
Mauritania					
Mali	N				
Niger					
Benin					
Guinea					
Nicaragua			N		
Cameroon					
Lao PDR			N	N	N
Bhutan					
Rwanda					
Tajikistan					
Burkina Faso					N
Ethiopia			N	N	N
Uganda					
Vietnam	N	N	N	N	N
Honduras	N	N	N	N	N

Source: Based on Bentaouet Kattan and Burnett 2004; Bentaouet Kattan 2006.

Note: PTA = parent-teacher association. N = fee charged, but not legal.

No fee in 2000 or 2005

Fee in 2000 and 2005

Fee in 2000; abolished by 2005

No fee in 2000; added by 2005

Most countries also provide free textbooks. The remaining school fees are for uniforms, parent-teacher associations, and "other," which may include community contributions to schools, many of which are charged illegally or by taking advantage of vagueness in the regulations. More effective policies to protect families from these charges need to be established.

2. Transfers and special programs

Much progress has been made in the effort to achieve universal access. Yet, millions of children are out of school. The reasons for nonattendance are the need for child work, school costs, and the lack of interest (which may suggest that schools impart insufficient learning), as well as "too young" and "other." Half of all OOS children will never participate in education unless policies are changed, and the vast majority of these completely excluded children are living in the poorest households. The other half of OOS children of primary-school age will enter school some years past the grade-appropriate age. Nonparticipation, the most serious form of education exclusion, was reduced by one-third in GPE countries in 2000–10: an important achievement.

Nonparticipation, the most serious form of education exclusion, was reduced by one-third in GPE countries in 2000–10: an important achievement.

Meanwhile, the share of delayed entries among OOS children has remained more or less unchanged. The evidence suggests that delayed entry is caused less by poverty or lack of interest than by cultural barriers to sending 6- or 7-year-olds to school. In the Uganda 2005/06 and 2009/10 household surveys, young age was explicitly cited as the reason for nonattendance for over half the OOS children of primary-school age. These responses correspond well with the 65 percent of OOS children who will delay entry according to the Uganda attendance data. This means that the problem of delayed entries will not be solved through programs that focus on the removal of barriers to school entry by poor or disabled children or by children in nomad families. It is likely that public information campaigns among parents about the benefits of age-appropriate schooling would have more success. While the problem of delayed entry is less severe than the problem of total nonparticipation, it is a serious issue because delayed entrants are likely to reach adolescence—when drop-out rates increase—before they finish the primary-school cycle.

It also appears that large numbers of pupils are learning little in the first grade and are repeating often, although the repetition is underreported. As a result, enrollment in many countries is 50 or 100 percent greater in grade 1 than in grade 2. This signals a structural problem in teaching and learning in grade 1, and may be misleading policy analysts, who often conclude that the enrollment data are explained by a high drop-out rate between the first two grades.

The majority of children unlikely ever to participate in education appear to be living in lower-income households, for which direct and opportunity costs are important. In their work on inequality, UNICEF and the World Bank have reviewed the literature on initiatives that have been successful in increasing school participation among excluded groups (UNICEF 2012b). Initiatives that

help raise participation rates include cash transfer programs, scholarships, school meals, and special programs such as those among nomads in Mongolia and disabled children in Cambodia (see boxes 3.1 and 3.2). Other examples of successful interventions mentioned in the UNICEF report and aimed at tackling poverty-related barriers include the following:

- School feeding programs among poor children in Bangladesh reduced drop-out rates from 15 to 6 percent (Ahmed and del Ninno 2002).
- Another school feeding program in Bangladesh increased school entry rates among poor rural children from 85 to 94 percent and among poor urban slum children from 50 to 59 percent (Ahmed 2004).
- An international review found that cash transfer programs increased gross enrollment rates substantially among the poor, from 29 to 40 percent in the Punjab, Pakistan, from 44 to 56 percent in Bangladesh, from 65 to 96 percent in Cambodia, from 71 to 84 percent in Nicaragua, and from 75 to 85 percent in Ecuador (Fiszbein and Schady 2009).
- Cash transfers have the most impact on the extreme poor. In Nicaragua, cash transfers increased TNERs among the poor from 75 to 87 percent, but, among the extreme poor, the gain was from 66 to 92 percent (Maluccio and Flores 2005).
- Cash transfers reduced drop-out rates in Honduras from 13 to 10 percent (Glewwe and Olinto 2004).
- Preschool can increase the likelihood that a poor child will enter school. In Nepal, providing preschool to poor children increased primary-school entry rates from 75 to 95 percent (Save the Children 2003).
- Nonlearning in schools can also be addressed among poor children at low cost. The Early Grade Reading Assessment studies of the U.S. Agency for International Development and the World Bank have found a remarkable lack of learning in the early grades in many schools in developing countries. After two, three, or four years in school, many children are not able to read even individual words. Parents, presumably, take notice. There is increasing evidence that this outcome has resulted from inadequate teaching methods rather than from inherent learning difficulties among children. Tutoring and volunteer school-camps for the poor in India teach young children to read within months; and the Early Grade Reading Assessment interventions with the 5 Ts have achieved similar results (time spent teaching, better techniques, more texts, mother tongue, and testing for results) (Banerjee et al. 2010; MIT Poverty Action Lab 2006; RTI 2011). (Learning is discussed in chapter 3.)

Policy Considerations

It is imperative to make the most of the next three years—until the Education for All (EFA) target year, 2015, is reached—and seek to improve access to a school providing good quality education. Millions of children are still not in school, and it is becoming increasingly clear that this is an issue of a lack of equal access for all and the exclusion of particular groups. Given the limited time and funding available, a focus on these groups offers the best opportunity for the most progress toward achieving EFA goals.

The children who are most likely to be excluded from education are the poor, children who live in rural areas, children from nomad families, or children who have disabilities. Children in poor urban households represent a rapid-growing group among the excluded. This exclusion is not intractable; there are success stories—including programs sponsored by the Global Partnership for Education (GPE)—where schooling has been made accessible to these groups. These interventions focus on the particular barriers faced by these children: they relieve financial constraints; provide schools in remote locations; offer special curricula, flexible school schedules, roaming schools; run campaigns to end stigmatization; and train teachers to handle children with special needs.

Investing in education is the single most effective means of reducing poverty...
GPE Business Case, 2012

...but poverty is still the single most consistent barrier to education.

A finding of this chapter

Gender disparity has been greatly reduced and continues to decline: a welcome success. *The remaining pockets of gender inequity—in both primary and secondary schools—are within groups of disadvantaged children (poor, rural, or nomadic), in which the boys are also excluded.* One critical policy decision will revolve around whether to focus only on the girls in these disadvantaged groups or to develop inclusive policies that support both genders.

The most serious issue in EFA is still the relatively large group of children who will never enter school under current conditions. *This total nonparticipation in education, the most severe form of exclusion from education, is particularly skewed toward poor children.* Ninety-six percent of the children in households in the top 20 percent of the income distribution in populations in GPE countries enter school; almost a quarter of the children in households in the poorest 20 percent of these populations do not. The cause of this severe exclusion is likely financial constraints or related factors. This is supported by the high exclusion rates among the poor and the ineffectiveness of income support programs. Also important in some countries is the lack of school coverage, that is, the lack of schools in the urban and rural areas where the poor live. In Sub-Saharan Africa, 10–23 percent of children are still not within 3 kilometers of a primary school.

Getting children to enter school—eliminating total nonparticipation—is the biggest hurdle to EFA goals. *Our findings show that drop-out rates are significantly lower than commonly believed; once the barriers to school entry are removed, most children remain in school at least until grade 4.*



PHOTO CREDIT: Lucia Zoro/Save the Children

The responses reported in household surveys and used here show that drop-out rates before grade 4 are about half the rates suggested by less direct calculation methods and administrative data. The discrepancy between the low drop-out rates presented here and those found elsewhere can be explained by underreported repetition rates in the early grades that inflate the apparent dropouts and mask the share of children who have never entered school.

Rather than dropping out of school, delayed entry into education is the second leading hurdle contributing to the phenomenon of children who do not attend school. Delayed entry is problematic because children start to leave school in adolescence, and, if delayed entrants follow this pattern, they may not have time to finish a full primary-school cycle. Delayed entry is pervasive among children in all income groups; it may be more effectively tackled through public information campaigns on the benefits of prompt, age-appropriate entry into education rather than through other policies.

Absenteeism from school is high in some GPE countries and is higher among children in poor households than among children in high-income households. It is roughly equal for boys and girls. Leading causes of absenteeism are illness and the need, especially of households, for the work children can provide. This highlights the benefits of programs aimed at families to support household incomes and good nutrition and health care.

The salient finding of this report is that, in education, poverty is the strongest factor of exclusion today. Boys and girls in higher-income households are in school (even if some of them delay entry), are more well served by public schools, are able to afford private schools, and are able to go to school on most days. Among children in poor households, the barriers to education exist even at entry: once they are in school, they are likely to remain a few years. If GPE programs can focus on this group of the poor, it is likely that the resources will fill a gap because one may generally expect that the coverage of schools and teachers will, in any case, continue to favor children in more well off households.

ENDNOTES

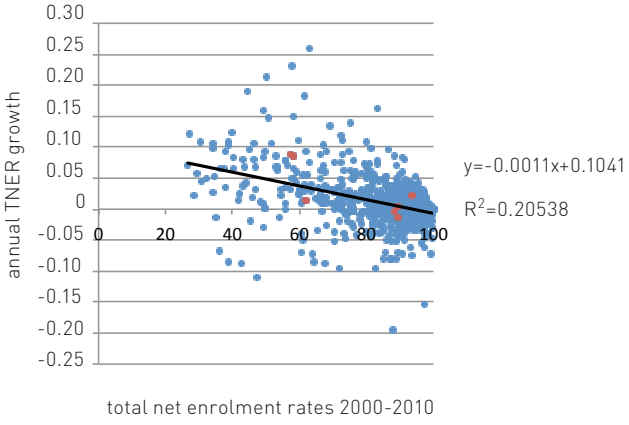
1. Out of school: children of primary-school age who are not in primary or secondary school; children of secondary-school age who are not in primary or secondary school.

2. Total net enrollment rate: (for primary school) the number of children of primary-school age in primary or secondary school, divided by the total number of children of primary-school age in the general population.

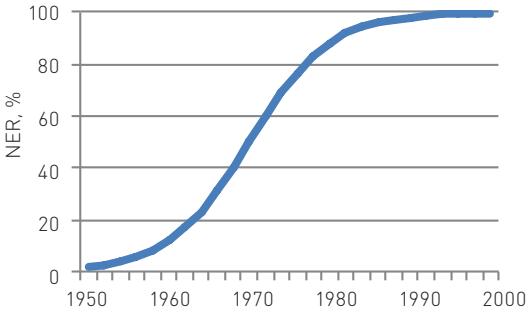
3. Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org.

4. Net enrollment rate: the number of children in a specified age-group (primary-school age or secondary-school age) enrolled at a given level of education (in our case, respectively, primary or secondary school), divided by the total number of children in the same age-group in the general population.

5. The estimate is based on a linear regression of national NER values in 2000–10 and annual growth rates (1234 points). The NER values have been taken from the UIS Data Centre database (http://www.uis.unesco.org), March 31, 2012. The figure shows the observed points for the TNER and the TNER annual growth, as well as the regression line.



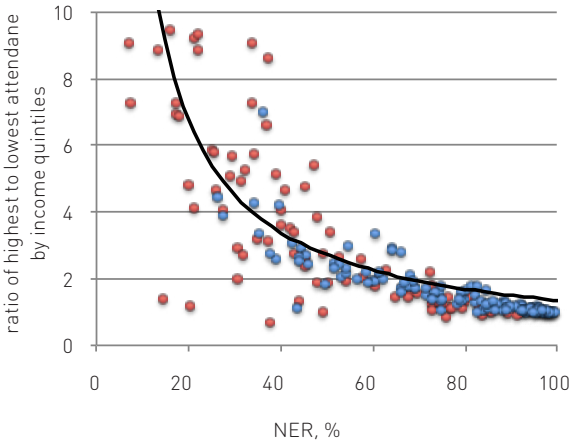
6. A logistic growth model is bounded, at the top, by a natural maximum; in the case of the NER, this is 100. As growth approaches the maximum, it slows. This results is an S-shaped growth curve (see the figure). One may calculate the logistic growth paths implied by a time series of observations by fitting a logistic curve through the observed points and using the coefficients for the curve to project future values or to calculate the estimated time necessary to reach a goal value. A growth model such as this takes into account the fact that, as the enrollment ratios reach saturation levels, additional progress is more difficult. Indeed, globally, without India and Nigeria, the world shifted to a slightly more rapid logistic growth path in the second half of the last decade compared with the first half of the decade. However, if only higher NER values are included in the estimation (as in our case here), the model becomes somewhat unstable. Thus, this result should be interpreted with caution.



7. The calculations have been carried out using the logistic growth model of Ingram et al. (2009), which has also been used for the Education Policy and Data Centre's projections for the EFA Global Monitoring Reports in 2008 and 2009 (UNESCO 2007, 2008).

8. The measure used is the total net attendance rate (NAR) in the most recent DHS or MICS survey.

9. As a general pattern, the lower the average attendance rate, the higher the relative level of inequality (the ratio of the high enrolment to the low enrolment group). This is shown in the figure using attendance differentials by income quintile. The blue dots are the ratios for primary school, and the red dots for secondary school. (The data are taken from 152 DHS and MICS surveys, 1997–2010.) Note that, at low average levels of attendance, relative inequality can be high, but the absolute differences are likely to be small. For example, an average attendance of 6 percent among children in nomad families, with 10 percent attendance for boys and 3 percent for girls, implies a gender ratio of 3.3 to 1.0, but an absolute difference of only 7 percentage points.



10. The GAR is the number of children of any age who were attending school or had attended school at some time during the specified year, divided by the total number of children in the general population that corresponds to the age-group specified by legislated standards for that level of education. Gross primary-school and gross secondary-school attendance rates are shown separately. The primary and secondary rates were calculated based on the grades indicated in responses in the household surveys and the official ages mentioned in the DHS and MICS reports. For some countries, these differ from the grades and ages in the UIS Data Centre database (http://www.uis.unesco.org).

11. Indicating education differentials based on household income quintiles is common practice and is used in the DHS and MICS reports; likewise, the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization and the World Bank present education differences according to household income in databases and reports.

12. One can argue that the differentials are larger by household income than by urban-rural location or gender because the household income indicator is divided into five quintile groups, with, as an artifact of that division, larger differentials than the other indicators, which are divided into only two groups. It is nonetheless useful to show income differentials along five groups because the distribution of income is much more uneven and cannot be so easily accommodated by a 0–1 measure. The objective is to show differences that are readily distinguishable and policy relevant.

13. In contrast, 19 GPE countries show urban-rural differences in excess of 10 percent in the GARs, and 40 show income quintile differences greater than 10 percent in the GARs.

14. See Ingram et al. (2009); Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org.

15. An orphan is a child one or both of whose parents are deceased.

16. Oxfam (2005) estimates there are 25 million–40 million school-age nomad children, who may represent approximately 15 percent of the total population in developing countries characterized by high population growth. This would mean that there are about 200 million nomads in the world today. This seems unlikely, and we do not use this estimate here.

17. See Ingram et al. (2009); Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org.

18. Kuznets hypothesized that, as a country develops economically, inequality first increases and then decreases after a certain average income level is reached (for example, see Kuznets 1955).

19. The OOS stages of exclusion as presented here require household survey data that provide information on children who have ever attended, as well as current attendance. UIS uses a similar methodology to calculate stages of exclusion across the education life cycle based on age-specific enrollment rates (UIS 2008). In the UIS calculation, the never participated category is calculated based on maximum age-specific enrollment rates. The delayed entry category is calculated as a share of the never participated category, minus the enrollment rates for the ages below the highest enrollment rate. The dropout rate is calculated as the never participated category, minus the enrollment rates for the ages above the highest enrollment rate. While this is a useful proxy method if household survey data are not available, it overestimates

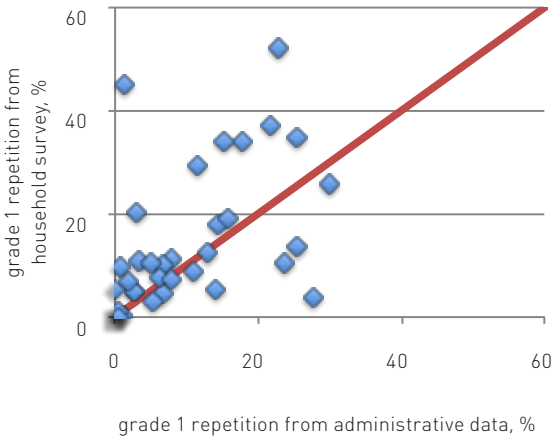
the size of the never participated and the dropout groups and underestimates the size of the delayed entry group.

20. An example is a recent publication by Lewin and Sabates (2011) based on administrative data. These data, which show many pupils in grade 1 relative to other grades, likely mask high repetition rates in grade 1, though, on the surface, they appear to reveal a high drop-out rate in grade 1. In a 2012 report, Majgaard and Mingat estimate that almost half the OOS children in Sub-Saharan Africa are dropouts. Their method is based on the difference between gross intake rates and primary-school completion rates. We are confident that the newer, more direct observation methodology developed by UNICEF and UIS and used here to calculate the share of OOS children is more reliable.

21. See the most recent survival rates to grade 4 in the UIS Data Centre database (http://www.uis.unesco.org). The survival rate is the proportion of all children who start school and who will reach grade X given the prevailing drop-out and repetition rates. The methodology for calculating the survival rate is explained in "Glossary," UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://glossary.uis.unesco.org/glossary/en/home.

22. The share of pupils reaching grade 4 is calculated as the average of the share of the population aged 15–17 who have attained grade 4 or a higher grade, divided by the share of the population aged 15–17 who have participated in education.

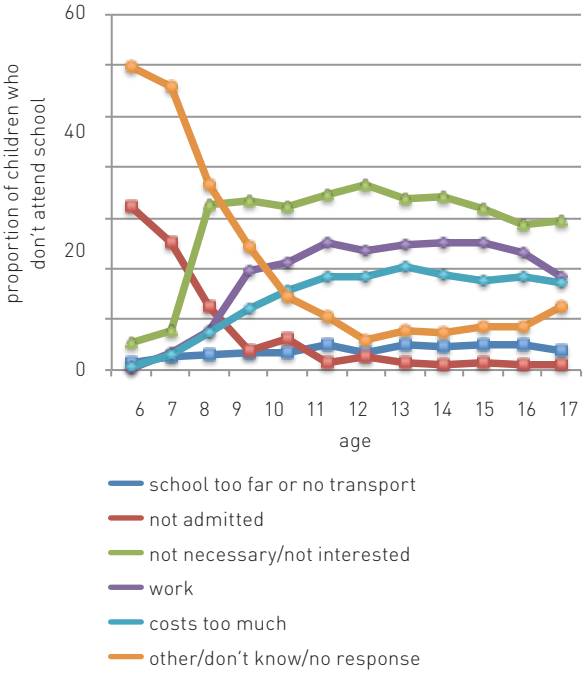
23. The chart below compares administrative data and household survey data for grade 1 repetition rates and survival rates to grade 4 in 37 GPE countries. The data are available from the GPE Secretariat.



24. The gross intake rate is the total number of new entrants in grade 1 of primary education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population at the official age set for primary-school entry.

25. Data Centre [database], UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org.

26. The figure herewith shows the distribution of responses for children who were not in school, by age, in India in 2005 (source: DHS microdata).





CHAPTER **FOUR**

LEARNING OUTCOMES AND LEARNING QUALITY

PHOTO CREDIT: Mats Lignell/Save the Children

I. Introduction and methodology

A. What can be expected from a global partnership aimed at enhancing learning outcomes?

The GPE monitoring and evaluation strategy suggests that the GPE should perform impact evaluations so as to focus on the following (cf. chapter 1):

- The influence of the GPE on policy change and resource allocations in countries and at the global level
- The influence of these policy changes on educational outcomes

These recommendations have been taken as a starting point for this chapter because they provide a neutral, objective perspective that the GPE can address and to which it can be held accountable. The structure of the chapter reflects the general sense of these methodological recommendations. The chapter relies on many sources of data, including qualitative and quantitative information, especially the country education sector plans (ESPs) and joint sector reviews (JSRs) that are core GPE outputs.[1]



PHOTO CREDIT: Joanne Offer/Save the Children

The chapter does not seek to evaluate the impact of the GPE in terms of shifts in reading skills or the degree to which policies have become refocused to include considerations of quality in learning outcomes. Rather, it identifies how quality is currently measured, the methodologies for setting formal baselines, and the conditions that are conducive for changes in quality and measurement. It also focuses on how the GPE has managed to produce changes within certain contexts.

In making judgments about the relative performance of GPE developing country partners (also referred to as GPE countries), one should exercise caution. A country may have improved learning outcomes without any financial or technical support merely because an effective plan was drafted or there was a fresh political commitment to achieve progress in education. The impact of a donor or a group of donors in firming up policy commitment is difficult to ascertain because a comparable situation in which the initial conditions are similar, but in which there is no such commitment, likely does not exist. For this reason, the impact of the GPE is difficult to assess without the in-depth studies called for by the GPE monitoring and evaluation strategy. These studies would be used to estimate the valued added by the partnership to the impact of policy actions. The total impact

may be larger than the sum of separate and uncoordinated policy actions simply because there are synergies and interactions arising from the partnership.

Nonetheless, given that the GPE has now been working for 10 years and, as of the beginning of 2012, had 46 developing countries partners, it should be possible to identify changes in policies and outcomes, especially in the core GPE outputs, namely, credible ESPs and JSRs, within a country and over the years. Because of the caveats, however, these pre- and post-GPE changes should be considered suggestive rather than as hard evidence of the impact of the GPE.

After examining the policies on learning outcomes presented in the ESPs, the chapter reviews the significance of the data on learning outcomes and how they are used. The chapter concludes with recommendations to the GPE board, donors, the GPE Secretariat, the local education groups (LEGs) (donors, ministries of education, and local nongovernmental organizations [NGOs]), and international NGOs.

B. Research questions addressed in the chapter

The chapter analyzes a set of research questions to help establish whether the GPE is making progress in efforts to achieve greater quality in education and in learning outcomes, as follows:



PHOTO CREDIT: Mats Lignell/Save the Children

- **Policies:** Have education policies been improved in GPE countries? Are quality and learning higher on the policy agenda at the international level? At the national level? Have policies become geared more toward the achievement of better outcomes in learning? In the ESPs? In the JSRs? Are increasingly efficient policies being directed at improving learning? Is better donor coordination leading to less duplication in initiatives? Are initiatives based on evidence rather than conventional wisdom?
- **Spending:** Is more spending geared toward improving learning? Is more of the money being spent on factors that could improve learning? Have there been per student spending increases in cases where spending is too low to sustain learning? What is the level of the increase in the share of non salary expenditures? Is more money reaching schools? Is the money tied to the achievement of results?
- **Data:** Are data becoming more readily available and more widely used? Are there more data available on learning outcomes? From international and

regional sources? From national sources? Are data being used more effectively to influence education policies and teaching practices? In the ESPs? In the JSRs? In government administration, including schools? In how schools interact with communities? In monitoring learning outcomes? In establishing targets in terms of learning outcomes in the ESPs or JSRs? Are trend data being produced and used in the ESPs and JSRs?

- **Learning outcomes:** Has the GPE had a positive effect on learning outcomes and learning quality? Have GPE countries become better performers than other countries, all else being equal? Are there more school resources because of the GPE? Are learning outcomes more positive?

However, because of time and space limitations, the chapter does not cover all these questions equally well; especially, spending and financial resources are addressed only in passing. The chapter focuses mainly on the issues that are expected to be most closely related to improvements in the quality of learning outcomes and issues that could be examined easily without undertaking complicated efforts at gathering data.

C. Sources of information

To obtain an impartial picture of learning outcomes and quality improvements, we have analyzed many sources of information, including the following:

- ESPs for all GPE countries on which data are available online
- JSRs for all GPE countries on which data are available online
- Reports of international organizations such as the GPE, the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the World Bank, major NGOs, and so on
- Influential research papers (cited hereafter)
- Reports and data of international programs on learning outcomes, such as programs of the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ), the Program on the Analysis of Education Systems (PASEC), the Latin American Laboratory for Assessment of the Quality of Education (LLECE) of UNESCO, and various versions of early grade reading assessments (EGRA itself and others)
- National assessment data and reports

Many countries do not provide their JSRs to the GPE, and some do not draft reports. This is an important methodological observation, but it is also a cause for concern. We have taken this into account in our attempt to produce a reasonable score on the level of country reporting. Because of the gap in reporting, if we consider only reports that are available, we may then introduce a bias into our analysis of ESPs and JSRs. According to our hypothesis, a country having problems implementing an ESP is less likely to report to the GPE either because it does not want to publicize poor results or because the complexities and constraints in implementing an ESP also affect JSR reporting. This would create a positive bias: countries that regularly file ESPs and JSRs would score above the average and would not be representative because of a selection bias. Alternatively, to achieve progress, countries facing problems may be more willing to report on the problems, or the donors in the LEGs may be insisting on report submissions. In this case, there is a negative selection bias. In reaching conclusions, one needs to understand these possible biases and realize that the net direction of the biases may be unknown.



PHOTO CREDIT: Mats Lignell/Save the Children

To avoid evaluation bias, we recommend that the GPE redouble its efforts to ensure 100 percent reporting in a standardized way compatible with a demand-led, country-based approach. Such an effort is already under way through planned workshops to improve the JSRs and LEGs in terms of data provision.

D. Synthesizing information through scores

We have created analytic grids to describe the policies and the availability and use of data on learning outcomes in each country. The goal is to produce country scores that will help identify the countries that need financial or technical support from the GPE and other bilateral or multilateral donors. The scores should reflect the context and the level of political commitment to quality. Annex 4A presents the country scores. The indicators used to monitor learning outcomes in the ESPs are described in annex 4B, which also shows how the indicators fit within the GPE Results Framework.

II. Learning outcomes in education sector plans and joint sector reviews

The main GPE policy, planning, funding, and monitoring documents are the ESPs and the JSRs. The first place one would expect to find evidence of a greater focus among GPE partner countries on learning outcomes and education quality would be in the ESPs and JSRs. In this section, through an analysis of the most recent available ESPs and JSRs across all GPE countries, we therefore examine the extent to which the international commitment to enhanced learning outcomes and greater quality in education systems have been translated into more effective policies.[2]

An initial finding is that the majority of the plans are based on the principle of adding quality to quantity (according to the ESP of Vietnam, which has reached universal primary education). The principle, presumably, is to achieve the access goals in education before achieving the quality goals. Few plans acknowledge that improvements in the quality of education can be expected to have a positive influence on enrollment. An important underlying assumption appears to be that it is not possible, in education, to enhance quality and improve access at the same time.

Few plans acknowledge that improvements in the quality of education can be expected to have a positive influence on enrollment.

A second finding is that few plans are based on rigorous studies of the factors associated with higher quality in education or on analyses of the elements in the approaches that are most cost-effective. There is relatively little evidence indicating that ESPs have relied on background studies on education production functions, randomized trials or other closely evaluated pilot projects, meta-analyses (except Papua New Guinea), or even international surveys. If the ESPs address quality, they seem to interpret it mainly in terms of inputs and processes that are generally derived from conventional approaches and that, they assume (though there may be little basis in research), will lead to better outcomes. The focus on inputs may be simply the consequence of a lack of data on learning outcomes; however, if the ESPs do not include precise plans to develop mechanisms for monitoring learning outcomes, then learning cannot be adequately addressed in the JSRs, which leads to a vicious circle. Most striking is the gap between the country status reports (CSRs) and the current diagnosis of quality in the ESPs (at least in francophone Africa). The ESPs do not appear to pay much attention to the CRSs. (The World Bank has plans to develop communication tools to disseminate CSR findings [GPE 2012].) The gap is especially notable if the CSRs contain good documentation on learning outcomes. In such cases, the ESPs could easily be more comprehensive on this issue; it would only be necessary to consult the CSRs. However, many ESPs were drafted before the drafting countries had produced assessment results (Togo, for example). Thus, we have conducted a systematic analysis of the JSRs to add more recent inputs. The more recent ESPs and JSRs are, indeed, more effective at addressing learning gaps (see below). Oral

Few plans are based on rigorous studies of the factors associated with higher quality in education or on analyses of the elements in the approaches that are most cost-effective.

fluency assessments have helped move issues of learning quality and reading proficiency to the top of the agenda: there has clearly been progress. The GPE will systematically assist the LEGs in addressing the quality issue by refocusing on learning outcomes, rather than merely on inputs.

The entry point for policies aiming at enhancing quality is often input or curriculum issues (updating syllabi, providing higher certification or refresher courses for teachers, and improving school materials), but not, for example, the amount or depth of instruction, classroom teaching practices, school administration, and the language of instruction, which have been clearly identified in the literature as key factors in efforts to achieve better learning outcomes. Rigorous best practice observation of classroom behavior and the supply of suitable teacher support and supervision are rare. Many GPE partners have drafted plans to achieve enhancements in this area, but much must still be done.

A. Classifying ESP policies that aim at quality

Turning to the explicit components of the ESPs that focus on quality or learning outcomes, we now seek to answer a few key questions, as follows:

- What measures and policy orientations have been proposed to improve learning?
- To what extent do the policies reflect the literature on the factors of quality globally?
- To what extent do the policies reflect specific national studies?

To compare the literature with the ESPs, we have produced an analytical framework based on two sorts of research: macro or global (in which comparisons are made across countries) and micro or country-specific (in which comparisons are made among pupils, classrooms, and schools). A discussion of the literature we have reviewed is included in annex 4C.

To compare the policy orientations in ESPs with the various categories of factors of quality that are most commonly cited in the literature, we have adopted a classification framework, as follows:

1. Curriculum development (changes in syllabi or textbooks; changes in teacher training programs, including refresher courses; changes in pedagogical approaches, including new teaching methods such as competency-based methods and the shift from synthetic to analytical reading methods; and so on)

2. Teacher development or teacher training (preservice training, in-service training, distance training, and so on)

3. Teacher incentives (premiums for teaching in remote areas, other special incentives)

4. School materials (pedagogical tools such as textbooks, teacher guidebooks, libraries, and so on)

5. School equipment or school infrastructure (buildings and furniture such as desks, chairs, and so on)

6. National language (any change in the language of instruction in the classroom, including, for example, the shift from French to English in Rwanda)

7. Pedagogical supervision (teacher mentoring, teacher coaching, or inspections in schools or in school districts)

8. Time in instruction (changes in official instruction times or effective time spent on instruction tasks, reductions in pupil and teacher absenteeism, shifts in the allocation of hours per subject (more often considered a curriculum policy issue)

9. Reductions in pupil-teacher ratios or class sizes

10. School networking (reorganization in school clusters or networks, more horizontal collaboration across schools)

11. Learning outcome monitoring (if it is used to improve learning outcomes rather than merely as a measurement tool)

12. Inclusive education (policies targeting special groups such as the disadvantaged, handicapped, or ethnic minorities in terms of the quality of education or adaptations in teaching approaches)

13. Information and communication technology (any large-scale deployment of computers or the internet in schools for teaching or administrative purposes or for school networking and including radio or television programs)



PHOTO CREDIT: Ayesha Vellani/Save the Children

14. School administration (revisions or enhancements in the role of school principals)

15. Health and nutrition (deworming, school feeding programs, and so on)

16. Effective educational models (for example, Escuela Nueva, a progressive approach to learning)

Though early childhood education, reductions in repetition rates, community involvement, and other such policy approaches are often directed at raising access or at general improvements in school administration, they can also enhance education quality and learning outcomes. Equity is often treated either as a cross-cutting issue or as a separate element. The separation of access, equity, and quality is the most common pattern in the ESPs, in which quality is often coupled or even confused with internal efficiency (including reductions in repetition or drop-out rates, which may or may not be related to quality). This reflects a diagnostic structure and the underlying documents and methodologies based on UNESCO indicators of quality that are oriented mostly toward inputs (the share of trained teachers, the pupil-teacher ratio, and so on), that tend to use internal efficiency as a proxy for quality, and that date from a period when no direct measurement of quality was available (for example, see UNESCO 2004). However, there has been a shift in recent ESPs to a concept of quality that increasingly refers not only to traditional school inputs such as textbooks and teacher training, but also to outcomes and the structures and processes needed to manage teaching and learning proactively.

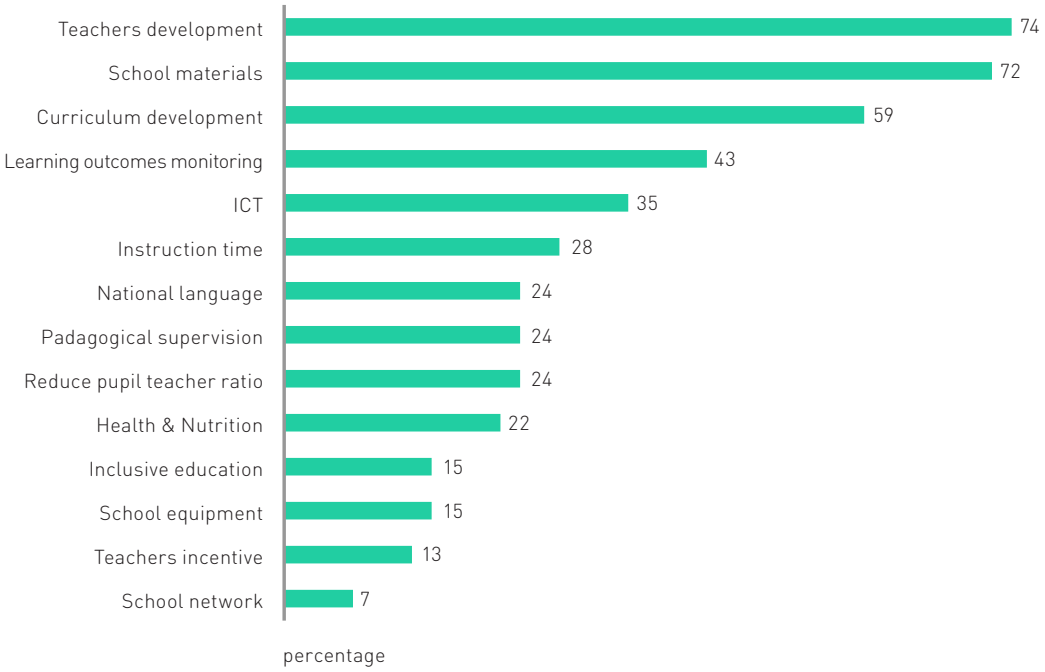


PHOTO CREDIT: Susan Warner/Save the Children

B. ESP policies aimed at quality improvements

Figure 4.1 gives a picture of the policies proposed in most ESPs. (One should keep in mind that there can be a large gap between the policies enunciated in plans, norms, or bureaucratic circulars and the policies that are actually implemented.)

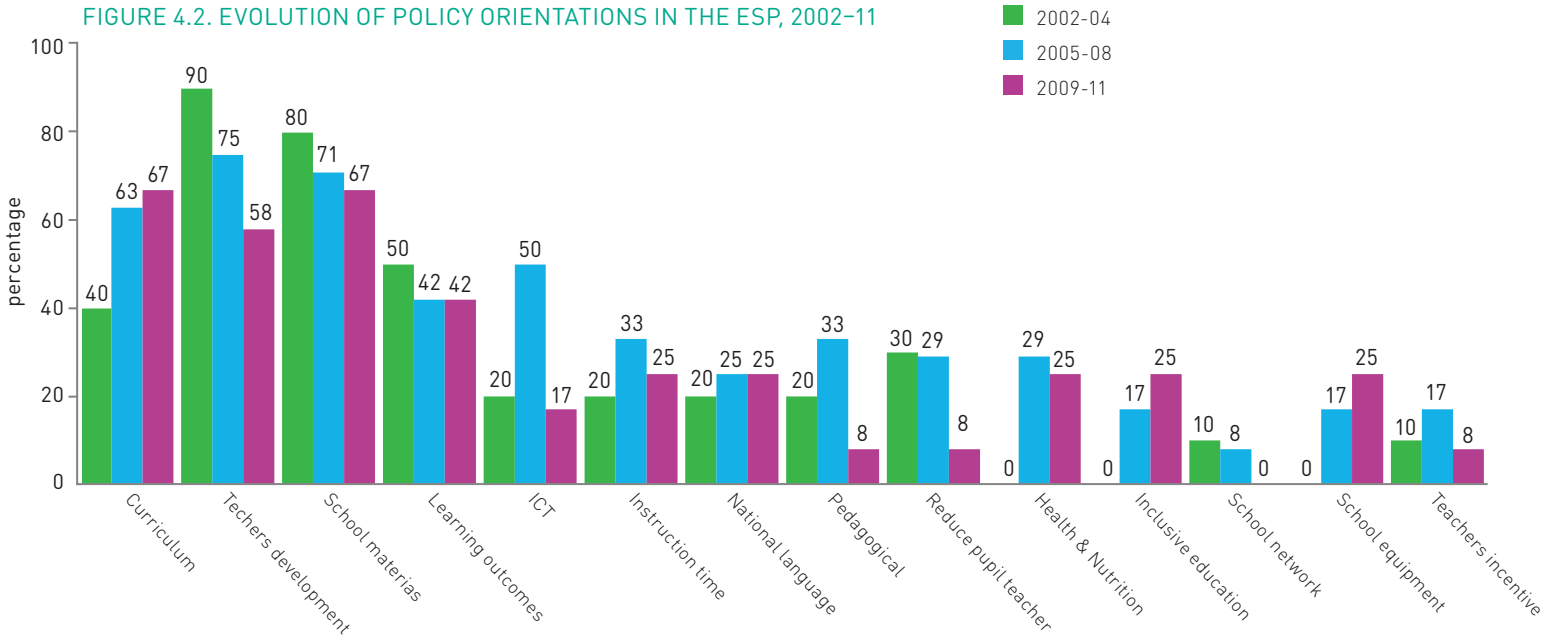
FIGURE 4.1. ESP POLICIES: GPE COUNTRIES COVERING TOPICS IN THE EDUCATION QUALITY COMPONENT



Source: Reviews of all ESPs (GPE, "Education Sector Plan," various).

Figure 4.1 describes the policy situation in terms of ESPs that are currently in force. However, if one analyzes trends by breaking down the ESPs across time, it appears that curriculum change has become the most frequently proposed policy approach and that teacher training and school teaching materials have lost ground (figure 4.2). School equipment has begun to appear more frequently (it barely appeared in 2002–04), as has inclusive education (which did not appear in 2002–04) and health and nutrition. Reducing the pupil-teacher ratio has become a less frequent policy option in the most recent ESPs, while the appearance of instruction time as a policy approach is constant.

FIGURE 4.2. EVOLUTION OF POLICY ORIENTATIONS IN THE ESP, 2002–11



Source: Reviews of all ESPs (GPE, "Education Sector Plan," various).

The newer ESPs seem to be slightly better-aligned with influential international reports such as UNESCO's *EFA Global Monitoring Report*, especially in dealing with inclusive education. Nonetheless, few ESPs address learning in specific action plans, and even learning outcome indicators target the end of the education cycle, but not the development of foundation skills. There is no explicit policy on the early grades in most ESPs, though this is likely to change. Most policies on quality persist in focusing on inputs that are presumed to lead to positive learning outcomes; few focus on the tight integration and close management of the process of assessment-for-learning, training in specific teaching techniques that are known to be effective, and the integration of assessment with lesson plans and learning materials.

As a specific example of this problem, one might focus on instructional time or the opportunity to learn. Abdazi (2007) identifies instruction time as a key factor in learning that is often poorly addressed. In many countries, the amount of time pupils spend in instruction is reduced greatly by teacher strikes, fieldwork, elections, official ceremonies, and other causes. Often, administrative demands, such as training programs and meetings at district offices, or poor payroll management, force teachers to be absent. There is also a lack of teacher accountability. In classrooms, much time is spent instilling discipline or in process management duties, to the detriment of teaching. Teaching methods—whether teacher-based or learner-centered—are poorly applied, which reduces effectiveness. For example, group work is often merely chaotic. (Some studies show a correlation between group work among learners and a lack of focus among

teachers on the classroom.) This crucial issue is not adequately addressed in most ESPs, but our analysis of JSRs shows that progress is being made.

Though a minimum level of effective instruction time is a condition for learning, the measurement of effective learning poses several challenges. The Indicative Framework of the Fast Track Initiative, as the GPE was once known, included an instruction time indicator (the number of effective hours of instruction per year) that is too difficult to measure properly in developing countries and is not used in international surveys. The Fast Track Initiative attempted to collect data on this indicator by examining various types of information, as follows:

- The number of teaching days in the school year
- School visits to obtain a rough estimate of teacher absenteeism
- The number of teaching days schools were closed
- Follow-up surveys on teacher and pupil absenteeism

By estimating the number of days schools are closed or teachers and pupils are absent, the Cameroon PASEC survey in 2007 and the Morocco EGRA in 2012 found that an average 25 percent of school days are missed each year. Reports discussed by Moore, DeStefano, and Adelman (2011) show that, across several countries, the time spent in effective learning is around a third of the total time theoretically available during a school year. No GPE reports contain comparable data on instruction time. The GPE, in the Results Framework, proposes that countries measure at least some of the relevant factors on a regular basis. In the GPE 2012 strategic planning process, the use by countries of a quality assurance framework that includes data on issues such as absenteeism among teachers and pupils is being considered.

In most ESPs, direct discussion of learning outcomes is relatively rare, and evidence-based discussion of how various inputs and processes lead to learning outcomes is even more rare.

C. Changes in the way ESPs address learning outcomes

In most ESPs, direct discussion of learning outcomes is relatively rare, and evidence-based discussion of how various inputs and processes lead to learning outcomes is even more rare (see above). However, the situation may be changing. In the examination of learning outcomes among GPE countries, the years 2008–09 are a sort of hinge created by the conjunction of several factors, including the expansion of the EGRA project, greater collaboration across international programs, and a continued dialogue about the quality issue, which has shifted the agenda in both countries and key donor agencies. These years also saw a surge in research and the collection of data on learning outcomes because of the increase in the use of the EGRAs, the greater awareness of the potential of tools such as

Assessment Survey Evaluation Research (ASER) of the Indian NGO Pratham, the extension of PASEC beyond Africa, the ongoing efforts of other regional assessments such as LLECE and SACMEQ, IEA studies in a growing number of countries, and the development of national assessments in all parts of the world. In particular, this subsection will show that GPE countries are focusing more frequently on learning assessments. We rely on the following criteria:

- Do the diagnostic sections of ESPs describe learning outcomes using data based on standardized assessments? If so, what are the sources of the data? Do the data precisely describe the situation? (Do they use clear categories of pupil competencies? Do they cover trends? Are there any metadata on sample size or assessment content?)

- In the action plans and the logical framework, is there any consideration of a learning outcomes monitoring system? Are indicators defined precisely? Is there a precise target in terms of learning outcomes? (If so, how is the target expressed? Is it compatible with the Results Framework?) Are actions proposed that are based on feedback from the learning assessments or other evidence and that are aimed at improving results?

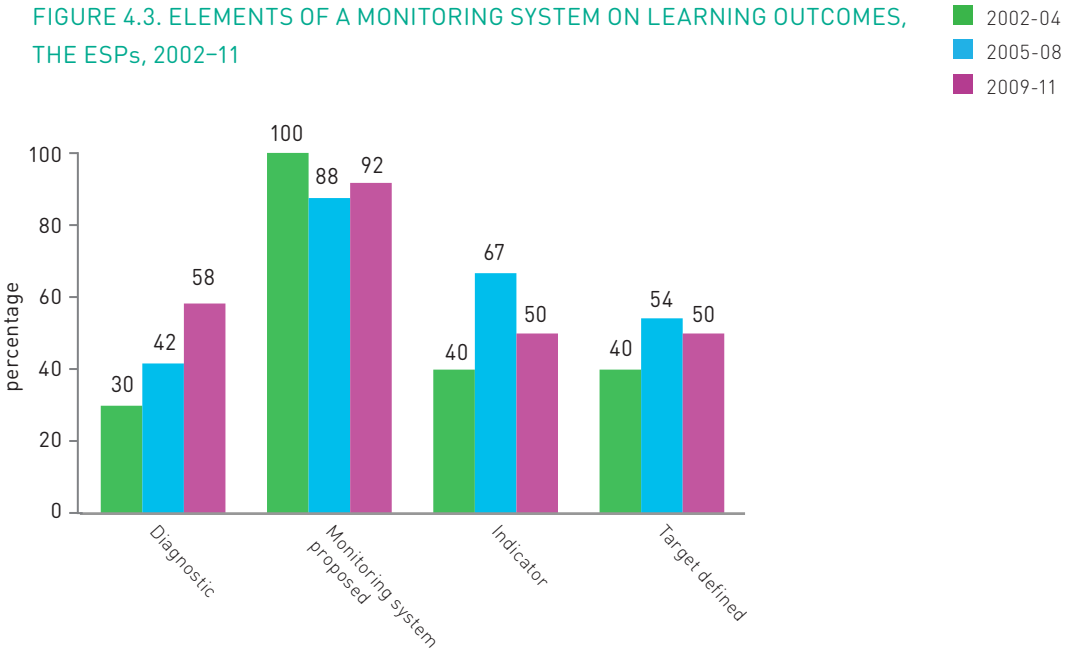


PHOTO CREDIT: Save the Children

We may analyze ESPs using these criteria. However, because only GPE countries have produced GPE plans, we can make no comparison between non-GPE and GPE countries on the basis of GPE-oriented plans. Annex 4A describes a detailed analysis of the results, by country, of the monitoring of learning outcomes through ESPs and JSRs.

Nine in ten ESPs include proposals to develop systems to monitor learning outcomes, but few of the proposals are detailed. Progress has been made in the plans with respect to the use of data for the diagnoses because of the availability of more data and a growing awareness of the need to use such data; clear targets on measurable learning outcomes are also being set. In 2009–11, 58 percent of the countries considered both the data and the targeting. Across the three periods shown in figure 4.3, only 12 countries (of the 46 considered) cover the four aspects of a learning outcomes monitoring system—definition of indicators, monitoring, diagnosis, and targeting—in their ESPs. More frequently, countries propose a learning outcome monitoring approach (perhaps including indicators), but do not define any precise target or offer any clarity on how the approach will not merely monitor, but also help drive improvements in instruction.

FIGURE 4.3. ELEMENTS OF A MONITORING SYSTEM ON LEARNING OUTCOMES, THE ESPs, 2002–11



Source: Review of all ESPs (GPE, "Education Sector Plan," various).

However, if the targets in the ESPs are expressed in terms of indicators, only about a third of the indicators listed in annex 4B fit in the Results Framework, which is to be expected, given that the Results Framework is new. The most recent plans (2009–11) may be improved on this point. For example, the recent ESP of Côte d'Ivoire does not contain a clearly identified quality component, though it does present a scheme to enhance the monitoring of learning outcomes.

In September 2009, the GPE decided to take learning outcomes into account in the ESPs. The ESPs endorsed henceforward would necessarily already include information and analysis on learning outcomes. Where no information exists, the ESPs would report the problem and propose ways to resolve the gap. Trends would be captured in joint midterm or annual reviews. GPE focal points would assist the LEGs, particularly during the transition to this new regime. In turn, the LEGs would assist governments.

However, learning outcomes are still not being systematically addressed in the ESPs even if substantial data are available. One must admit that the inclusion of data or explicit policy on learning outcomes is not yet a criterion to be part of the Global Partnership because, in fact, many developing country partners do not address learning outcomes adequately. Nonetheless, some countries that did not previously have an explicit strategy on learning outcomes are now addressing the issue.

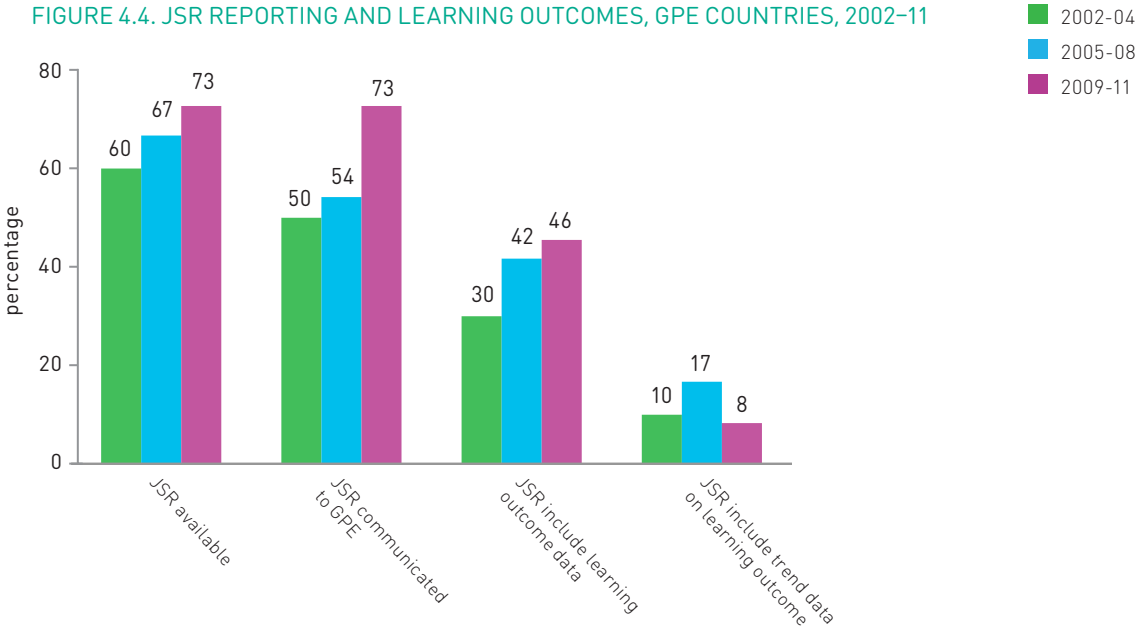
D. Analysis of the joint sector reviews

The analysis of the ESPs must be accompanied by an analysis of the JSRs. Because the JSRs track or should track the ESPs, they may provide more recent information that focuses on learning outcomes. In any case, assessing the degree to which the JSRs address learning outcomes and whether there is any trend in the level of attention by countries on learning outcomes is useful.

Only 40 percent of GPE countries included data on learning outcome in their JSRs, and only 13 percent included an analysis of trends in learning outcomes.

If a relatively significant share of GPE countries do not report data and analysis on learning outcomes, do not have policies on learning outcomes, or do not submit JSRs, then the overall situation may be worse than indicated by an analysis of the JSRs that contain the relevant reporting. Indeed, over 2002–11, only 40 percent of GPE countries included data on learning outcome in their JSRs, and only 13 percent included an analysis of trends in learning outcomes (figure 4.4). Since not all countries report JSRs, and since the non-reporting countries may be paying less (or more) attention to learning outcomes than the reporting countries, it is unknown whether the 40 percent that include learning outcomes is representative of all countries, or only of those reporting.

FIGURE 4.4. JSR REPORTING AND LEARNING OUTCOMES, GPE COUNTRIES, 2002–11



Source: Review of all JSRs (GPE, "Joint Sector Review," various).

In general, countries that recently joined the Global Partnership perform better than those which had joined at the beginning of the partnership regarding the submission of JSRs and the provision of learning outcomes assessment data. Despite the existence of data, many JSR participants are not addressing learning outcomes adequately (see annex 4D). However, the case studies in box 4.1. describe how Malawi and The Gambia are utilizing their data on learning outcomes.

BOX 4.1. TWO CASE STUDIES: UTILIZING DATA ON LEARNING OUTCOMES

Malawi: achieving progress in addressing learning outcomes

School fees were eliminated in Malawi in 1994, which resulted in a 70 percent increase in enrollments over the subsequent two years (UNESCO 2007). Between 1995 and 2000, there was a significant drop in SACMEQ test scores. Between 2000 and 2007, the test scores rose in mathematics. Across all these SACMEQ rounds, Malawi had the lowest average scores.

The data of the SACMEQ survey in 2007 were not released until 2010, but the data of the round in 2000 were available for the 2008 and 2009 JSRs. The 2008 JSR called for an effective monitoring and evaluation system and funding to provide an evidence base for planning. However, it did not mention the SACMEQ data. The use of assessment reports and available data, including SACMEQ data, had been planned for, but there was no follow-through in the final report.

Since then, Malawi has faced the problem and has achieved progress in addressing the learning outcomes issue. Thus, the 2011 JSR is much more well documented and includes detailed data on learning outcomes based on national and international assessments. The report acknowledges that Malawi has the lowest SACMEQ scores, clearly shows the place of the country in international results, and outlines objectives and plans to implement EGRA and carry out a national assessment.

The Gambia: the optimal use of data

The Gambia represents a good example of the use of data to foster enhanced learning outcomes in a context of adequate political commitment. According to the Gambian ESP, the country's policy objectives are founded on the assumption that improvements in the quality and relevance of schooling will increase the demand for basic education. Quality is thus considered a cornerstone of the education system.

The ESP diagnosis of the learning deficit in The Gambia is detailed and addresses critical issues such as problems in instruction, time devoted to learning, teacher skills, and teacher support. The diagnosis focuses on curricula, textbook revisions, and other inputs, but also outcomes, including the lack of national standards and benchmarks.

Classroom visits in 2007 revealed that a significant share of pupils in grade 5 could not read aloud. This created a stir within the Ministry of Education, which immediately tackled the problems in reading, mostly relying on the country's own resources and professional relationships. At first, the international community did not react even though The Gambia requested help in improving quality. Soon, though, the World Bank, joined later by the GPE, did respond. There was thus a political commitment, supported by technical expertise, at the early stages of reform in The Gambia.

The entry points for enhancing the quality of education in The Gambia are the following:

- The use of the five national languages; once pupils are able to read in their mother tongue, they can transfer their reading skills to English
- A focus on phonics in teaching
- Classroom assessments and an approach involving giving each pupil a chance to participate to ensure that no children are left behind
- Teacher training and the monitoring of specific teaching techniques through the regular visits of teaching coaches

- South-South cooperation with Liberia; however, there has been little cooperation with Senegal, although Senegal is the only country directly bordering The Gambia, shares national languages with The Gambia, and has, like The Gambia, also tried to introduce the use of national languages in education
- International expertise provided on a demand-led basis
- A communications campaign

The 2009 JSR contained detailed information gathered through pupil assessments and early grade assessments. In the 2011 JSR, quality issues and relevant data were given considerable attention, including the following:

- The systematic use of early grade assessments
- Recommendations to implement an early assessment in national languages
- The continued development of the national assessment
- The use of teacher assessments

The government received a GPE Education Program Development Fund grant of close to US$150,000, to which it added other national resources to reach a total of US$300,000 to cover the cost of related interventions.

A reading assessment was scheduled for mid-2012, but the results and the impact of these other actions cannot yet be determined. Nonetheless, the effort in The Gambia has already been a success in terms of the cooperation among the government, a professional community of practice, NGOs, and international agencies on important issues of quality in education and the detailed analysis of learning gaps. Thus, for example, the teachers union has been actively engaged in the implementation of reforms, and a debate has been opened with the local donor group (led by UNICEF), the U.S. Peace Corps, the NGO Future in Our Hands, and local communities on the introduction of national languages to support the skills of pupils in English. A related program also emphasizes capacity building at the Ministry of Education in textbook development, teacher training, and pupil assessment.

E. Comparing education sector plans and joint sector reviews

There is only a small overlap between the ESPs and the JSRs in the examination of learning outcomes: learning issues raised in ESPs are not often tracked in the JSRs. This seems also to be the case of other issues and may be the result of turnover in the membership of LEGs or a lack of effective ownership of the documents by governments and civil society organizations. With more involvement of such organizations, there might be more continuity between the ESPs and the JSRs.

Our comparison shows the following among the 12 least-performing GPE countries (out of 46 GPE countries) in addressing learning outcomes in the ESP:

- Five countries had not submitted a JSR
- One country had drafted a JSR, but had not communicated it to the GPE
- The JSRs of only four countries contain data on learning outcomes
- In one country in which data and evaluations on learning outcomes exist, they are not included in the JSR

Among the 12 best- performing GPE countries (out of 46) in addressing learning outcomes in the ESPs, our comparison shows the following:

- Two—Papua New Guinea and São Tomé and Príncipe—had not submitted JSRs
- Nine had drafted JSRs
- Seven of the JSRs include data on learning outcomes

Thus, even among countries that address learning outcomes in their ESPs, only about half address learning outcomes in their JSRs. In general, countries that do not address learning outcomes in their ESPs also do not address them in their JSRs, and many countries that do address the issue in the ESPs do not always do so in the JSRs. Learning outcomes have been addressed more regularly in recent JSRs. Indeed, in this sense, the progress is clear.

Yet, if learning outcomes are addressed, the analysis is usually incomplete. Of the 46 GPE countries, only 3—Lesotho, Madagascar, and Mozambique (see annex 4A)—have fully addressed learning outcomes in their ESPs (diagnosis, proposals for a monitoring system, indicators, and targets) and in the JSRs (including trend data). In Central Asia, JSRs are conducted, but the results are generally not communicated to the GPE. In those JSRs that are submitted, there is little treatment of learning outcomes. Part of the reason is that, unlike other regions of the developing world, there is no regional learning assessment in Asia. The GPE plans to support a process of discussion on this issue. UNESCO and the World Bank have also been encouraging such a discussion, as well as collaboration and interregional exchanges of experiences with LLECE, PASEC, and SACMEQ.

The GPE will continue to provide financial and technical support to countries to analyze learning outcomes in their JSRs. Processes undertaken recently following workshops in Rwanda on reading and other JSR-oriented workshops in 2012 may start to change the trend. The greater use of monitoring indicators on learning should induce countries to focus more on learning in their JSRs.

III. Conclusions drawn from regional and international assessments

One might compare the results of regional and international assessments to arrive at a tentative conclusion about the relative demand in GPE countries and in other countries for data on learning outcomes. Thus, in addition to analyzing the supply of data, this section provides tentative answers to two important questions: (a) is the demand for data on learning outcomes greater in GPE countries? and (b) do GPE countries perform better or worse in learning outcome assessments?

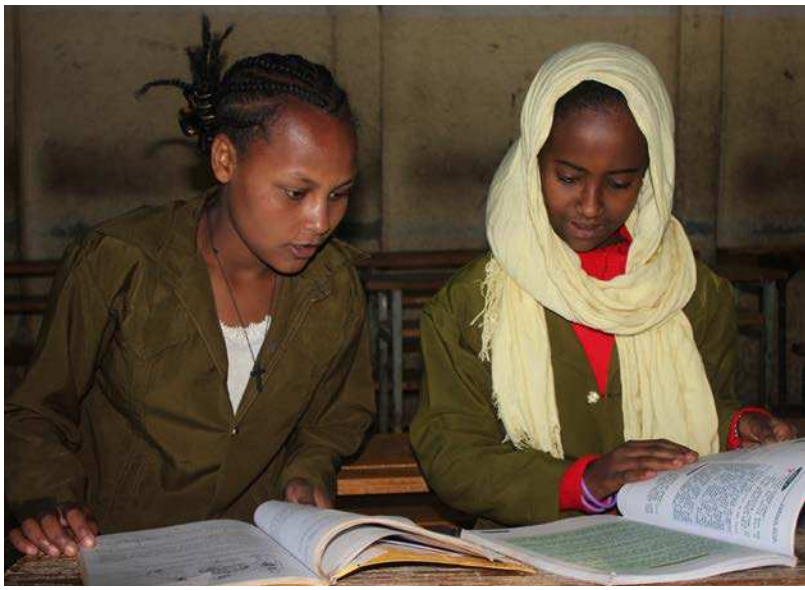
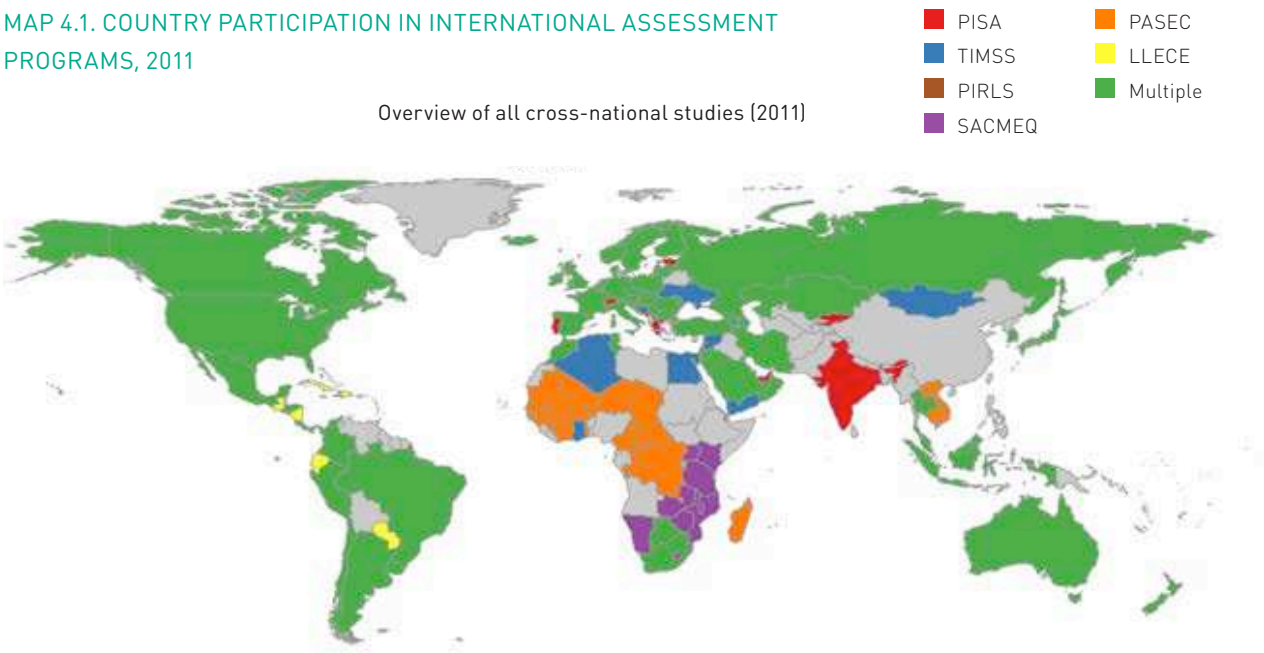


PHOTO CREDIT: Colin Crowley/Save the Children

A useful starting point is the databases that combine many sources of information on learning outcomes in some comparable manner. Altinok (2010) has developed an international data set by linking data of LLECE, PASEC, the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS), SACMEQ, and the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) to the U.S. National Assessment of Educational Progress. The United States provides a solid anchor because it has an elaborate assessment system and participates in so many of the international assessments. The data set also uses data of the Monitoring Learning Achievement (MLA) Program on developing countries. The MLA program, which is no longer active, was successful in building capacity and producing data on learning outcomes after 2000. However, the methodology did not allow the production of comparable data because each country developed its own assessments and sampling procedures (Chinapah 2003). Using the MLA for comparisons is therefore problematic, although Majgaard and Mingat (2012) find a correlation between the MLA scaled index—the Index of School Quality in Africa—and the share of the adult population that is literate after attaining six years of schooling, which is a proxy for quality in education.

The Altinok (2010) dataset includes 118 countries on which there are data on primary education, of which 24 are GPE countries and 6 are GPE-eligible countries. The 2010 data set does not include recent data such as the 2007 round of SACMEQ, but a new data set is under development (Altinok, Diebolt, and De Meuleester 2011). SACMEQ also includes PIRLS and TIMSS items, which allows a strict comparison on the same scale (using test equating and the Rasch model), but this procedure was not used by Altinok to anchor the various tests. It should eventually be possible to use these items to link the assessments. Thus, there are limitations, but the Altinok data set represents the only international database that allows comparisons of learning outcomes across different types of economies and International Development Association lending group categories.

MAP 4.1. COUNTRY PARTICIPATION IN INTERNATIONAL ASSESSMENT PROGRAMS, 2011



Source: Elaborated for this report by Pierre Varly, in collaboration with Frank van Cappelle, based on information on international assessment websites and Interactive Maps and Visualizations (database), StatSilk, Melbourne, http://www.statsilk.com/.
Note: PISA = Programme for International Student Assessment (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development).

Using a compilation of countries different from that in the Altinok Database shows the current coverage of international assessments: Southern Africa, East and West Africa, North and South America, and Europe are well covered in terms of the number of international assessment programs carried out, while North Africa, Asia, and the Middle-East are relatively undercovered, despite progress between 2009 and 2011. In 1990, Africa and Latin America were not covered at all, and IEA studies were the only source of comparable data. There has thus been progress in the measurement of learning outcomes in the last two decades. For a more detailed review of the methodologies of international programs, see Wagner (2011).

Southern Africa, East and West Africa, North and South America, and Europe are well covered in terms of the number of international assessment programs carried out, while North Africa, Asia, and the Middle-East are relatively undercovered.

A. The participation of GPE countries and other countries in learning assessments

In the Altinok database, 24 of the 46 GPE countries (52.2 percent) are covered by an assessment, versus 6 of 25 non-GPE countries (24.0 percent) in the low- and lower-middle-income group. This suggests that GPE countries participate more frequently in international assessments relative to non-GPE countries. However, this may also be the result of selection rather than being caused by GPE membership: the GPE partners with developing countries that show a willingness to become committed to improving their education systems and that, partly for this reason, are more likely to achieve progress. These countries

may have a disposition to assess learning outcomes that is independent of GPE membership. Similarly, the scrutiny of the GPE and the LEGs may tend to encourage GPE countries to participate in assessments.

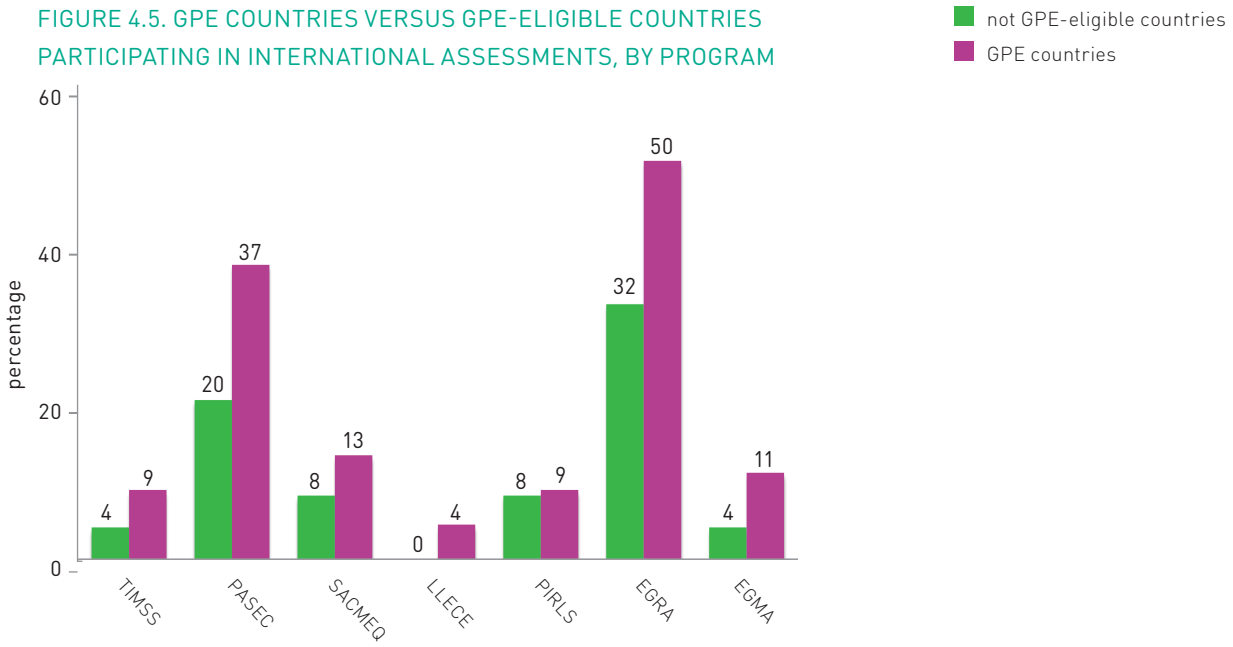
The Altinok data do not cover more recent assessments such as ASER, EGRA, or Uwezo (an initiative to improve literacy and numeracy among children in Kenya, Tanzania, and Uganda), but these are adding considerably to the knowledge about various countries. (For a description of these and other assessments, see annex 4E.) In Latin America and the Caribbean, for example, the GPE countries Guyana, Haiti, and Honduras did not participate in LLECE's Second Regional Comparative and Explanatory Study (SERCE), but have been involved in EGRA assessments. ASER and EGRA have also covered several East and South Asian countries, which are not otherwise frequently covered. Globally, EGRAs of various sorts have provided substantial amounts of data on 50 percent of GPE countries, filling some of the gaps in information. Such assessments represent useful guides for the measurement of data for the GPE Results Framework, although, here, we take baseline data for the GPE Results Framework only from system- or national-level EGRAs (figure 4.5, which is derived from annex 4G) and not from the more project-like or sub-national ones. Also, we count only EGRAs that are administered externally by trained professionals or volunteers, and have produced results that have been analyzed in depth. These criteria are necessary because the term EGRA is in the public domain, and many users have appropriated and modified the original tool to describe a wide variety of assessments. Indeed, 60 percent of EGRAs are system- or national-level diagnoses, including snapshots that are based on nationally representative samples; another 40 percent are program evaluations or classroom-based assessments.

52.2 percent of GPE countries participated in a learning assessment, while only 24 percent of non-GPE countries in the low- and lower-middle-income group participated.



PHOTO CREDIT: Mats Lignell/Save the Children

FIGURE 4.5. GPE COUNTRIES VERSUS GPE-ELIGIBLE COUNTRIES PARTICIPATING IN INTERNATIONAL ASSESSMENTS, BY PROGRAM



Source: Calculated based on information in the international program websites (accessed as of February 8, 2012).

Note: EGMA = Early Grade Mathematics Assessment. EGMA and EGRA include only system- or national-level assessments based on nationally representative samples. They exclude impact or program evaluations, single-region assessments, or more casual assessments.

Figure 4.5 shows clearly that participation in international assessments is more extensive among GPE countries than among countries that are eligible to join the GPE, but that have not joined yet (overall, 84 versus 56 percent). Furthermore, the trend has picked up in recent years. More GPE countries have enrolled in regional and international assessment programs since September 2009, when GPE began to focus more closely on the gathering of data on learning outcomes. Specifically, since September 2009, Cambodia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, and Vietnam have joined PASEC (data collection is under way); Honduras and the Republic of Yemen have joined TIMSS (data were collected and, in December 2012, were released); and Burundi, Mozambique, Papua New Guinea, Rwanda, Vietnam, the Republic of Yemen, and Zambia have carried out system- or national-level EGRAs based on nationally representative samples (data have been collected).

GPE countries also conduct national assessments on their own relatively more often: 61 percent of GPE countries do so, versus 40 percent of GPE-eligible countries (see annex 4F). Donors such as the Agence Française de Développement, the U.K. Department for International Development, UNESCO, the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID), and the World Bank provide financial and technical assistance for most of the assessments. The assessments are still generally one-off initiatives, although a few countries have undertaken regular surveys, including Ghana, Lesotho, Senegal, and Vietnam. Furthermore, they

cannot be readily used in multi-country comparisons because the indicators or samples are defined differently in different countries. Likewise, there is much uncertainty regarding trends in the results of the national assessments because most of them do not rely on clearly defined and comparable indicators over time. According to Lockheed (2008, 11), for example, "the minimum requirements for monitoring change over time are rarely satisfied by existing national learning assessments in developing countries." For these various reasons, when we want to chart progress over time and in multi-country comparisons, we use only data from regional and international assessments.

B. Learning outcomes in GPE countries and elsewhere

Do GPE countries do better (or worse) than other countries in terms of learning outcomes? We need to approach the answer to this question with considerable methodological caution. First, there are issues concerning the general validity and utility of such a comparison. Second, even if these issues can be minimized, the relative performance of GPE countries is difficult to interpret. GPE countries are generally low-income countries; so, they may be expected to perform less well on learning outcomes, given that poverty is generally associated with poorer learning outcomes. Yet, because of a selection bias, GPE countries had perhaps already demonstrated relatively greater interest in improving their performance and in undertaking education planning, independently of GPE, and this may be associated with relatively better learning outcomes in a non-causal manner. It is essentially impossible to disentangle these factors.

Loveless (2012) identifies three major pitfalls in the interpretation of international reading and mathematics assessment test scores, as follows:

- Dubious claims of causality, especially in attempting to link positive trends with specific reforms
- The use of rankings to judge schooling quality, especially if differences in scores are not statistically or substantively significant and because the differences have many causes other than school quality
- The identification of certain countries as models of good performance to encourage others to adopt similar policies, often without contextual relevance or deep understanding

Moreover, some assessments, such as PASEC, use norms as references for comparison and therefore are unable to precisely describe the competencies attained by pupils based on scores.[3] Analysis based on score theory can also be misleading. If there is a significant difference of 5 points (out of 100) in the scores of two groups of pupils, this does not mean that the overall abilities of the pupils in the

two groups are greater or lesser by 5 percent. Other models, such as Rasch, can be used to construct more accurate scales, but this requires technical capacities that are not available in many GPE countries. Crouch and Gove (2011) point to the limitations of using oral reading fluency on an international scale because of issues in, for example, cross-linguistic comparability. The number of words read per minute cannot be strictly compared as an index of the quality of education systems across languages because systems of similar quality produce different results in children's fluency rates based on the orthographic opaqueness of each written language. Moreover, although a boundary of 45 words read per minute may correlate well with an 80 percent comprehension threshold on simple or noninferential questions, it is perhaps too daring to use a common fluency score as the only signal of the quality of a system's ability to teach reading in the early grades.

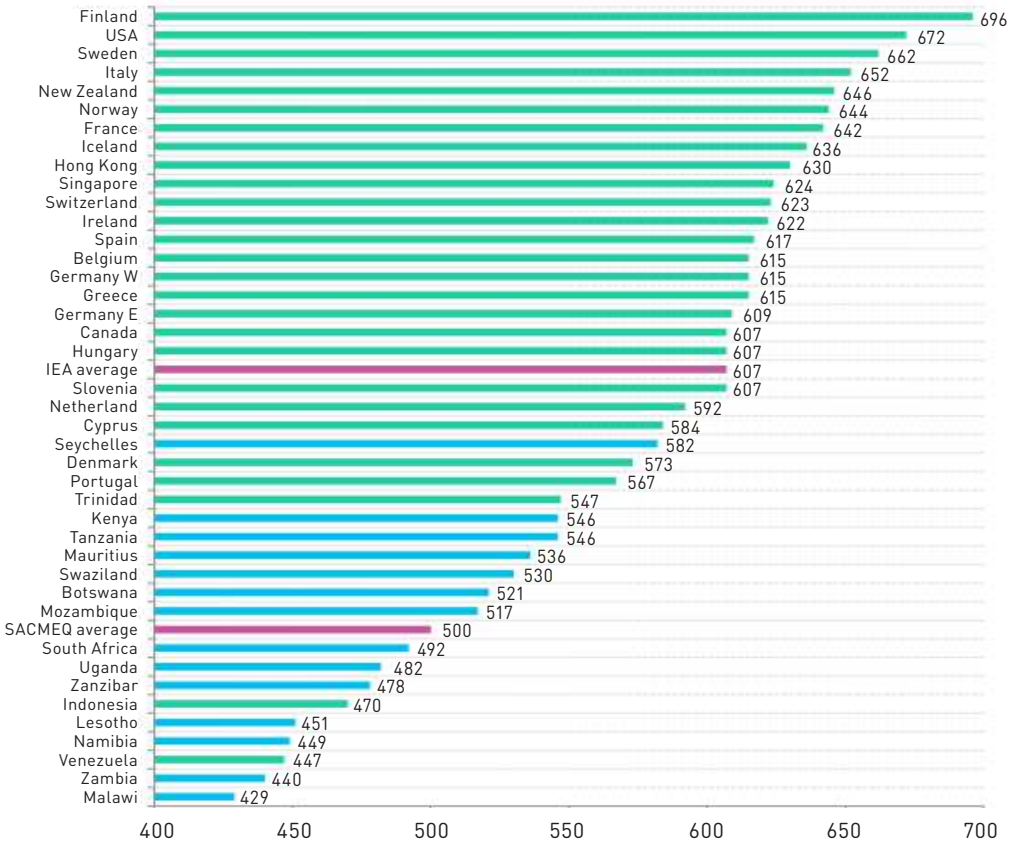
Comparisons between GPE countries and high-income countries are nonetheless important because they can provide a sense of the size of the learning gap between low-income (GPE) and high-income countries. This is crucial in helping to make improvements in learning outcomes a priority.

The data set of Ross (2009) is the only one offering strictly comparable data across economies (figure 4.6). Ross has scaled PIRLS and SACMEQ data using common items and a Rasch model. The PIRLS average contains quite a few economies that are not upper-income and that are not particularly good performers, while the SACMEQ average contains some middle-income economies that are also good performers. The canonical difference is, however, roughly 200 points or the difference between the poorer economies in SACMEQ economies such as Lesotho, Malawi, and Zambia and the developed-world levels (discounting for the fact that there are a few economies in the PIRLS that are not high-income). Thus, the data show considerable differences between the SACMEQ economies and the economies participating in PIRLS if the tests results are put on the same scale based on anchor items and test equating. SACMEQ also includes some relatively well-performing middle-income economies. The difference between the poorer SACMEQ economies and the richer economies is striking. If we assume that half a standard deviation—50 points on the main international assessment scales—is equivalent to one year of schooling (which is approximately the estimate of the grade-progression of the scores of the Programme for International Student Assessment [PISA] in Filmer, Hasan, and Pritchett 2006), then we find that there is at least a four-grade gap (2 standard deviations) between the learning achievements in developed economies and the learning achievements in East and Southern Africa: thus, in terms of the learning outcomes measured by PIRLS and SACMEQ, sixth or seventh graders in East and Southern Africa might be equivalent to second or third graders in the economies of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). Results in reading suggest that children in Africa achieve fluency levels by grade 6 that are normally achieved in OECD economies by grade 2. Furthermore, PIRLS targets pupils in grade

Results in reading suggest that children in Africa achieve fluency levels by grade 6 that are normally achieved in OECD economies by grade 2.

4, while SACMEQ targets pupils in grade 6, potentially corresponding to two more grades of schooling. Could there be a difference in achievement equivalent six grades of schooling, between SACMEQ economies and OECD economies? Perhaps six grades are too many, but four grades certainly does not seem out of the question. Even if we assume that not all the difference is caused by poor instruction or poor system administration and much of the difference is caused by poverty or lack of resources, this suggests that hundreds of millions of pupil-years are being wasted.

FIGURE 4.6. TEST RESULTS: COMPARING PIRLS AND SACMEQ ECONOMIES



Source: Ross 2009.

Note: Green = developed economies.

Pink = the IEA (PIRLS) average and the SACMEQ average.

Light blue = SACMEQ individual economies (mostly low-income or lower-middle-income economies).

These data suggest that the differences are large between upper- and upper-middle income countries on the one hand and mostly English-speaking countries in East and Southern Africa on the other, but what about the French-speaking countries in Africa? To allow a comparison with the French-speaking countries, we may use Mauritius as a sort of anchor, because it has participated in both PASEC and SACMEQ. In the PASEC assessment it performed well compared

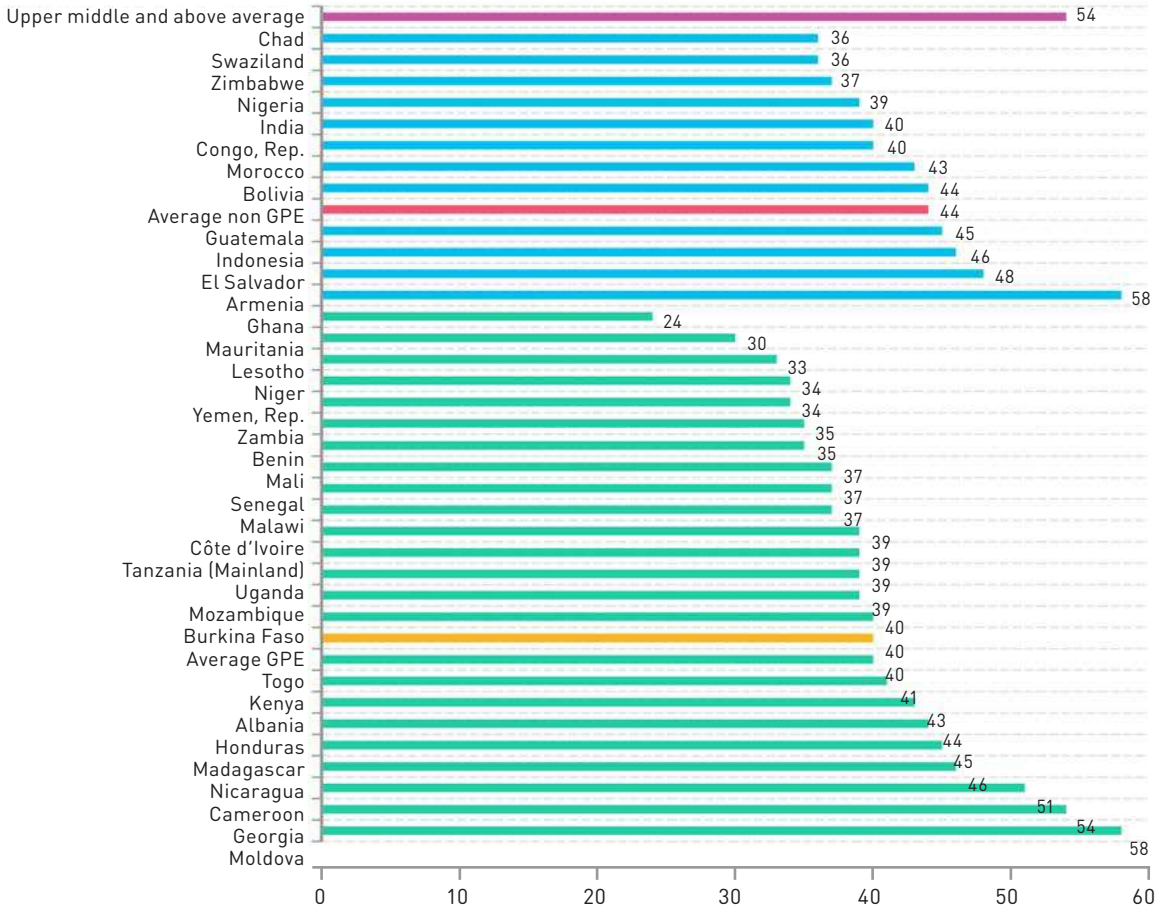
with other PASEC countries in French and in mathematics, with over 60 percent good responses versus the average of 40 percent.[4] It also ranked fourth among SACMEQ countries: the gap between Mauritius and the poorly-performing countries in PASEC seems about as large as the gap between Mauritius and the poorly-performing countries in SACMEQ. It is therefore reasonable to suppose that the learning gaps between the countries that perform poorly in PASEC, and the upper-income countries, is just as large as the learning gap between the poorly-performing poor in SACMEQ and the upper-income countries noted above. This supposition is confirmed by the analyses done by Altinok (2010). Likewise, the EGRA results show that, in Africa, even in fourth grade, many children, the majority in some cases, are not able to read any words aloud, while most children in high-income countries achieve levels of fluency in grade 1 that are compatible with basic comprehension (upward of 45 correct words read per minute).[5]

These data generally situate low-income countries relative to upper-income countries. But do GPE countries follow the pattern? Figure 4.7 shows the relevant results from the Altinok database. The differences between the six GPE-eligible countries and the 24 GPE countries in the database are not substantively or statistically significant, though the sample sizes are too small to put much weight behind standard tests of statistical significance. However, looking at GPE countries versus other low- and lower-middle-income countries, we find that the difference is statistically significant, though not substantively large. This is most likely because GPE countries are (by definition) more similar to GPE-eligible countries (in terms of socioeconomic characteristics such as poverty) than to all other low- and lower-middle-income countries.



PHOTO CREDIT: Atul Loke/Save the Children

FIGURE 4.7. SCORE IN PRIMARY EDUCATION, GPE COUNTRIES AND OTHER LOW- AND LOWER-MIDDLE-INCOME COUNTRIES



Source: Altinok 2010.

Note: Blue = non-GPE countries.
Green = GPE countries.

A few GPE countries outperformed the average non-GPE countries (all low- and lower-middle-income countries), and two of them (Georgia and Moldova) were at or above the performance benchmark of the upper-middle-income-and-above countries. Seven GPE countries scored below the lowest non-GPE country (Swaziland). Figure 4.7 may simply mean that the GPE countries are among the poorest, have the lowest baseline scores, and are therefore in need of more financial and technical assistance, but are also highly varied, since they include countries such as Georgia and Moldova. There are caveats, however. The Altinok data set has been designed for comparisons across rather than within economic groups, and the data do not include the most recent trends. For example, in the recent SACMEQ data set (2007), Lesotho is above Malawi and Zambia. In any case, the basic result is that there are only small differences in learning outcomes between GPE countries and countries at similar levels of poverty.

Various analysts have attempted to estimate the approximate location of the median child in the developing world in the learning distribution of children in upper-income countries. Filmer, Hasan, and Pritchett (2006) and Crouch and Gove (2011) estimate that the learning of the average child assessed in poor countries is at about the 5th percentile of children in upper-income countries. Because not all children (only those in school) are assessed, the median child in poor countries is probably below the 5th percentile of children in upper-income countries. In other words, the median child in low-income countries is at about the same percentile as special needs children or children at extreme risk in upper-income countries. Crouch and Gove 2011 find that children in low-income countries are able to answer correctly only about 30 percent as many questions as children in upper-income countries. Recall that the average school life expectancy in Sub-Saharan Africa today is 55 percent of the school life expectancy in North America and Western Europe and that the average child in some of the poorest countries, such as Burundi, Ethiopia, Malawi, and Rwanda, is today achieving as many years of schooling as the average child in high-income countries, such as Finland, France, Norway, and Sweden, in 1970.[6] Thus, the gap in learning outcomes is much larger than the gap in access to schooling.

Learning outcomes are poor in GPE countries and GPE-eligible countries. GPE countries are considerably more successful in efforts to measure and assess learning outcomes.



PHOTO CREDIT: Save the Children

The median child in low-income countries is at about the same percentile as special needs children or children at extreme risk in upper-income countries.

The following points summarize the state of learning outcomes (see also table 4.6 elsewhere in the chapter):

- Learning outcomes are poor in GPE countries and GPE-eligible countries. Learning outcomes are generally no better or worse in GPE countries and other low-income countries. GPE countries are considerably more successful in efforts to measure and assess learning outcomes.

- Depending on the grade, the country, and a few other factors, from 25 to 75 percent of children in grades 2 to 4 in low-income countries cannot read any words in the first line of a simple, grade-appropriate reading passage. Children in low-income countries are about 200 points behind children in high-income countries in most international assessments. This is equivalent to about four grades and is also equivalent to 2 standard deviations, which is considered an enormous difference in standardized measurements of learning outcomes. This difference puts the average child in low-income countries at about the 5th percentile of children in high-income countries, that is, the amount learned by the average assessed child in low-income countries is about 95 percent less than the amount learned by the corresponding child in high-income countries. Thus, the median child in low-income countries would be considered at extreme risk or would be learning at the level of a special needs child in a high-income country. If one takes into account that not all children are assessed in low-income countries because they are not in school, whereas nearly all children in high-income countries are assessed because they are in school, then the situation is even more dire, because the children who are not in school are learning even less.

- The gap between low-income and high-income countries in learning outcomes is much bigger than the relative gap in enrollments. Low-income countries are much farther from catching up to high-income countries in learning outcomes than in access and completion rates.

C. Trends in learning outcomes in GPE countries

The gap between low-income and high-income countries in learning outcomes is much bigger than the relative gap in enrollments.

One must always take context into account in examining trends in learning outcomes. For instance, the performance of the average tested child in some countries seems to have worsened since the countries joined the GPE. However, a significantly larger number of children were being tested in 2005–10 than in 2000–05. Countries such as Mozambique experienced substantial boosts in enrollments among households in the lowest income quintiles over the course of the decade. Some GPE and other low-income countries nearly doubled grade 6 completion rates, largely by reaching out to children in poorer households. The social profiles of children tested in assessments in 2000–05 and children tested in assessments in 2005–10 were often therefore quite different. In the early part of the decade, when the completion rate was around 30 percent, mainly children in households in the upper two income quintiles, whose parents were more likely to be literate, were reaching or completing grade 6 and were therefore being tested. When the completion rate neared 60 percent in some countries in 2005–10, many more children whose parents were illiterate were reaching or completing grade 6 and were thus being tested. This makes comparisons over time difficult to use as a signal of the quality of the schooling system itself: the populations being assessed at the two points in time are completely different, in most of the relevant

countries, and therefore a greater proportion of the children being tested in the late 2000s are intrinsically harder to teach than those tested in the early 2000s.

1. SACMEQ data

SACMEQ has been able to produce comparable data in 15 countries in East and Southern Africa in 1995, 2000, and 2007 (table 4.1). The average is set at 500 in 2000, and the 2007 average is then scaled on the basis of the 2000 test. A significant trend is identified if a change in results represents more than 10 percent of the standard deviation of the 2000 score.

TABLE 4.1. TRENDS IN SACMEQ TEST SCORES BY COUNTRY GROUP, 2000 AND 2007

Country	Reading Score			Mathematics Score		
	2000	2007	Trend	2000	2007	Trend
GPE						
Kenya	546.5	543.1	▶	563.3	557.0	▶
Lesotho	451.2	467.9	▲	447.2	476.9	▯
Malawi	428.9	433.5	▶	432.9	447.0	▲
Mozambique	516.7	476.0	▼	530.0	483.8	▼
Uganda	482.4	478.7	▶	506.3	481.9	▼
Zambia	440.1	434.4	▶	435.2	435.2	▶
Low-income, non-GPE						
Tanzania (mainland)	545.9	577.8	▲	522.4	552.7	▲
Tanzania (Zanzibar)	478.2	533.9	▲	478.1	486.2	▶
Zimbabwe[a]	504.7	507.7	▶	n.a.	519.8	n.a.
Swaziland	529.6	549.4	▲	516.5	540.8	▲
Upper-middle-income						
Botswana	521.1	534.6	▲	512.9	520.5	▶
Mauritius	536.4	573.5	▲	584.6	623.3	▲
Namibia	448.8	496.9	▲	430.9	471.0	▲
Seychelles	582.0	575.1	▶	554.3	550.7	▶
South Africa	492.3	494.9	▶	486.1	494.8	▶
SACMEQ	500.0	511.8	▲	500.0	509.5	▶

Source: Based on Hungi et al. 2010.

Note: ▲ = increased by 10 points or more.

▶ = minimal change (less than ±10).

▼ = decreased by 10 points or more.

a. Zimbabwe did not participate in the 2000 round of SACMEQ, and the value given for reading in that year is from the 1995 round, which did not include mathematics.

n.a. = not applicable.

Non-GPE countries have managed to maintain or increase test scores since 2000 and are above the SACMEQ average (500), but more of them are also middle-income countries (except for Tanzania and Zimbabwe). In the GPE group, Lesotho has managed to increase mathematics and reading scores, while Malawi has increased mathematics scores. Other countries have maintained score levels more or less constant. The scores in Mozambique and Uganda have decreased. However, in Mozambique, completion rates nearly doubled between 2000 and 2007, and many of the children tested in 2007 had a different socioeconomic profile relative to the children tested in 2000. It is clear that some of the drop arose because of this sort of composition effect.

In the GPE group, Lesotho has managed to increase mathematics and reading scores in the SACMEQ test, while Malawi has increased mathematics scores.

SACMEQ allows analysts to look at trends in input provision, a correlate of assessment scores. SACMEQ data show little improvement between 2000 and 2007 (table 4.2). In Malawi, there was even a decrease: the share of pupils who had their own textbooks fell from 57.0 to 27.1 percent (Hungi et al. 2010) (box 4.2). The level of essential classroom resources in schools did not improve much between 2000 and 2007. Some low- and lower-middle-income countries managed to equip their schools more effectively than most GPE countries. While the access to water expanded in schools and more teaching guides were provided to instructors, the share of schools with adequate supplies of textbooks, writing boards, teacher tables and chairs, and libraries dropped in almost all the GPE countries involved in the SACMEQ assessments. Altinok (2010) has analyzed trends in school resources in upper-middle-income and high-income countries and found improvement in school resources.



PHOTO CREDIT: Save the Children

TABLE 4.2. TRENDS IN THE AVAILABILITY OF SCHOOL RESOURCES, SACMEQ COUNTRIES, 2000–07

Country	Teacher guide, reading	Teacher guide math	Dictionary	Exercise book, pencil, pen, ruler	Own reading textbook	Own math textbook	Writing board	Pupil seating and desks	Teacher table and chair	Class or school library	Water
GPE											
Kenya	▶	▲	▲	▶	▼	▼	▶	▶	▼	▼	▲
Lesotho	▶	▶	▼	▶	▶	▲	▶	▶	▶	▲	▶
Malawi	▶	▲	▶	▲	▼	▼	▼	▶	▶	▼	▶
Mozambique	▲	▲	▲	▶	▶	▼	▼	▲	▼	▼	▶
Uganda	▶	▲	▶	▲	▶	▶	▼	▲	▼	▼	▲
Zambia	▼	▼	▲	▲	▲	▶	▼	▼	▶	▶	▼
Low-income											
Tanzania	▲	▲	▲	▲	▶	▶	▶	▶	▲	▲	▼
Zanzibar	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	▶	▲	▲	▼	▲
Zimbabwe	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Swaziland	▶	▲	▶	▲	▲	▲	▶	▶	▶	▼	▲
Upper-middle-income											
Botswana	▶	▲	▶	▶	▼	▼	▶	▶	▶	▶	▶
Mauritius	▲	▲	▶	▼	▶	▼	▲	▶	▲	▶	▼
Namibia	▶	▲	▼	▶	▼	▼	▼	▶	▶	▲	▶
Seychelles	▶	▲	▶	▲	▶	▼	▶	▶	▶	▶	▶
South Africa	▲	▲	▲	▲	▶	▶	▼	▶	▼	▼	▶
SACMEQ	▲	▲	▶	▲	▶	▶	▶	▶	▶	▼	▶

Source: Hungi et al. 2011.

Note: ▲ = increased by 10 points or more.

▶ = minimal change (less than ±10).

▼ = decreased by 10 points or more.

— = not available.

BOX 4.2. FOCUS ON TRENDS IN MALAWI

Among SACMEQ countries, Malawi has the lowest SACMEQ score in all SACMEQ rounds and the highest share of pupils who do not speak the language of the test (English) at home (59 percent in 2000). Malawi abolished schools fees in 1994, which led to a 70 percent increase in enrollments within two years (UNESCO 2007). However, this occurred at the likely cost of a deterioration in school conditions, especially in terms of the pupil-teacher ratio, one of the highest in Africa (Chimombo et al. 2005). Indeed, there was a significant decrease in SACMEQ test scores between 1995 and 2000, while enrollments were rising. It is impossible to understand, without more analysis, to what extent this represents a true drop in quality or a composition effect resulting from the efforts of the education system to cope with children who are more difficult to teach because they have had little exposure to print, come from backgrounds characterized by poor parental education, and so on. However, between 2000 and 2007, there was a significant rise in mathematics scores, while the performance in reading tests has remained steady.

2. PASEC

Although PASEC was not designed to produce data on trends, the same tests have been used since 1995, and each PASEC national report includes detailed information on trends (table 4.3). However, PASEC tests are currently being revised, and it is not clear whether they will include some of the old items so that information on trends can continue to be produced.

TABLE 4.3. TRENDS IN PASEC TEST SCORES IN GRADE 5

Country	Period		French score			Mathematics score		
GPE								
Madagascar	1998	2005	42.6	31.4	▼	59.1	51.2	▼
Burkina Faso	1996	2007	46.6	37.4	▼	45.8	36.8	▼
Togo[a]	1999	2010	n.a.	n.a.	▼	n.a.	n.a.	▼
Cameroon[b]	1996	2005	56.0	46.0	▼	50.0	46.0	▼
Senegal	1996	2007	36.9	38.3	▶	40.7	41.8	▶
Côte d'Ivoire[c]	1996	2008	45.3	29.2	▼	included in French score		
Low-income								
Chad[d]	2004	2010	32.1	38.0	▲	34.0	38.1	▲

Sources: PASEC national reports; PASEC team for Chad; Togo JSR.

Note: ▲ = increased by 2 points or more.

▶ = minimal change (less than ±2 points).

▼ = decreased by 2 points or more. The standard deviation is above 20 points, on average, and a decrease by 2 points is calculated as 10 percent of a standard deviation (to remain in line with the SACMEQ methodology).

a. Aggregated data for grade 2 and grade 5; trend can be produced. n.a. = not applicable. b. Francophone subsystem only. c. Aggregate French and mathematics. d. Draft report only.

The trend in available PASEC scores is striking, and the changes are much larger than in the SACMEQ scores (table 4.3). However, as in Malawi and Mozambique in the case of SACMEQ, these results have to be contextualized because of the radical change in pupil characteristics pre- and post-2000. In many countries, the share of rural pupils almost doubled in the PASEC 2009 samples, while the share of pupils speaking French at home decreased.

The data represent a warning sign regarding GPE countries. Especially, it seems, in francophone countries, average learning outcomes are deteriorating. Whether this is caused by a change in quality, that is, by the value added in the productivity of schools, or by a composition effect (children who are harder to teach now in school) is not clear. More data and analysis are required.

3. LLECE

SERCE is the second and most recently completed assessment by UNESCO's LLECE (see annex 4E). Because Guyana, Haiti, and Honduras did not participate, Nicaragua is the only GPE country involved in SERCE. The other participating countries are not GPE-eligible, and, so, it is particularly difficult to produce comparisons. With the exception of Nicaragua, data suggest that lower-middle income countries (including El Salvador, Guatemala, and Paraguay) have poorer results than the rest of Latin America. Unfortunately, differences in the grades targeted and in the test content mean that trends cannot be produced using LLECE (first round) and SERCE (second round) results.

Pupils in grade 6 in Nicaragua show the poorest performance (after the Dominican Republic) in mathematics, but outperform pupils in grade 6 in the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Guatemala, and Paraguay in reading (table 4.4). Nicaragua is also the lowest income country in the group.



PHOTO CREDIT: Save the Children

TABLE 4.4. GRADE 6 PUPILS REACHING LEVEL 3 OR 4 AND ABOVE IN SERCE, 2005/06

percent

Country	Mathematics	Reading
GPE		
Nicaragua	21.2	26.3
Lower-middle		
Guatemala	21.5	20.7
Paraguay	28.7	25.8
El Salvador	27.3	33.5
Upper-middle and above		
Dominican Republic	7.1	10.6
Ecuador	25.8	22.4
Panama	20.0	30.3
Peru	38.2	32.0
Argentina	48.6	44.7
Colombia	38.1	48.2
Brazil	40.5	49.9
Mexico	58.7	54.1
Uruguay	72.7	59.1
Chile	50.9	61.6
Costa Rica	62.7	71.3
Cuba	77.5	74.9
Average	**45.0**	**46.6**

Source: SERCE 2008 data.

D. Combining learning and access levels for an overall measure of system output

The gap in the learning achievements in GPE countries and in more developed countries is enormous. The difference between OECD countries and low-income countries is approximately two standard deviations, or four to six grades. Furthermore, in the few low-income countries that report on relevant indicators over time, learning outcomes seem to be deteriorating, though it is difficult to determine the share of this drop that arises because of a composition effect—that is, the changes in outcomes arising because of the characteristics of the poorer children entering and progressing through school in 2005–10—or whether there has been a decline in learning outcomes even after one has controlled for the socioeconomic background of the children.

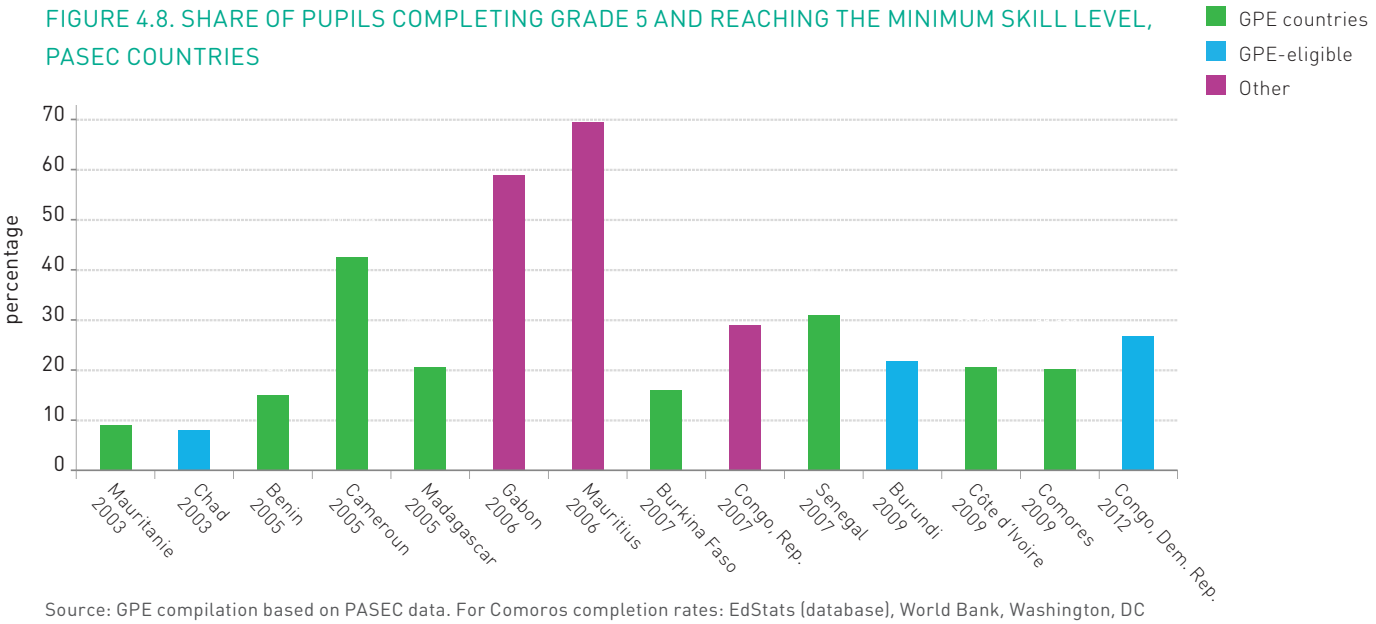
The question of whether GPE countries are making "total" progress in terms of a combination of both access and completion rates and learning outcomes, in a combined manner, is a vital one. The only sufficiently rigorous assessment that covers a reasonably representative sample of countries that are also part of GPE is SACMEQ. If we examine the number of children who have achieved at least basic literacy (levels 3 to 8 in the SACMEQ assessment) in the 2000 and 2007 rounds of the assessment and adjust for the growth of the school-age population, we find that there has been progress in total output defined in this way. The average child in the population (not the average child tested) seems to "know more" in the late 2000s than in the early 2000s, because, even where there is some decline in the average score of those tested, such as in Mozambique, the numbers tested (because they make it to Grade 6) have grown so much. GPE countries and countries likely to join the partnership, including Kenya, Mozambique, Tanzania, Uganda, and Zambia, have all made progress in this respect. The only country that seems to have regressed is Malawi.

However, in spite of this positive message, the actual achievement levels of those in school are generally simply low, which means that the total combined output (completion and knowledge level of those who complete) is much below the acceptable level. The PASEC results can be used to show this: one can simply multiply the completion rate by the percent share of assessed pupils who have achieved a defined level of skills in the PASEC assessment for grade 5.[7] Figure 4.8 describes this measurement. (Pink represents middle-income countries; green represents GPE countries; and blue represents low- or lower-middle-income countries that are not GPE-eligible.) The figure makes clear that, in GPE countries, only about 20 percent of all children in the population—a measure of total output—are finishing primary school with the requisite skills. This suggests that the effective completion rate—completion with sufficient knowledge—is much lower than the nominal completion rate.



PHOTO CREDIT: Mats Lignell/ Save the Children

FIGURE 4.8. SHARE OF PUPILS COMPLETING GRADE 5 AND REACHING THE MINIMUM SKILL LEVEL, PASEC COUNTRIES



Source: GPE compilation based on PASEC data. For Comoros completion rates: EdStats (database), World Bank, Washington, DC (accessed February 2012), http://go.worldbank.org/ITABCOGIV1.

In most countries, less than a third of the cohort aged 11 or 12 completes grade 5 and also acquires basic competencies.[8] Mauritius, an upper-middle-income country, has reached universal primary completion (100 percent), but has not progressed as much in providing quality education to all. Only 69.5 percent of pupils acquire the minimum required level of competency at grade 5. More typical GPE countries combine a less than 100 percent completion rate with low levels of skills among those pupils completing grade 5 and thus only around 20 percent of children finish primary school having acquired basic skills. The fact that only 20 percent of children are achieving a reasonable level of skills by age 11 or 12 and that children in school have achieved learning levels around 2 standard deviations below the levels typical of high-income countries is a cause of concern. We may be optimistic that countries have been making progress in terms of total output, but additional progress will be difficult given that ensuring children are completing grade 5 is less problematic than ensuring children are also achieving competency.

E. Populating the GPE Results Framework

At the end of 2011, the GPE Results Framework began to include two indicators that could be used to focus the partnership on learning outcomes:[9]

- Indicator 1: The share of pupils who, by the end of two grades of primary schooling, have demonstrated that they can read and understand the meaning of a grade-appropriate text.

- Indicator 2: The share of students who, by the end of the primary or basic education cycle, are able to read and demonstrate understanding of an appropriate text as defined in the national curriculum or as agreed by national education experts.

This subsection surveys the available data that can be used to populate these indicators. Annex 4B contains more details, by country, on the suitability of existing data and indicators for this purpose.

1. Using international data sources

Indicator 1 is relatively simple conceptually, but existing standardized data sources are fewer for this indicator than for indicator 2. The shares of pupils needed to calculate indicator 1 are not available for most countries based on international sources. However, raw data are available that could be used to approximate the relevant shares in many countries. GPE should begin to (a) calculate the indicator where the data permit and (b) determine where additional assessments are needed to create a baseline for the calculation of the indicator.

Except for PASEC, standard regional and international assessments do not produce the information necessary to calculate the indicator in the early grades, and, at this stage, it is not clear whether PASEC will continue to gather relevant data on the early grades. EGRA and similar assessments, such as ASER and Uwezo, that cover basic competencies, mostly oral, do not calculate the relevant shares of pupils needed to produce the indicator as a standard output; the data would have to be processed additionally. In the EGRAs (narrowly or formally construed; see above), more or less standard outputs cover oral fluency (the number of correct words read per minute), the share of pupils not able to read a word, and the share of pupils able to answer questions (by the number of comprehension questions they can answer). Other assessments, such as ASER or Uwezo, also include raw data that could be appropriately processed to produce, in some cases, a close approximation of the GPE indicator. This would require the following:

In most countries, less than a third of the cohort aged 11 or 12 completes grade 5 and also acquires basic competencies.

- Identifying an appropriate synthesis measure for each type of assessment—ASER, EGRA, Uwezo, or others—that can stand in for the GPE indicator

- Access to all data sets, at least for system- or national-level samples, or relevant agreements with governments who control the data sets

- Agreement on the sampling weights needed to calculate the indicator

Aside from that, the matter would be relatively straightforward for the countries where the data exist at all. In countries where the data do not exist, an agreement would have to be reached on how to create the data.

Indicator 2 is more problematic because it is explicitly tied to the national curriculum:

> As part of Learning Counts, an initiative of UNESCO, Benavot (2011) conducted a worldwide curriculum analysis that included many GPE countries. One objective was to test whether common patterns in curricula can serve as a basis for defining an appropriate indicator of pupil competencies at the end of the primary cycle. The data were used to identify the contents of curricula and performance expectations in mathematics and reading that are shared by countries. A key finding with regard to reading was that more than 70% of textbooks and guidelines agree that students should 1) identify, extract, find and remember explicit information in the written text; 2) develop inferential skills to compare, deduce, generalize, apply, interpret, connect, summarize and paraphrase implicit elements in the text; and 3) develop a range of evaluative judgments on the texts they read (e.g., the extent to which the texts are coherent/incoherent, precise/vague, complex/simple, valid, reliable, complete and plausible). These findings indicate that, despite pronounced cultural and linguistic differences, many developing countries share common ideas as to the desired reading standards to be attained by students at the end of the primary cycle. These commonalities can be referred to as: literal comprehension, inferential comprehension and value or evaluative comprehension. (Benavot 2011, 30)[10]

The analysis suggests one could use regional and international assessments that evaluate learners on these criteria to help chart the progress of pupils across countries to master curricula toward the end of the primary cycle. GPE could use PIRLS (grade 4), PASEC (grade 5), LLECE (grade 6), and SACMEQ (grade 6) to produce information on the share of pupils able to read and demonstrate understanding at the end or close to the end of the primary cycle given that these assessments all include reading components. However, some data processing is needed to produce the indicator in the GPE framework from these assessments. Moreover, not all countries participate in these assessments, and each country would have to determine the benchmark for the measurement of progress. Table 4.5 describes an attempt to match global curriculum patterns and the content of regional assessments; the common denominator is the stage of inferential comprehension. Comparisons could be made within regions or programs, and the indicator should target grade 5 or grade 6 to be in line with curricula (or even grade 4 in the case of PIRLS). This analysis does not include purely national assessments; it examines only the extent to which regional or international assessments can be used to feed the GPE Results Framework.

TABLE 4.5. TENTATIVE FRAMEWORK TO PRODUCE A GPE INDICATOR ON LEARNING AT THE END OF THE PRIMARY CYCLE

GPE definition	Curriculum patterns	SACMEQ	SERCE/LLECE	PIRLS
Pupils are able to read and demonstrate understanding as defined by national curricula or national experts	Common reading skills or competencies in grade 5 or 6 (in at least 70 percent of the countries)	Level 6: Inferential reading	Level 3: locate relevant information and separate it out	Make straightforward Inferences
Specification of the skills involved	Identify, extract, and remember explicit information in the written text; develop inferential skills to compare, deduce, generalize, apply, interpret, connect, summarize, and paraphrase implicit elements in the text; develop a range of evaluative judgments about the texts	Read on or back through longer texts (narrative, document, or exposition) to combine information from various parts of the text so as to infer the writer's purpose Interpret and make inferences from different types of texts; extract information from a nontraditional document; make judgments about an author's intentions	Interpret reformulations and syntheses; integrate data distributed across a paragraph; reinstate implicit information in the paragraph; reread in search of specific data; identify a single meaning within words that have several meanings; recognize the meaning of parts of words	As readers construct meaning from texts, they make inferences about ideas or information not explicitly stated; making inferences allows the reader to move beyond the surface of texts and fill gaps in meaning that often occur in texts

Source: GPE compilation based on information in relevant regional program websites. Common curriculum patterns are taken from Benavot 2011.

Note: The PASEC tests are under revision and will be matched with SACMEQ. PASEC data do not currently allow us to produce the desired indicator; they do not represent pure reading tests and include grammar. A rough proxy of the indicator is the share of pupils reaching 40 percent in the PASEC assessment, though PASEC does not directly measure inferential comprehension. (In general, the results on inferential and non-inferential comprehension tend to correlate, though it is better to calculate separate measures of each.)

In some cases, it may be that the grade level or level of competency at which the various assessments are compared is not appropriate. Moreover, each country should be encouraged to define its own level of comparison. The point of this illustrative exercise is merely to demonstrate that regional and international assessments can indeed be used by countries to pick benchmarks for the objective measurement of pupil skills.

2. Using national assessment data

Most national assessment data used in the ESPs and JSRs are presented as average test scores rather than as the share of pupils reaching a certain level of competency. Furthermore, national benchmark levels in assessments are often set at a low level even relative to official curricula. In Ghana, for example, the minimum benchmark in the grade 6 national assessment has been set at a score of 35 percent correct, and proficiency levels have been defined as a minimum score of 55 percent correct, while more detailed test analysis has led some to consider a 70 percent threshold as more appropriate for meeting Ghana's own curriculum objectives and determining proficiency (Ghana and RTI International 2012). Yet, only about 20 percent of learners meet even the lower proficiency threshold.



PHOTO CREDIT: Menaca Calyaneratne/Save the Children

In general, using national assessment data to derive end-of-cycle benchmarks is more difficult and requires country-by-country exercises not only to pick benchmarks, but also to determine if the benchmark meets reasonable expectations based on curricula (box 4.3). Using existing assessments to report on progress would require a careful evaluation of whether the assessments are suitable for year-on-year comparisons. Most are not (see above). This represents a real problem in using national assessments to track progress. Resolving this issue would require much more analysis and collaborative technical development, country by country, than using the more international and regional assessments for the early grades and the end of cycle, as noted above.

BOX 4.3. SENEGAL: CALCULATING GPE INDICATORS USING SNERS DATA

Three primary-school-level data collections—in 1996, 2002, and 2006—have been conducted in Senegal through the *Système national d'évaluation des rendements scolaires* (National Academic Results Evaluation System, SNERS). The National Institute of Research and Action for the Development of Education (INEADE), which participated in the construction of the PASEC tests, has managed the assessments.

The Ministry of Education in charge of ESP implementation, monitoring, and reporting, has defined three education performance indicators:

- The minimum threshold: the share of pupils giving at least 50 percent of the correct answers
- The desired threshold: the share of pupils giving at least 73 percent of the correct answers
- The average test score

The first indicator is the monitoring indicator used in Senegal's ESP; so, using it as a benchmark for the GPE Results Framework would be a logical choice.

Reports on the SNERS suggest that the data documentation follows accepted standards in test piloting, sampling, and test validity, although little information is available on test administration. Measurements have been produced on reading comprehension and numeracy. The measurements have been calculated using the mean test score, but not the proportion of students achieving the minimum standards, which is the indicator defined for the ESP, as well as the GPE indicator.

It is possible to calculate the GPE indicators using SNERS data, but not according to the current format of the information. Additional calculations are required. This will be the case in almost all GPE countries even in the best of circumstances.

F. Issues of complementarity and coordination in international assistance for assessments

Some GPE countries and other countries participate in as many as four assessments of learning outcomes (annex 4B). The case of Mali is illustrative. Several types of EGRA assessments have been undertaken (annex 4G). PASEC has also provided a considerable amount of useful data on learning outcomes.

Conducting many surveys in one country over a short time, even smaller and cheaper surveys in Wagner's terminology (2011), may not be cost-effective. GPE could play a role in improving coordination through the Secretariat and the LEGs. However, if this effort is to be successful, there needs to be an appreciation of the importance of acknowledging the results of learning assessments. If the LEGs are unwilling to acknowledge that learning levels are low and need to be measured, then coordination will have no effect, since it makes little sense to effort coordinating something that is not acknowledged to be important. GPE,

donors, and country partners need to play a role in coordinating assessments and signaling to governments the importance of the assessments. In Benin, Guinea, Rwanda, and other countries, the findings of numerous studies have been presented during the JSR sessions. This approach should be used more frequently.

There is also a great need for collaboration and coordination at the international level to generate more global data on learning outcomes. The GPE could encourage this process. Networking among individual professionals and across surveys and providers—PASEC with SACMEQ, PASEC and SACMEQ with LLECE, EGRA with others, and so on—might be necessary to foster collaboration among programs.

In 2006–08, a World Bank Development Grant Facility funded the Global Program for the Assessment of Educational Achievement. The program sought to enhance the ability of the IEA to reach more developing countries. It likewise sought to improve the capacities of regional assessment programs such as the Partnership for Educational Revitalization in the Americas, PASEC, SACMEQ, and the West African Examinations Council. Another goal was to deepen the cooperation between educational assessment institutions, participating countries, bilateral and multilateral agencies, foundations, and the private sector. The program fostered technical exchanges among representatives of these various institutions and agencies. Through the Development Grant Facility, PASEC updated its sampling methodology, carried out an analysis of curricula, revised its assessments so that these were brought more in line with international standards, and undertook additional efforts at cooperation with SACMEQ. Meanwhile, other recommendations made through Development Grant Facility evaluations have not been carefully followed. It would be useful to improve collaboration among assessments, and institutions such as the GPE or multilateral bodies such as the World Bank should continue to work on this issue.

There is also a great need for collaboration and coordination at the international level to generate more global data on learning outcomes.

In late 2008, as part of Learning Counts, UNESCO created an expert group representing key international programs focused on assessment. UNESCO had plans to improve its own assessment program, a sort of follow-up on the MLA. However, although key actors were brought together, the approach did not lead to more effective program coordination, though successors of this approach still may. It might have been a good beginning if some of the aims had been clarified and the effort had been supported. Some bilateral donors were also interested.

In January 2009, a workshop on assessment programs was held at the AED, in Washington D.C., under the auspices of USAID. It involved many of the same actors who had participated in the UNESCO effort. At the meeting, the status of assessments on learning outcomes worldwide were presented; data gaps in GPE countries were identified; and budget and funding issues were discussed (Varly 2009b). However, as in Learning Counts, the initiative did not seem to lead to any breakthroughs in coordination and support for learning assessments.

A major output of Learning Counts has been a report that defines common standards based on curricula in reading and mathematics at the end of the primary-school cycle (Benavot 2011). In March 2009, the Learning Counts group met again, and GPE presented a revised indicative framework, including indicators on learning, that was later discussed among the group.

The GPE biennial partnership meeting held in Copenhagen in April 2009 included sessions on learning outcomes at which various programs were described. Presentations on efforts to improve EGRAs in The Gambia—largely directed by the government based on early World Bank support for an EGRA pilot project that was taken as a baseline—and on efforts undertaken by the Indian NGO Pratham to improve assessments and reading outcomes generated interest among the audience. However, no action was taken.

There has been other progress on coordination. PIRLS and TIMSS studies in 2011 were conducted on the basis of the same time frame. The studies may now cover grades 5 and 6 and share survey items with SACMEQ, which is using an adapted IEA methodology. PASEC has shifted its focus from grade 5 to grade 6, while maintaining a test for grade 2 that may include an oral fluency assessment starting in 2014. PASEC assessments will also include SACMEQ survey items to allow comparisons across African countries. PASEC will align with the SACMEQ methodology and timeline and assess 10 countries every five years. LLECE will cover grades 3 and 6 every five years, but there is still no plan for collaboration with IEA, PASEC, or SACMEQ.

In the near future, comparable IEA, PASEC, and SACMEQ data will be available for grade 6. If common survey items were shared with LLECE, the tests of all regional programs would include common items, creating the opportunity to compare and scale tests with PIRLS and TIMSS. Moreover, Benavot (2011) has identified common curricula patterns in reading and mathematics across countries.

Thus, while there seems to be a lot of interest, these initiatives have not yet coalesced into a unified approach toward coordination, standards, financial support, and guidance across countries and regional and international assessments. The best chance for at least coordination of information on assessment among the global community so far is the World Bank's Systems Approach for Better Education Results (SABER) assessment tool, though the program does not provide coordinated financial support, only intellectual input into standards and the self-assessment of systems.[11] The agenda of coordinating and providing support to the key global knowledge products created by assessments is therefore unfinished.

Institutions and individuals must have clear incentives and mechanisms for working together. The issue of learning outcomes is too important to be left to serendipity or personal contacts and single workshops or time-bound initiatives. The GPE,

along with partners such as the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP), the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS), and the World Bank, need to play a proactive role in coordination and establishing good practice. Specifically, there would be a better understanding of (a) the potential of early assessments (typically oral and not comparable internationally) to predict and help improve performance in later assessments (written and comparable internationally) and (b) how regional assessments could be technically linked together. In addition, if (a) GPE partners could agree on a rational approach to the financing of assessments that would not induce dependence, but would meet the need for subsidies; (b) other regions, including Asia, as well as the Middle East and North Africa, participated in learning assessments; and (c) more lower-income countries also participated in international assessments to provide intellectual cross-fertilization, then an intellectual and financial architecture for learning measurement could emerge. The GPE is considering the use of the Global and Regional Activities Program to foster greater institutional collaboration on concrete standard-setting in oral early grade assessments, coordination in written end-of-cycle assessments, and the promotion of coordination across regional assessments, but this too can only be a time-bound effort.

Mathematics knowledge may be inborn, but it needs to be fostered.

G. Investing in early grade numeracy

> ***The Global Partnership will develop consensus approaches to assess and improve mathematics instruction over the next two years.***
>
> — The Global Partnership for Education Policy Pledge, November 2011

The GPE recognizes that the acquisition of basic numerical and mathematical skills is an important step in the education process and will enable individuals to improve their job potential. This helps countries create the human capital needed for making advancements in science and technology, which are critical for economic development.

Low-income countries that participate in large-scale assessments such as PISA and TIMSS have consistently been at the bottom in terms of performance.

However, low-income countries that participate in large-scale assessments such as PISA and TIMSS have consistently been at the bottom in terms of performance. For example, in the 2007 TIMSS, the 50th percentile score in mathematics in Ghana in the eighth grade was 309, while the 5th percentile score in Australia was 365 and, in the United States, 379 (Martin, Mullis, and Foy 2008). This means that the performance of the median child in Ghana is poorer than the performance of a child at the bottom 5th percentile in high-income countries. If the children in Ghana stay in school, they end up learning basic mathematics skills by grade 6, instead of grades 2 or 3, the grades in which children in higher-income countries have acquired these skills.

Recent studies that have focused on assessing foundational competencies in mathematics have demonstrated that this poor performance is often rooted in a failure to master basic mathematics competencies in the early grades.

Although research has shown that infants have an inherent sense of numbers, research has also shown that children cannot intuitively learn advanced mathematical skills, such as working with numbers beyond 25, multiplication, division, or fractions (Dehaene 1997; Devlin 2010; Sousa 2008). These fundamental mathematics skills need to be explicitly taught to children.

Meanwhile there is a dearth of information concerning the mastery of fundamental competencies by pupils in the early grades. A few early grade assessments, such as the Early Grade Mathematics Assessment (EGMA), have been developed to provide policy makers, donors, and practitioners with information concerning the degree to which pupils are mastering these basic skills. The EGMA and other early grade assessments have shown that the problem in mathematics emerges early: large numbers of pupils in many low-income countries are not mastering the foundational mathematics skills that would allow them to succeed in later years. For example, an abbreviated EGMA implemented in a region of Morocco showed that 20 percent of grade 2 pupils could not solve simple addition problems, and 44 percent could not solve simple subtraction problems (Messaoud-Galusi et al. 2012).

The performance of the median child in Ghana is poorer than the performance of a child at the bottom 5th percentile in high-income countries.

The data that we have on early grade mathematics point to the need to focus on early grade teaching and learning to understand what is or is not working in low-income countries. In the early grades, pupils should be mastering basic mathematics competencies and solidifying their conceptual understanding of numbers. This number sense enables pupils to relate theoretical mathematics concepts of numbers and numerical expressions to applications in the real world (Case 1998). It also promotes the automatic use of mathematics information and is a key ingredient to solving basic computations (Gersten and Chard 1999). If pupils are unable to master these fundamental competencies in the early grades, they will be incapable of grasping higher-level mathematics and be at greater risk of repeating grades or dropping out entirely.

It is vital to identify the factors that are undermining mathematics learning in the early grades and the interventions that are most likely to succeed in supporting pupil mastery of these foundational competencies. Testing pupils in the early grades is therefore informative because it may reveal initial problems in the acquisition of fundamental mathematics skills and concepts.

General research and interventions, particularly good practices in early grade mathematics teaching and learning in developing countries, are limited. In early grade reading, there is a plethora of research, classroom observations, and early grade assessments available in developing countries; however, in mathematics,

only a fraction of this sort of knowledge exists. There is not a good understanding of how mathematics content is delivered in the classroom and whether this is appropriate to the level of the pupils who are learning the material. Pilot interventions and more research, such as classroom observations and analysis of mathematics curricula, are also necessary so that appropriate assessments and interventions can be designed to ensure that pupils acquire the mathematics skills necessary for future success.

General research and interventions, particularly good practices in early grade mathematics teaching and learning in developing countries, are limited.

The GPE is working with its partners on early grade literacy and early grade mathematics. The GPE goal is to facilitate research so that policy decisions can be made and evidence-based best practices can be identified in mathematics education in developing countries. The GPE would also like to encourage the development of early grade assessments that measure mathematics fluency and support contextually appropriate resources and interventions in early grade mathematics.



PHOTO CREDIT: Guy Calaf/Save the Children

To reach these objectives, the GPE is currently (a) contributing to the creation of a network of organizations working on early grade mathematics; (b) conducting field studies to observe current approaches and identify good practices in early grade mathematics teaching, interventions, and assessments; and (c) testing elements of the assessments and interventions developed by colleagues to contribute to the current dialogue on early grade assessments. The GPE has worked in Cambodia, India, and Kenya and has plans to work with other countries in East Africa and South Asia. These background activities will facilitate initiatives our partners will carry out on mathematics education through the partnership.

The GPE is working with its partners on early grade literacy and early grade mathematics.

BOX 4.4. CASE STUDY IN CAMBODIA: EGMA AND INTERVENTIONS

The Cambodian Ministry of Education, Youth, and Sport expressed an interest in understanding the current levels of performance in mathematics in the early grades (1, 2, and 3) and creating materials and short interventions to determine if these would improve pupil understanding of numbers. The ministry requested the technical assistance of the GPE in implementing this effort. A technical specialist in mathematics education from the partnership conducted a limited study in Phnom Penh, the capital, and, based on the results, linked the ministry with the appropriate resources to prepare a nationwide early grade mathematics program to be supported through the next round of GPE funding.

The project was divided into two phases. Phase 1 focused on schools in Phnom Penh. Phase 2 will focus on rural areas. During phase 1, the GPE specialist undertook early grade assessments in 6 schools, conducted 35 classroom observations (to measure the amount of time spent on tasks), and tested short mathematics interventions to determine the feasibility of these interventions in the context of mathematics learning in Phnom Penh.

The results of this small-scale study enabled the ministry to start understanding the quality of mathematics education in Cambodia. The study also provided baseline scores in early grade mathematics for the schools tested in Phnom Penh and determined gaps in the mathematics curriculum.

The study found that pupils have strong rote memorization capabilities that support arithmetic skills. However, their number sense, which includes the ability to manipulate numbers in a problem or have strong conceptual understanding of numbers, needs to be strengthened. The GPE therefore recommended that the ministry should undertake interventions to help pupils develop their analytical and problem-solving skills.

The study also found that, based on classroom observations, the use of scripted lessons works well in teaching mathematics to pupils. The schools visited had around 40–50 pupils per class. Teachers who used scripted lessons were able to cover at least 95 percent of the lesson material within 45 minutes, engage 80–90 percent of the pupils in the class, and incorporate activities beyond direct instruction.

Phase 2 of the project will be conducted in late 2012. The technical assistance provided to Cambodia will not only have an impact in the immediate future, as the ministry, based on the study, begins working with schools studied to improve the quality of mathematics education. The small-scale study also points to ways in which systems must change to support learning going forward.

IV. Linking access and learning indicators: a problem of weak foundations[12]

GPE countries have made much progress in a variety of access indicators or indicators that combine access and a proxy for quality, such as the gross enrollment ratio in preprimary education, the gross intake ratio in primary school, and the primary-school completion rate (see chapter 2). Analyses carried out by the GPE also show that the reduction in repetition rates has been rapid, particularly in GPE countries. Nonetheless, learning outcomes have been poor: the median child in low-income countries has measured learning achievement at a level comparable to only about the 5th percentile of children in high-income countries.

This section argues that there is an important hidden connection between the successful access statistics and the poor learning outcomes in the early grades, both of which also link to the poor results in the end-of-cycle primary-school assessments. Problems in learning outcomes are evident in foundational skills in the earliest grades. Table 4.6 shows the share of children—measured in a set of oral assessments in a few countries in the world (though mostly Africa)—who could not read a single word in the first line of a narrative.

TABLE 4.6. CHILDREN UNABLE TO READ ANY WORDS IN THE FIRST LINE OF A NARRATIVE, NEAR GRADE 2
percent

Country	Language	Nonreaders
Congo, Dem. Rep., beginning of grade 4, Bandundu, Equateur, and Orientale Provinces	French	70
Ethiopia, end of grade 2	Amharic	22
Guatemala, middle of grade 3, sample of NGO-supported schools at the baseline	Spanish	4
Haiti, beginning of grade 3, Artibonite Department and its capital, Gonaïves	French	50
Honduras, end of grade 2, rural PROHECO schools only[a]	Spanish	26
Jordan, end of grade 2	Arabic	21
Kenya, end of grade 3, Central and Luo-Nyanza Provinces	Kiswahili	21
Liberia, end of grade 2	English	54
Malawi, beginning of grade 2	Chichewa	96
Mali, end of grade 2	French	92
Morocco, end of grade 2	Arabic	33
Mozambique, middle of grade 3, Cabo Delgado, sample of NGO-supported schools at the baseline	Portuguese	57
Nepal, middle of grade 2, sample of NGO-supported schools at the baseline	Nepali	79
Nicaragua, beginning of grade 2, excluding the eastern coast	Spanish	6
Nigeria, middle of grade 3, Sokoto and Bauchi States	Hausa	78
Pakistan, end of grade 2, sample of NGO-supported schools at the baseline	Pashtu	91
Philippines, middle of grade 3, Mindanao, sample of NGO-supported schools at the baseline	English	30
Rwanda, beginning of grade 4	Kinyarwanda	13
Senegal, end of grade 3	French	18
Uganda, end of grade 2, Lango Subregion	Lango	82
Yemen, Rep., end of grade 2	Arabic	42
Zambia, end of grade 2	Bemba	91

Source: Patrick Collins, USAID, personal communication, July 5, 2012.

Note: a. PROHECO = Programa Hondureño de Educación Comunitaria (Honduran Community Education Project).

Leaving aside the relatively better and relatively worse results, one could generalize by saying that, across a variety of samples (some taken in the poorer regions of these countries), approximately 21 to 78 percent of the children in grades 2 to 4 could not read a single word in the first line of a narrative. This poor foundation is a key reason why the end-of-cycle or late-primary-school results are so poor in assessments such as PASEC and SACMEQ.

A mirror image of these problems is the problems in the enrollment and access data for the first few grades in many GPE countries. The trends and issues are as follows:

- In one-fourth to one-third of GPE countries, there are 50 to 100 percent more children in grade 1 than in the grade-appropriate age-group in the target population, and the gross intake ratio in grade 1 has been at least around 130 percent for many years. Given how long the problem has persisted, it is not possible that these extraordinary ratios represent a backlog of delayed entrants because, at such high intake ratios, any possible backlog would be erased in a few years.

- In more or less the same set of countries, there are also around 30 percent more children in grade 1 than in grade 2. This has often been interpreted as dropping out between the two grades. However, this cannot be the explanation because the ratio of children in the early grades to the grade-appropriate population is usually above 100 percent up to grade 4 or so and up to age 10 or 11. These data can be derived from administrative records, but have also been confirmed in household surveys (see chapter 3). In short, there may be dropouts in the first four grades, but much fewer than is normally thought. Nearly all children who enter persist in trying to learn for at least the first few grades, and drop out only after grade 4 or so.

- In selected countries that typify these patterns, according to data from the UNICEF Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys, 40 to 60 percent of children in grade 2 are two years or more older than children in grade 1 and 20 to 40 percent in grade 3 are 2 years or more older than children in grade 2. These shares signal not a drop-out problem or a delayed entry problem, but, it is reasonable to hypothesize, a large-scale, but underreported repetition problem.

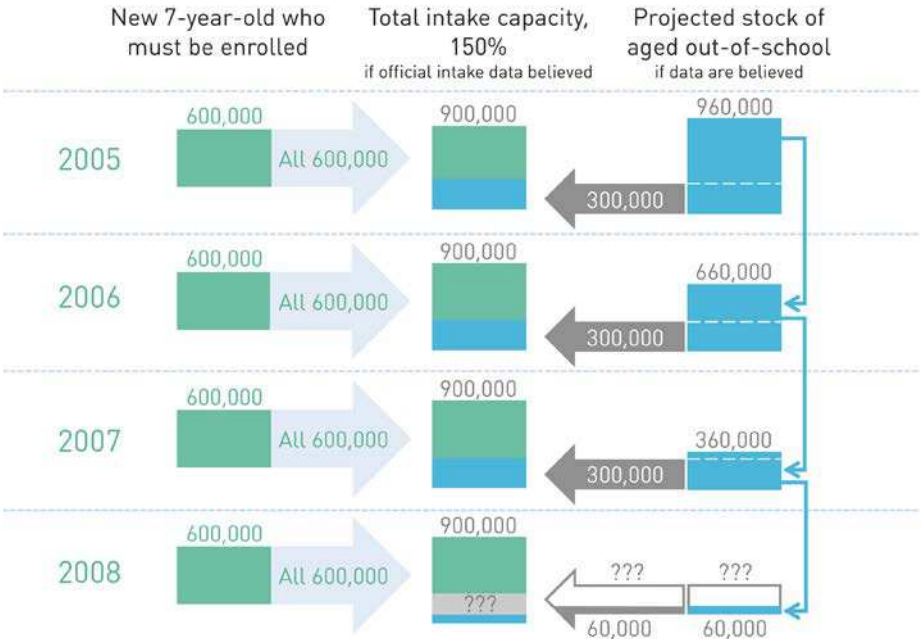
- While enrollment in early childhood development programs has been growing, it is still limited. Part of the repetition problem may arise because of the attempt of parents and teachers to use grade 1 as a sort of early childhood development program, though such an attempt is inappropriate. However, if the real repetition rates are in the ranges that the data suggest, then, in a sense, many countries are already paying for early childhood development, though they are not providing it appropriately.

21 to 78 percent of the children in grades 2 to 4 could not read a single word in the first line of a narrative.

- In the countries that are experiencing the most dramatic declines in repetition rates, enrollment numbers that surpass the size of the grade-appropriate age-group in grade 1 seem, ironically, to be increasing, not decreasing, which suggests that policies aimed at reducing repetition rates and seeking reductions in reported repetitions may not be succeeding in lowering actual repetition rates. One case study finds a 20 percentage point drop in reported repetition rates in one or two years, but a precisely matching increase of 20 percentage points in entries and enrollments in grade 1—when entry and enrolment had already been at 100% or higher, already, for several years. Parents and teachers, having realized that children may not be learning well, may be telling them to repeat but not reporting the repetition.

Figure 4.9 shows a hypothetical and perhaps somewhat extreme example to illustrate the situation. For ease of explanation, the numbers have been rounded, but approximate the data on a GPE country that shows the typical patterns. In our example, 600,000 children become 7 years old (the age of school entry) in 2005. The population is stable in this hypothetical example; so, every year there are exactly 600,000 new children that must be enrolled in school. In addition to these pupils, there are 960,000 children who have never attended school and who are documented in censuses or household surveys. That they have never attended school is significant because they represent a stock of potential school entrants who are above 7 years of age.

FIGURE 4.9. ILLUSTRATION OF PROBLEMS IN GRADE 1 ENROLLMENT FLOWS



Source: GPE compilation based on stylized data illustrative of excess enrollment in the early grades.

According to official data, the gross intake ratio, which we may consider the capacity of the education system to enroll new children in grade 1, represents 150 percent of the 7-year-old population available for entry. In our example, this means that, on a yearly basis, 900,000 students can be accepted in the first grade of primary school, or 150 percent of the population of 600,000 7-year-olds actually taken in (figure 4.9). This allows for the entry of 300,000 of the stock of children older than 7 years of age who have never before enrolled. If this happens, as the official data seem to assert, then the stock of children who enter school for the first time, but who are over 7 years of age will be reduced by 300,000 every year. After only three years, the stock of new, but overage entrants will be exhausted. Because the entire stock of 7-year-olds is also entering, the stock of overage out-of school children is not being replenished. Yet, even after these few years, the system continues to report 900,000 new entrants each year. Thus, the data on new entrants must be mislabeled; they do not represent only new entrants.

There are two possible sources of error. First, the data may be false. However, this is either completely incorrect, or it is only a small part of the explanation because, in many of the countries in which this phenomenon occurs, the household data on enrollment tend essentially to confirm Education Management Information System data. It is unlikely that two completely different sources of information would coincide so closely, if either is wrong. Second and more likely, the data on new entrants include repeaters who are not reported as repeaters.

The bulge in the repetitions in grade 1 results in a much higher enrollment rate in grade 1 than in grade 2 or grade 3. Because the repetitions are not reported correctly, the data seem to show that many children are dropping out between grades 1 and 2 or 3. This is why the primary-school survival rates often reported by education sector statistical offices, which take into account only the repetition and drop-out rates furnished by education management information systems, but do not make comparisons with actual population groups, are often so much lower than estimated completion rates. These issues are all linked to the low learning levels observed toward the end of the primary-school cycle, as follows:

- **Children enroll in grade 1 and often repeat because they learn little.** They seem to repeat grade 2 also. The repetition rates appear to be much higher than the rates officially reported.

- **The provision of early childhood development initiatives is insufficient.** The massive unofficial repetition rate, if true, seems partly to reflect the lack of coverage of preprimary school as a preparation for primary school, and the inappropriate use of grade 1 as a substitute for early childhood development options.

- **It appears that a majority of children in the first grades are learning little.** PASEC results, combined with primary-school completion data suggest that only about 20 percent of 11- or 12-year-olds have acquired a reasonable level of skills.

To begin to address these problems, GPE countries should more effectively monitor overenrollment, repetition, and poor learning outcomes, especially in reading and mathematics, in the first few grades. The GPE Results Framework and the GPE Strategic Framework, which is currently under discussion, emphasize these issues. Monitoring these issues, according to the appropriate indicators, will be a good investment.

V. Final recommendations

To confront outstanding issues in the measurement and the indicators of learning outcomes outlined in this chapter, we propose the recommendations below. These recommendations are not aimed at improving learning, but at improving the tracking of learning and its determinants. The recommendations are listed by key actor.



PHOTO CREDIT: Frederic Courbet/Panos for Save the Children

Based on the GPE strategic planning process in 2012 and on analyses in this chapter, the *GPE* should consider revising the GPE Results Framework to include the following:

- Indicators of mathematics skills in the early years.
- Indicators of the quality of early childhood development initiatives as preparation for learning in the early grades; thus, there should be an overall focus on the early years of education given the fundamental problems in most education systems.
- Work with the UIS and regional or international assessment organizations to define or improve standards for assessing learning outcomes in the early years of education and at the end of the primary cycle.
- The gathering of contextual information on the enrolled population based on DHS and MICS data.
- Encouragement for the inclusion in regional assessments of more information on inputs as an independent tool of verification of Education Management Information System data Encouragement for the use of national surveys on qualitative issues involving factors such as “Opportunity To Learn” and tools

for the observation of teaching methods (which can be linked to the teacher-oriented strategic goals in the GPE strategic plan) even if the surveys are not used in the Results Framework.

- Efforts to improve coordination in the measurement of learning outcomes at national and regional levels, including coordination among regional and international near-end-of-cycle and end-of-cycle assessments, work on standardizing and improving assessments in the early grades, and work on understanding the relationship between performance in assessments in the early grades and performance in assessments at the end of the primary cycle; this can be related to the Observatory of Learning Outcomes (OLO) of the UIS, and the UIS could then maintain this coordination.

The World Bank should consider the following:

- Continue the efforts to support improvements in national assessments and in reporting on learning quality through the Systems Approach for Better Education Results (SABER), especially the efforts in learning assessments and education management information systems, and in coordination with other bodies working on systems quality frameworks.

- Consider injecting into country projects more elements related to tracking and reporting on learning quality even if the projects are not funded by the GPE; in particular, whenever the World Bank is acting as a Supervising Entity note that this is a common phrase and should be capitalized, it should consider GPE strategic objectives in discussing the choices on project components with developing-country partners so that there is a focus on the measurement and tracking of learning quality and accountability for learning quality; the same holds true for upcoming Supervising Entities.

- Consider a coordinating role to achieve more explicit collaboration and a division of labor between the World Bank's SABER and other quality frameworks to improve routine reporting on factors in learning quality.

Regional and international assessment programs should consider the following:

- PASEC should be encouraged to deliver data on school resources comparable between countries and over time, such as the ratio of textbooks per pupil, and to include trend data on these resources as SACMEQ does.

- The IEA should share its expertise in using cross-national questionnaires on teaching practices. Donors could do more to encourage this.

- All regional programs should define household socioeconomic status on a comparable basis (using common indicators) by relying on the DHS or MICS survey framework. Coordination across the DHS and MICS exists in this area; assessment surveys should take advantage of this coordination.[13]

- The IEA, LLECE, PASEC, and SACMEQ should continue to discuss the possibility of including common items in assessments of literacy and numeracy in grade 6. This discussion could be hosted by the UIS.

- Discussions should be engaged among all programs to examine how program results are used by systems to improve instruction and, if the program results are not so used, how this might be accomplished: how regional assessment systems can provide the impetus for national assessment systems to increase the utilization of assessment data by national quality improvement systems. Models for doing this exist.

- Actors working on assessments of education during the early years should interact with actors working on end-of-cycle assessments to understand the relationship between early year assessments results and end-of-cycle assessment results and to improve the predictive power of the early-years assessments. The implications of the link between early-years skills and end-of-cycle skills for the provision of advice on quality improvement for systems and schools need to be better understood.

- The Global and Regional Activities Program, sponsored by the GPE, should reflect some of the recommendations noted here.



PHOTO CREDIT: Natasha Graham / Global Partnership for Education

- Programs should coordinate with each other, with UIS, and with the GPE to achieve more effective support from bilateral and multilateral agencies.

Assessment programs on the early years in education should consider the following:

- Consider reducing the number of tasks to be assessed at each grade to test more pupils per school or to reduce costs; and to better account for learning outcomes and variations in mother tongues among pupils.

- Develop standards of good practice among providers under the aegis of, for example, the UIS or another international body. Carry out more intensive cross-validation such as the cross-validation between ASER and EGRA. Standards should involve assessments of good practices for different purposes

(such as grassroots campaigns or teacher support); they should also address the implications and political economy of each type of use.

- Develop sampling procedures (or document the sampling procedures if these already exist) that will facilitate the use of the assessment tools for several purposes (system uses, baseline uses, and impact evaluation).

- Develop cross-language comparisons (the assessment of the same pupils in more than one language) among the assessment tools at least at the country level to evaluate learning performance rigorously across mother tongues. The tools do not need to include league tables of languages, but should allow more detailed analysis of the effect of linguistic factors on learning. Some of this has already been achieved, but more should be done.

- Improve coordination among studies at the country level so that there is no duplication. Promote the acceptance by governments of study results so that governments can play a greater role in coordination. Provide more capacity development within countries.

- Support countries in the introduction of assessments of oral fluency in national testing systems or classroom-based assessments. Donor financial support should allow for more capacity building.

- Begin the development (compilation, review, recommendations) of simple indicators of quality in early childhood development programs (not simply the quality of inputs, but also learning outcomes among children).

Local donor groups and LEGs should consider the following:

- In appointing education staff to participate in JSRs, local donors should ensure that personnel are sufficiently skilled and knowledgeable in the assessment of learning outcomes and that staff contracts include benchmarks in the sharing of information with other donors. If this is difficult, LEGs, coordinating agencies, or supervising entities should ensure that they have access to the best local consultants with knowledge of all assessment practices within the country and that these consultants are available to provide background information for ESPs and JSRs.

- Discuss a three-year midterm plan with the government on assessments of quality in education and learning outcomes to promote cost-efficiency; the plan should cover a communication strategy, government ownership of results, and improvements in coordination among donors to avoid the problem, for example, of the lack of responsibility for assessment results and accountability for learning outcomes.

- Systematically organize specific review sessions on quality in education and, specifically, learning outcomes, during JSRs, including discussions of the already-available data and studies on learning outcomes and the quality of education.[14] It would send the right signal if JSRs and ESPs themselves used the data, and avoided pressing for more data when existing data are not used, as well as avoiding asking that data be used when the ESPs and JSRs themselves do not use the data.

- Peer reviews whereby the impact on learning outcomes of the project of one donor is assessed by another donor.

GPE partner countries should consider the following:

- Include national assessment unit staff among JSR or ESP writing teams.

- Ensure that quality and learning outcome elements in the GPE strategy are at least considered and properly tracked in ESPs and JSRs, in special investments, and in programs considered important by the government and the LEG; this should include the tracking of learning outcomes at the beginning and the end of the primary cycle, the distribution of assessment results and their use to promote accountability among schools and to gain the support of teachers. Consider occasional surveys and reports on factors that determine the effectiveness of schools and the level of the opportunity for learning available to pupils.



PHOTO CREDIT: Jane Hahn/Panos for Save the Children

Donors acting collectively or individually through country-specific programs should identify a mechanism to establish transparent criteria for targeting countries needing financial or technical support in enhancing quality in education and the production and use of learning outcomes data. The criteria should cover data availability, data use, and the policy focus on learning and on learning outcome indicators. Countries that show negative results in the production or use of data should be offered financial and technical assistance especially if they fulfill the following conditions:

- They have demonstrated a commitment to the measurement of time series data and the use of the available data.

- They have experienced a change in enrollment rates and achieved higher enrollment rates (checked against completion rates and net attendance rates by household income quintile) which could be putting pressure on real or perceived quality.

- There has been an erosion in learning outcomes or an increase in the learning deficit.

ENDNOTES

1. See GPE, "Education Sector Plan," various; GPE, "Joint Sector Review," various.

2. Most plans follow a standard structure, which facilitates the retrieval of information. However, the plans typically vary in length, scope, time coverage, and level of detail.

3. Assessments such as SACMEQ can classify students' performance into levels such as Pre-Reading, Emergent Reading, Basic Reading, etc., based on a discussion of what skills the students demonstrate and the students' performance on specific items. These classification criteria are based on a curricula analysis. PASEC tends to sets its norms based on the actual distribution of the results, without a pre-analysis of the specific levels of skills certain items represent. However, PASEC tests have been recently revised using a criteria based approach.

4. For a comparison of Mauritius and other PASEC countries on a same scale (using the Rasch model), see the outlier position of Mauritius (the red dot) in Varly (2009a, 5).

5. In Mali, 68 percent of the pupils in grade 4 are unable to read "my school is beautiful" aloud in French or in their mother tongue.

6. Tabulation based on data on school life expectancy gathered by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS).

7. This has been defined by PASEC at grade 5 as the taux de connaissance de base (level of basic knowledge) and is calculated as the share of pupils scoring at least 40 percent on the PASEC assessment, multiplied by the grade 5 completion rate (using the grade 5 gross intake ratio as a proxy).

8. Calculated as new entrants to grade 5, divided by the official age-appropriate population for grade 5.

9. This subsection refers to the Results Framework prior to the strategic planning exercise carried out in mid-2012. The Results Framework will be altered based on the strategic planning exercise. Nonetheless, the basic ideas expressed here are still useful in terms of the indicators emerging from the exercise.

10. Benavot makes an important distinction between the performance standards he finds in common across many countries and the methods used to meet these standards. He notes that there was evidence of minimal agreement concerning the intended contents and structure of the upper primary reading curriculum . . . , but that . . . performance standards represented the one notable realm of the reading curriculum where a clear set of commonalities emerged. Common performance expectations specifically pertained to literal, inferential and evaluative forms of comprehension. These findings suggest that the developing countries in this study share a fairly common notion as to the kinds of reading competencies students should attain by the end of the primary cycle, but have different views of what constitutes the substance of the reading curriculum. (Benavot 2011, 37)

11. See "Systems Approach for Better Education Results," World Bank, Washington, DC, http://go.worldbank.org/NK2EK7MKV0.

12. Except as otherwise indicated, all data in this section are based on analyses performed for this report using information from the UIS that was also developed for Commonwealth Education Partnerships 2012/13 (Commonwealth Secretariat 2012).

13. "UNICEF is also working closely with the USAID-supported Demographic and Health Surveys to ensure that comparable child-related data are produced from those surveys" (UNICEF 2004, 2).

14. Assessment data should be documented by including a minimum of information on sample size, the target population, test content (percent share by area of focus), and the contextual information collected (questionnaires).



CHAPTER **FIVE**

DOMESTIC AND EXTERNAL FINANCING FOR EDUCATION IN THE GLOBAL PARTNERSHIP

PHOTO CREDIT: GMB Akash/Panos Pictures

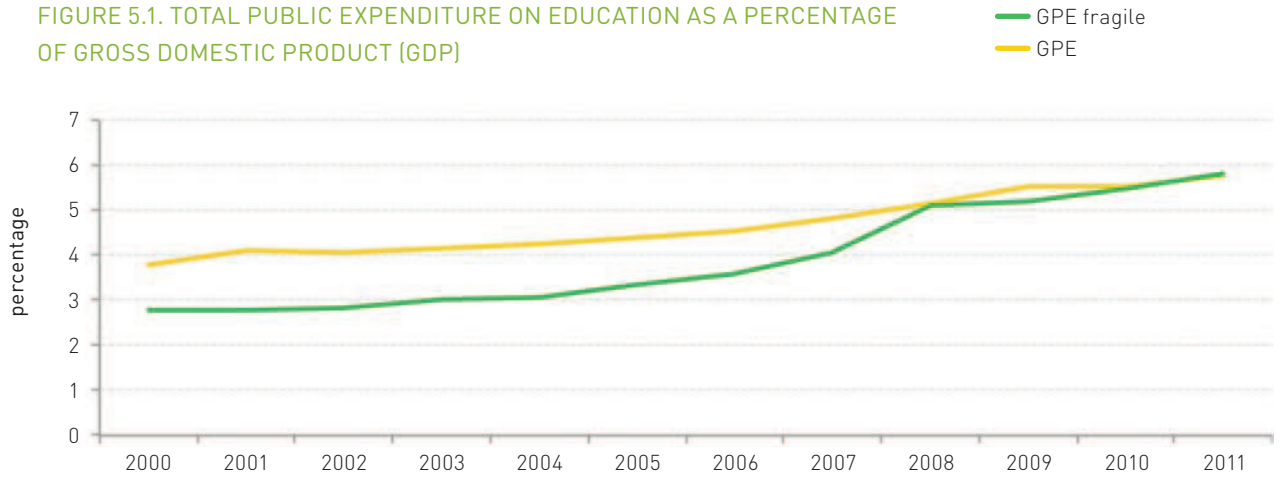
This chapter presents an overview of the domestic and external financing flows in education in the Global Partnership for Education (GPE) developing country partners, also referred to as GPE countries. In addition, the chapter examines the results of the 2011 GPE Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector. It also focuses on the implementation of the new GPE Fund following the success of the first replenishment in November 2011 and the outcomes achieved through the use of the trust fund resources that have been allocated since 2003. Finally, the chapter investigates two potential constraints on education financing that will need to be addressed in coming years: (1) the financing of teacher salaries and (2) investment in the development of post-primary education.

The share of government expenditures in GPE countries allocated to education increased from 17 percent in 2000 to 19.4 in 2011 and represented 5.8 percent of GDP in 2011 against 3.8 percent in 2000.

I. Macroeconomic analysis and financial prospects

This section provides a brief macroeconomic and financial overview of the education sector in the 46 GPE countries as of December 31, 2011. Of these countries, 13 are considered fragile states. On the basis of average per capita income, 34 are classified by the World Bank as International Development Association (IDA) 1 or IDA 2, and 12 are classified as IDA 3 (figure 5.1).[1] Of the fragile GPE countries, 71 percent are IDA 1.[2] In 2011, the total gross domestic product (GDP) of GPE countries was US$615 billion, of which fragile states accounted for US$116 billion. The average GDP grew by 4 percent in 2011, and overall per capita income averaged US$903.

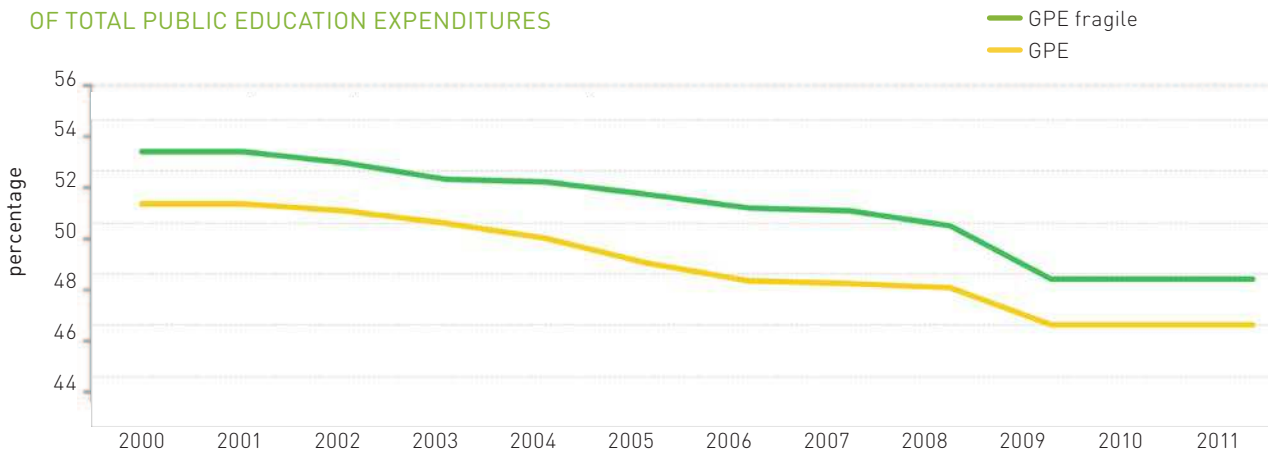
FIGURE 5.1. TOTAL PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION AS A PERCENTAGE OF GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT (GDP)



Source: GPE compilation based on IMF (World Economic Outlook Database), World Bank (World Development Indicators and Global Development Finance) and UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal,
http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/weo/2012/01/weodata/index.aspx
http://data.worldbank.org/data-catalog/world-development-indicators
http://data.worldbank.org/data-catalog/global-development-finance
http://www.uis.unesco.org

Overall, the share of government expenditures in GPE countries allocated to education increased from 17 percent in 2000 to 19.4 in 2011 and represented 5.8 percent of GDP in 2011 against 3.8 percent in 2000. Of the GPE countries, 33 allocated more than 15 percent of public resources to education, while 13 GPE countries allocated more than 20 percent. Nevertheless, there were 13 countries that allocated less than 15 percent of public resources to education. Between 2002 and 2004, GPE fragile states allocated a lower share of their GDP to education; however the difference has decreased gradually since 2004, and, by 2010, fragile and non-fragile countries allocated the same share of GDP to education.

FIGURE 5.2. PRIMARY EDUCATION EXPENDITURES AS A SHARE OF TOTAL PUBLIC EDUCATION EXPENDITURES



Source: GPE compilation based on IMF (World Economic Outlook Database), World Bank (World Development Indicators and Global Development Finance) and UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal,
http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/weo/2012/01/weodata/index.aspx
http://data.worldbank.org/data-catalog/world-development-indicators
http://data.worldbank.org/data-catalog/global-development-finance
http://www.uis.unesco.org

In GPE countries, primary education absorbed almost 48 percent of total public education expenditures in 2011 against 53 percent in 2000. Even if this share has decreased, it is still high especially in fragile states where primary education accounts for almost 50 percent of public expenditures for education, demonstrating that primary education is still a priority for GPE countries. The decrease of the share of primary education expenditures is linked to the growing demand for post primary education, as discussed in Section III.B. (Enrollment in post-primary education has been growing faster than enrollment in primary for quite some time, and the per-student costs are higher: this forces the share of expenditure to shift towards secondary.)

If GPE countries allocate a significant part of their resources to education, it is critical to identify the main beneficiaries. In this respect, it appears that the allocation of public resources in education is not equitable in GPE countries, as the following data show.

Higher-income students (whose parents are typically the most well-educated) stay longer in the education system and therefore benefit more from public resources than do lower-income students. The poorest children have less access to education, and students from the households with the highest incomes thus receive a disproportionate share of public expenditures (see chapter 3).

On the average, 43 percent of public spending on education is received by the 10 percent most-educated in the low-income Sub-Saharan African countries, compared with only 25 percent in the middle-income countries.... Although low-income Sub-Saharan African countries still suffer from fairly large inequities in the distribution of public education spending, these inequalities have diminished significantly over the past 30 years. The 10 percent most-educated received 63 percent of the resources in 1975, 56 percent in 1992, and 43 percent in 2003. This apparent decline in structural disparities is a result of the significant expansion in enrollments during the period, coupled with reductions in differences between per-student spending across educational levels as coverage expanded (Majgaard and Mingat 2012, 101–03).

The poorest children have less access to education, and students from the households with the highest incomes thus receive a disproportionate share of public expenditures.

By advocating for an increase in financing for basic education and by ensuring that more financing will reach the poorest, the Global Partnership contributes to improving equity in education. For example, the government of Vietnam, which was one of the first partners in 2003, has made a strong push to increase public expenditures on education from less than 3 percent of GDP in 2000 to 5.6 percent of GDP in 2008. While increasing its support to education, Vietnam managed to keep a high share of its public budget allocated to basic education, and in 2011, spending on primary and lower secondary accounted for more than 50 percent of education expenditures. At the primary level, one of the driving forces behind the increase in education spending has been a school construction program that ensures that every commune now has at least a satellite primary school. Vietnam has also worked toward equity, making a concerted effort to improve the quality of educational inputs in primary schools in disadvantaged areas. These efforts have been supported by the recently concluded Primary Education for Disadvantaged Children Project, which covered 4,751 schools in 227 disadvantaged districts across 40 provinces. This US$244 million project (2004–10) received donor support from the IDA and Australia, Canada, Norway, and the United Kingdom. Vietnam has recently applied for a US$84.6 million GPE grant to support its effort to improve equity. The project's immediate beneficiaries are primary-school children in disadvantaged groups in 20 priority provinces. These groups are defined according to four school characteristics: (1) the percent share of students classified as belonging to poor households, (2) the percent share of children in ethnic minority groups, (3) the distance of the school to the district center, and (4) the percent share of children who perform poorly or only among the average in student achievement measures. Planners expected that 440,000 children would be direct beneficiaries of the project.

Although low-income Sub-Saharan African countries still suffer from fairly large inequities in the distribution of public education spending, these inequalities have diminished significantly over the past 30 years.

Table 5.1 shows that each of the recent financing requests for GPE funding approved by the Board of Directors in December 2011 had components directly targeting marginalized children.

TABLE 5.1. OBJECTIVES OF GPE FUNDING IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

US$, millions

Country	GPE funding	Objective
Afghanistan	55.7	Focus on the most disadvantaged populations and the potential to make inroads in the education deficit in remote, rural, and, especially, insecure communities
Côte d'Ivoire	41.4	Build and equip classrooms in the areas most heavily affected by the crisis; build small lower-secondary schools (collèges de proximités) in remote areas to support lower-secondary education among poor households and incentives to promote girls education
Guinea-Bissau	12.0	Improve retention and equity by stimulating demand among vulnerable groups
Mali	41.7	Improve access and equity in basic education (primary and lower-secondary education) by increasing classroom places, expanding the direct transfer of funds to all public schools, and targeting interventions to reduce gender and regional disparities
Moldova	4.4	Provide equitable access to preschool programs in rural localities and ensure greater access to preschool education among children with special needs and children in disadvantaged and vulnerable social groups
Mongolia	10.0	Provide access to early childhood education among children in disadvantaged communities; this will be achieved by increasing the supply of permanent kindergartens in urban and periurban areas and creating alternative preschool kindergarten classes that follow herders in the summer and rely on mobile schools in ger (literally, home: a portable felt structure)

Source: GPE compilation.

To further analyze the equity of education financing, the effort made by households in this field needs to be taken into account. This issue is critical especially regarding the conclusions of chapter 3, which demonstrated that most of the children from the poorest households do not have access to education. If donors and policy-makers under-estimate the importance of household contributions, this could have important consequences, such as an under-estimation of inequality, and also an under-estimation of the importance of schools and the education sector being accountable to parents.

Data on household spending are not collected by EMIS, therefore, one needs to rely on household surveys for that information. The following section will present the results of a new study on 15 African countries (Foko, Kouak Tiyab, and Husson, 2012). It demonstrates the importance, at country level, of strengthening the collection on information on household spending on education, especially to better understand the barriers to education.

II. Household spending on education

Household spending on education as a share of household budgets is highly variable across countries, from 9.6 percent in Benin in 2003 to 1.2 percent in Niger in 2005. In countries such as Cameroon and Sierra Leone, total household spending on education is greater than public expenditures.

Foko, Kouak Tiyab, and Husson (2012) show that household spending on education in 15 African countries represents 4.2 percent of the total household budget and 1.7 percent of GDP and is equivalent to 50 percent of public education expenditure (see also UIS 2011a). However, household spending on education as a share of household budgets is highly variable across countries, from 9.6 percent in Benin in 2003 to 1.2 percent in Niger in 2005. In countries such as Cameroon and Sierra Leone, total household spending on education is greater than public expenditures. In the 15 African countries in the study, the share of household expenditures devoted to education is 5.4 percent among the 20 percent of households with the highest incomes, but only 2.6 percent among the 20 percent of households with the lowest incomes. However, the wealthiest households spend more in tuition fees (60 percent) to enroll their children in private schools. The poorest households spend relatively more on school supplies and school-related materials (more than 50 percent of total education expenditures). Moreover, fewer children in the poorest households participate in secondary or tertiary education, where the fees are higher. Thus, public policies aiming at better access to affordable school supplies and school-related materials among the poorest households could have a greater impact than the elimination of school fees on the demand for basic education. However, this impact may vary across countries, and the identification of such policies would require specific analysis on the composition of household expenditures in basic education.

The household financial contribution to national efforts in education is the most significant in secondary education, but small in tertiary education. Household expenditures are equivalent to 33 percent of the public expenditures on primary education and 68 percent of the public expenditure on lower-secondary education. The household contribution peaks at 85 percent at the upper-secondary level and falls to less than 20 percent in tertiary education. Foko, Kouak Tiyab, and Husson (2012) also show that, in tertiary education, 60 percent of the students come from the households with the highest incomes and they are therefore the main beneficiaries of public resources in this subsector. Thus, in a sense, parents pay high private costs in secondary school in order to access the privilege of a much more highly subsidized higher education, which has obvious impacts for equity, an issue already discussed above. In a context of limited public resources, countries in which household expenditures in tertiary education are relatively low compared with public expenditures should adopt policy measures that rebalance the household financial contribution. This is particularly true in the context of the expansion of post-primary education (see below).



PHOTO CREDIT: Imogen Prickett/Save the Children

III. Two key challenges to education financing

This section identifies two potential major challenges for education financing in coming years: (1) the financing of teacher salaries and (2) the development of post-primary education.

A. Paying teacher salaries

Even if the relative cost of teacher salaries has declined steadily in recent decades (from an average of 6.6 to 3.7 times the per capita GDP in low-income countries between 1975 and 2000 and from an average of 8.4 to 5.7 times the per capita GDP in African countries between 1975 and 2009), they account for the biggest share of public expenditures on education in GPE countries. In 34 African countries over the period 2003-2008, expenditures on teaching personnel represented more than 50 percent of public budget. The share of teacher salaries in recurrent expenditure decreases as the level of education goes up, from 69 percent in primary, to 55 percent in secondary, 38 percent in technical and vocational education and training (TVET), and 26 percent in higher education (UIS 2011a, see also UNESCO 2004, 2008). It is therefore critical to monitor the evolution of teacher salaries to ensure that public resources are available to finance other needs, especially the delivery of teaching and learning materials to schools.

Since 2000, the recruitment of teachers who are not civil servants, and/or teachers with little or no professional training, and who are paid directly by parents or by the government through fixed-term contracts at salaries that are lower than those of their civil servant counterparts, has enabled GPE countries to meet the rising demand for education at a relatively low cost. However, this solution is unlikely to be sustainable over time for various reasons.

In many GPE countries, a large proportion of teachers are paid by parents. For example, in the Central African Republic, 54 percent of teacher salaries were paid directly by parents in 2007. In the Republic of Congo and Madagascar, the figures were 49 (2007) and 51 percent (2006), respectively (UIS 2011a). Although these community teachers are often poorly paid, the cost constitutes a significant burden on poor households and raises equity issues. Governments are under pressure to take over this financial burden and pay a part of the salaries of community teachers or hire them as contract teachers (UIS 2011a).

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Another factor that may lead to an increase in the financing costs associated with teachers arises from the need to assign teachers to remote areas and to provide them with income incentives. For example, in Afghanistan, “in 18 provinces where there is a dire need for professional teachers, 363 TTC [Teacher Training College] teachers, particularly women, receive monthly regional incentives of US$160 to $200” (Afghanistan 2011, 21). This will become more and more important as education systems extend school coverage to areas that are more remote and less accessible.

Teacher salaries are sometimes insufficient even to meet basic needs and "teachers often have to supplement their income with a second job, with damaging consequences for the quality of their teaching" (UNESCO 2008, 17). One of the objectives of the new GPE strategic plan is to improve teacher effectiveness by training, recruiting, and retaining teachers and supporting them in providing good-quality education. In this respect, the GPE will track the conditions of employment among teachers more closely. Such information is not easy to collect, but, by relying on household surveys, the GPE may be able to analyze the situation of the households of teachers relative to other households (UIS 2011a, 2011b). In addition, the conditions of employment can be analyzed via simple surveys of key informants in LEGs, including teacher organizations.

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However, it is important to highlight that recruitment rates will remain high, and countries may face difficulties finding candidates because the number of graduates from secondary education is limited. The UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) has shown that, in selected GPE countries (Burkina Faso, the Central African Republic, Mozambique, and Uganda), achieving universal primary education by 2015 would create a recruitment need that would exceed not only the number of potential upper-secondary graduates who choose to become teachers, but also the entire population of potential upper-secondary graduates (UIS 2011b). Therefore, one may expect that these countries will either need to continue to hire teachers with fewer qualifications or will have to compete with other sectors to attract people with better qualifications.

B. Development financing for post-primary education

Another emerging challenge in education financing is the rising cost of the post-primary subsector. This is already a trend, and the trend will continue for many years to come. Three factors have converged to create this financial pressure: (1) large, rapid increases in primary-school completion rates; (2) high population growth rates, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa; and (3) per student costs are much higher in post-primary education than in primary education, and the ratio of per student costs in post-primary education to per student costs in primary education is highest in the poorest countries. This means that the growing pressure on education budgets is likely to affect the poorest countries the most severely.

Enrollments in post-primary education have already increased significantly in developing countries. Thus, the gross enrollment ratio in secondary education rose in Sub-Saharan African countries from 24 to 34 percent between 1999 and 2008 (UNESCO 2011). The lower-secondary completion rate is expected to increase from 44 to 64 percent in the 46 GPE countries between 2010 and 2020 (see chapter 2). A study on Sub-Saharan African countries (Mingat, Ledoux, and Rakotomalala 2010) projected enrollments in lower-secondary education in 2020 to be two times greater than the enrollments around the middle of the decade 2000–10 in Lesotho, Togo, and Zimbabwe; close to four times greater in Guinea and Mali; around nine times greater in Burundi, Tanzania, and Uganda; and more than 11 times greater in Mozambique and Niger, assuming a transition rate of 100 percent from primary to secondary education.

In addition, the challenge will be even greater in Sub-Saharan African countries, where, in 2005, unit costs were about 3.7 times higher in secondary education than in primary education, and unit costs were 34 times higher in tertiary education than in primary education (Mingat, Ledoux, and Rakotomalala 2010). These ratios were much more manageable in low-income countries outside Sub-Saharan Africa, where average unit costs were only 1.1 times higher in secondary education than in primary education, and average unit costs were 5 times higher in tertiary education than in primary education.

Clearly, the expansion in enrollments in post-primary education, combined with the higher unit costs, will exert significant pressure on domestic resources, and this will mean that systems will not be able to provide sufficient teachers, classrooms, and learning materials to address the growth in enrollments.

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The need to support the development of post-basic education and the potential increase in the funding requirements represented by teacher salaries mean that the sector must find more financial resources. However, many countries will not be able to mobilize additional public resources. In some countries, there is room for greater household expenditures on education, especially in tertiary education and especially among households in the highest income quintile (see above). This would allow governments to allocate more public resources to basic education, where the social returns are more substantial. In addition, it is important for the global community to find ways to lower the unit cost of secondary education.

C. Improving efficiency in the sector

A partial solution to these challenges would involve enhancing efficiency and improving management in education, especially in the post-primary subsector, where per student costs are so high. There is room for improvement: many countries are able to achieve better results with similar resources.

1. The distribution of teachers

One of the main problems derives from the process by which teachers are assigned to schools. The relationship between teacher allocation decisions and the number of students is tenuous. An analysis of 11 African countries—eight GPE countries and three GPE-eligible countries—shows that, in 2004–07, one-third of the teacher assignments to public primary schools were not based on the number of students in the schools (UIS 2011a). This represents a significant waste of resources and leads to increased inequity in the education sector as some schools have a much higher pupil-teacher ratio, especially in remote areas where teachers do not want to work. Some GPE countries need to provide an effective solution quickly. In Togo, for example, local GPE partners financed a study to identify ways to improve the distribution of teachers. The recommendations emanating from the study were influential in driving deliberations during the subsequent JSR and led to an increased consistency in teacher allocations and a reduction in disparities across schools in terms of class size. These actions should have an important impact on quality, with no additional public expenditure, especially for the poorest children, as it will decrease the number of classrooms with a very high pupil-teacher ratio.

2. Repetition

Table 5.2 presents repetition rates for a sample of GPE countries in primary and secondary education. This shows that repetition is an important issue in GPE countries. The high levels of repetition lead to larger classes and the need for additional resources to purchase more textbooks and hire more teachers. There is also no evidence indicating that repetition has a positive impact on learning. Indeed, it seems that high repetition rates are associated with higher drop-out rates as children who have repeated grades become older and are able to take work and financially support their households (Bernard, Simon and Vianou, 2005). Many GPE countries implement policies to reduce repetition rates, such as automatic promotion. However, the impact of this solution will be limited if parents and teachers are not convinced or if additional support is not implemented for weaker learners (Ndaruhutse, Brannelly and Latham, 2008).

It is also important to highlight that actual repetition is much higher than reported repetition, especially in early grades. And there is much repetition even in countries with automatic promotion because both parents and teachers realize that children (since they learn so little) are not ready to move on beyond Grade 1. The children then often are made to repeat in spite of official policy, and repeaters get reported as new, which explains why the gross intake rates in primary education are higher than 100 percent for very long periods (see chapter 3 and 4).

TABLE 5.2. REPETITION RATES IN EDUCATION IN GPE COUNTRIES

percent

Country	Education level	2008	2009	2010
Cambodia	Primary	11	10	8
	Secondary	2	—	2
Nepal	Primary	17	15	14
	Secondary	—	—	—
Cameroon	Primary	17	15	13
	Secondary	16	19	—
Chad	Primary	23	23	22
	Secondary	—	19	20
Côte d'Ivoire	Primary	—	19	—
	Secondary	11	15	—
Congo, Dem. Rep.	Primary	15	15	14
	Secondary	16	19	—
Madagascar	Primary	20	20	20
	Secondary	12	12	9
Mali	Primary	14	13	13
	Secondary	17	16	17

Source: Data based on Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org.
Note: — = not available.

3. Effectiveness of service delivery

Some countries have undertaken studies to track the effectiveness of the delivery of education services to and by schools.[3] These studies focus on identifying the discrepancies, inefficiencies, and delays in the execution of selected public expenditures. For example, a study in Mali in 2005, showed that schools received, on average, only about 40 percent of the textbooks allocated by the Ministry of Education (CEDREF 2005). A similar study in Madagascar in 2006 shows that, of all teachers who were absent from the classroom, 13 percent were absent because of their need to travel to collect their salaries (Francken 2007). Other studies[4] measure the loss in instructional time and learning opportunity and diagnose the underlying causes of poor learning outcomes. Pupil absenteeism and overcrowded classrooms are some of the many factors that may affect the effective learning time (see also chapter 4). Such studies should be taken into consideration in the dialogue within countries, especially during the JSRs. They provide evidence on the sources of inefficiency in national public expenditure systems. Civil society organizations can also play an important role in tracking public expenditures at the local level.



PHOTO CREDIT: Susan Warner/Save the Children

4. Reduce the cost of post-primary education

Many GPE countries have identified the risk of the unsustainable development of post-primary education and drafted policies to regulate the access of students to education after they have completed basic education to ensure that the system can continue to meet and adapt to national socioeconomic needs while being financially sustainable. For example, Guinea-Bissau is limiting the access to upper-secondary education to 40 percent of the graduates from the lower-secondary cycle. The remaining graduates will be able to attend vocational or technical training courses.

Many other GPE countries are relying on vocational training, technical education, and apprenticeship programs to control the access to higher education and to (in theory) increase the availability of the technical skills relevant for economic growth. However, the expansion of these programs is constrained by high unit costs and by the fact that in many countries there is little incentive for the public and private sectors to work together to create (and, most importantly, deliver) curricula that are meaningful for local labor markets.

Moreover, the demand for post-primary education will continue to increase, and administrative rules to control the access to secondary and tertiary education will face strong social pressure. The only sustainable solution involves finding ways to lower unit costs and increase efficiency in the sub-sectors. Many approaches have been identified; they consist of defining an appropriate combination of adequate teacher salaries, the number of students per instructional group, the average hours of instruction received by students per week, and the hours of instruction provided by teachers per week. As for primary education, efficiency can be improved by reducing the repetition and drop-out rates, strengthening service delivery effectiveness, and also improving teacher allocations. The weekly hours of instruction provided by teachers can be increased, especially in lower secondary education, by

ensuring that teachers teach more than one subject (see Mingat, Ledoux, and Rakotomalala 2010; World Bank 2005). It is also important to ensure that the regulation of the expansion of post-basic education respects equity principles and that a higher proportion of girls and students in poor households are supplied with access to secondary and higher education.

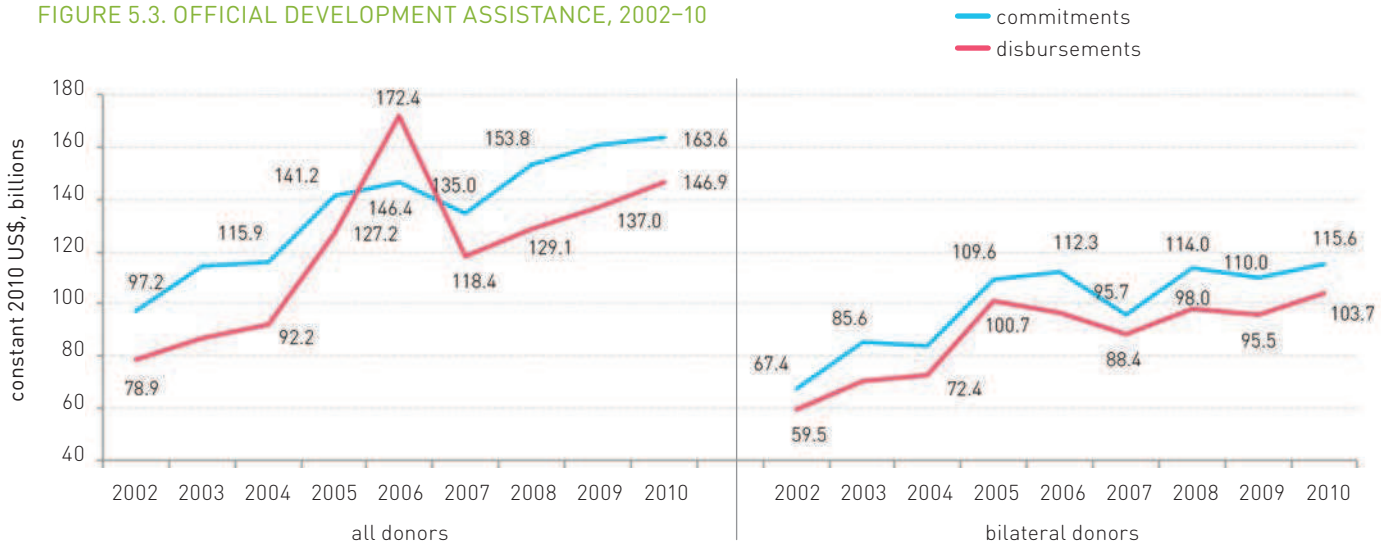
IV. Trends in official development assistance

A. Total official development assistance

The total volume of the commitments of official development assistance (ODA) to developing countries has increased significantly, from US$97.2 billion in 2002 to US$163.6 billion in 2010.

The total volume of the commitments of official development assistance (ODA) to developing countries has increased significantly, from US$97.2 billion in 2002 to US$163.6 billion in 2010 (figure 5.3).[5] ODA was exceptionally high in 2005 and 2006 because of large Paris Club debt relief operations.

FIGURE 5.3. OFFICIAL DEVELOPMENT ASSISTANCE, 2002–10



Source: GPE compilation based on data in the Aid Architecture (database) and Aid Statistics (database), Development Assistance Committee, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, Paris, http://www.oecd.org/dac/

Bilateral aid, which represents the bulk of ODA, followed the same trends. However, during 2002–10, the average annual increase in commitments among bilateral donors remained lower than the corresponding increase in commitments among all donors: US$6.0 billion versus US$8.3 billion (table 5.2). Note that at any given time disbursements do not reach the level of the commitments, although disbursements do tend to catch up, with a lag of approximately two years in the case of multilateral donors and one year in the case of bilateral donors. Indeed, the data show that disbursements have been growing more rapidly than commitments.

TABLE 5.3. CHANGES IN TOTAL OFFICIAL DEVELOPMENT ASSISTANCE, 2002–10

Indicator	US$, billion 2002	US$, billion 2010	Change, %	Average annual rate of change, %
Commitments				
All donors	97.2	163.6	68	8.5
Bilateral donors	67.4	115.6	72	8.9
Disbursements				
All donors	78.9	146.9	86	10.8
Bilateral donors	59.5	103.7	74	9.3

Source: GPE compilation based on data in the Aid Architecture (database) and Aid Statistics (database), Development Assistance Committee, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, Paris, http://www.oecd.org/dac/.

B. Education official development assistance

Aid commitments to education fell by about 7 percent in 2010, compared to the previous year, to reach US$14.1 billion (figure 5.4, chart a).[6] If one disregards the natural drop after the years of exceptional debt relief, this was the first annual drop since 2000. The decline was caused by the significant reduction (50 percent) in the portion of aid to education allocated through general budget support. Sector-allocable transfers are stable over time. There is much less stability in general budget support, as shown by the coefficient of correlation between general budget support and time (0.898 for sector support compared with a low of 0.220 for general budget support). It may be wise to analyze aid commitments to education as a two-year moving average given that national education projects typically run longer than one year and can therefore absorb some up or down shifts in donor funding. The moving average provides a trend that is smoother than the trends in commitments if they are taken year on year (figure 5.4, chart b). Meanwhile, despite the lack of growth in ODA commitments to education in 2010, disbursements more than doubled, to US$13.4 billion, between 2002 and 2010.

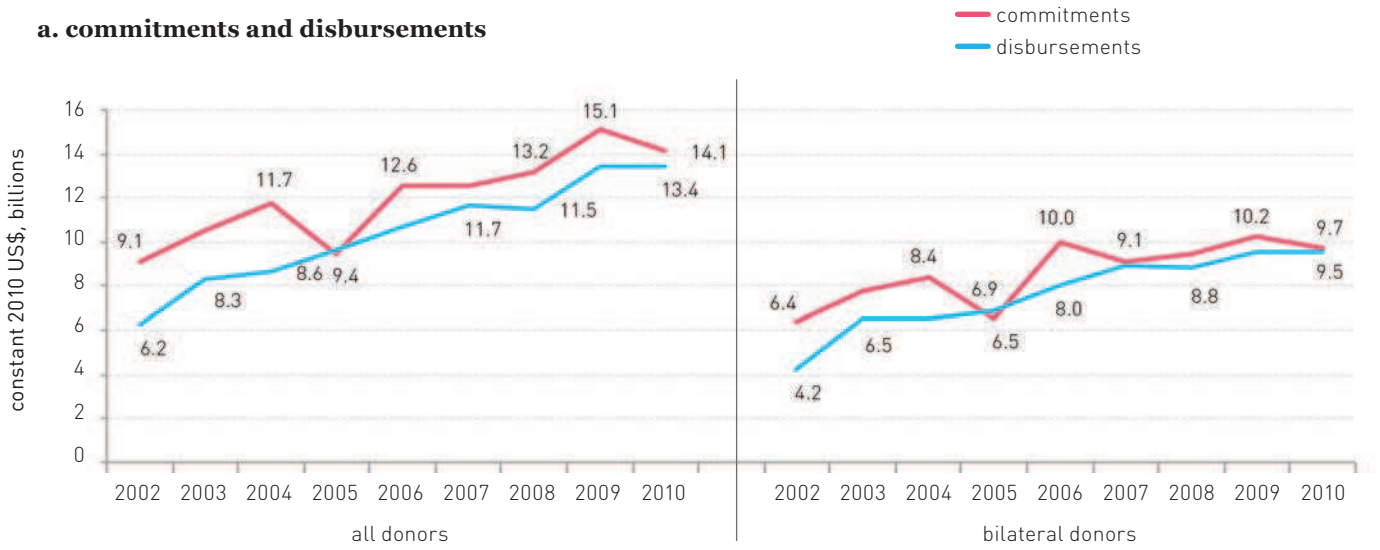
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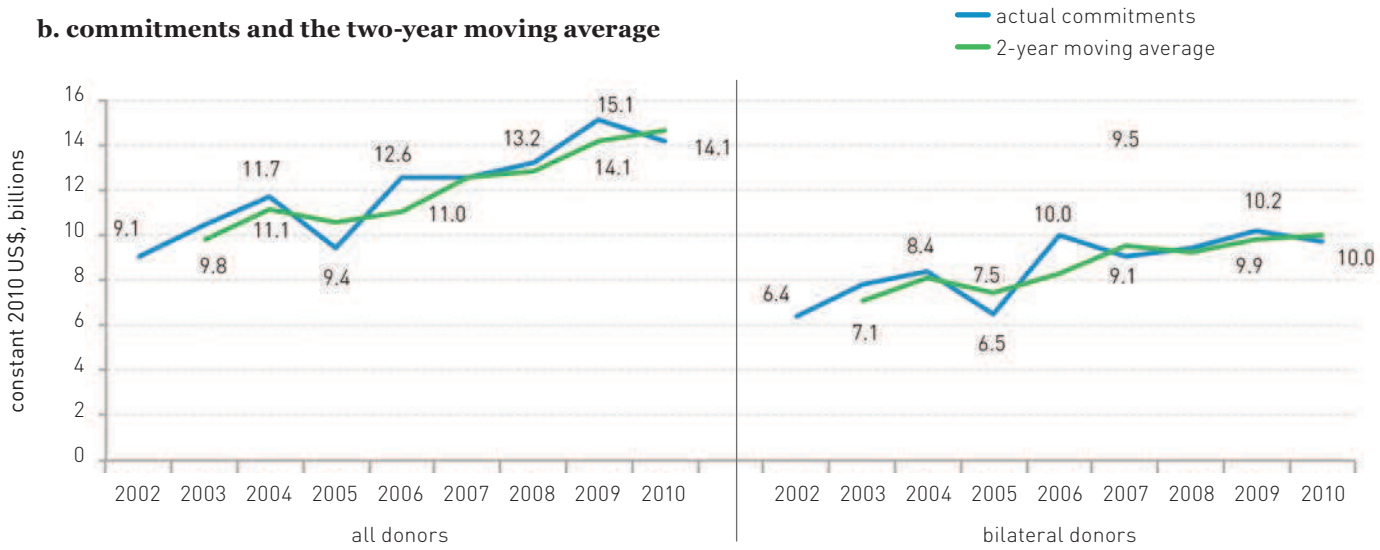
PHOTO CREDIT: Guy Calaf/Save the Children

FIGURE 5.4. EDUCATION OFFICIAL DEVELOPMENT ASSISTANCE, 2002–10

a. commitments and disbursements



b. commitments and the two-year moving average



Source: GPE compilation based on data in the Aid Architecture (database) and Aid Statistics (database), Development Assistance Committee, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, Paris, http://www.oecd.org/dac/.

C. Education official development assistance going to low-income countries

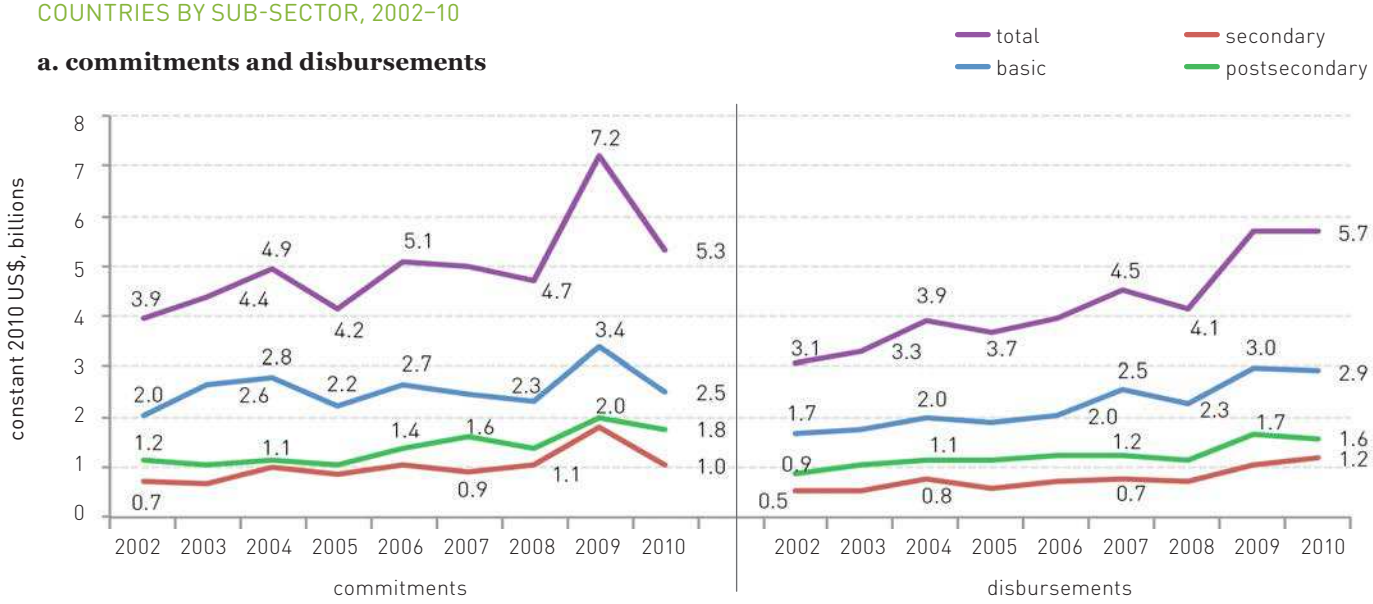
The analysis of education aid in the subsequent sections allocates general budget support to the education sector and other ODA eligible sectors pro rata to the share of each sector or sub-sector in total ODA-eligible government expenditure, i.e. excluding defense and security expenditures, as per the recommendations in Foster (2004). With an allocation of US$5.3 billion in 2010, low-income countries

received 38 percent of total education ODA commitments. This represents a decrease of 10 percentage points in the share going to these countries relative to 2009 and is mostly caused by a decline in aid commitments allocated to general budget support. Over the longer term, aid commitments for education in low-income countries increased from US$3.9 billion in 2002 to US$5.3 billion in 2010 (figure 5.5, chart a). Despite the financial crisis, commitments increased by US$2.5 billion between 2008 and 2009. Except in 2008, when the level dropped slightly, disbursements of education ODA to low-income countries increased significantly in the period 2002–10, reaching US$5.7 billion in 2010.

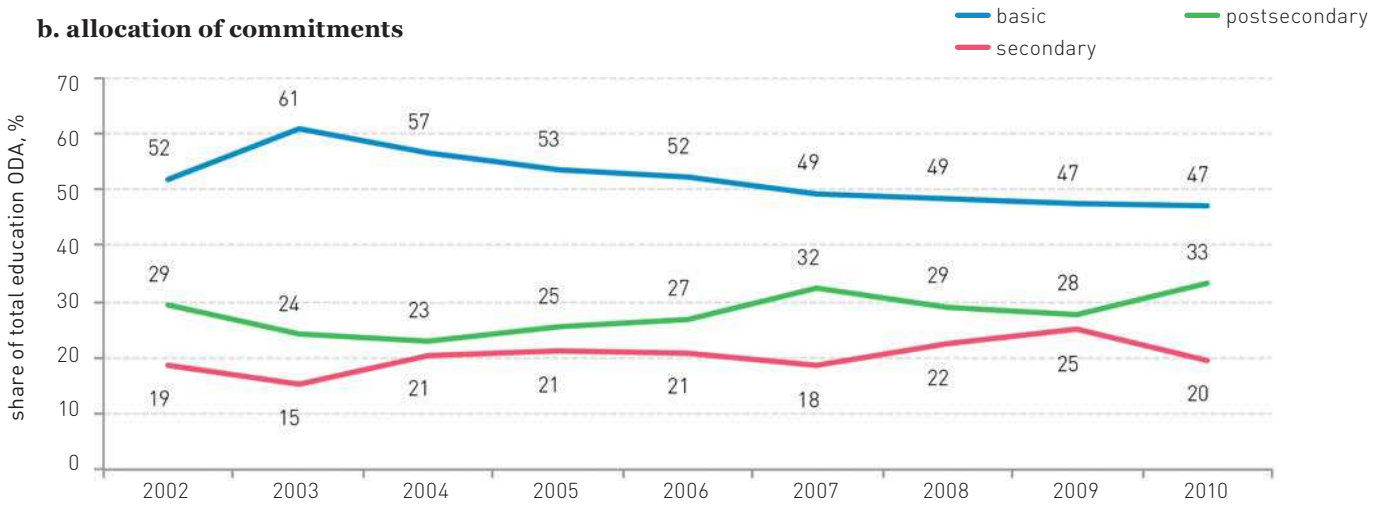
Low-income countries received 38 percent of total education ODA commitments. This represents a decrease of 10 percentage points relative to 2009.

FIGURE 5.5. EDUCATION OFFICIAL DEVELOPMENT ASSISTANCE GOING TO LOW-INCOME COUNTRIES BY SUB-SECTOR, 2002–10

a. commitments and disbursements



b. allocation of commitments



Source: GPE compilation based on data in the Aid Architecture (database) and Aid Statistics (database), Development Assistance Committee, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, Paris, http://www.oecd.org/dac/.

1. Basic education

In low-income countries, the share of basic education in total aid commitments to education declined progressively from a peak of 61 percent in 2003 to 47 percent in 2010 (figure 5.5, chart b). Nonetheless, in absolute terms, ODA commitments and disbursements to basic education and total aid commitments to education followed similar trends (figure 5.5 chart a). In 2010, aid commitments to basic education amounted to US$2.5 billion. During 2002–10, ODA disbursements to basic education rose by 74 percent, reaching US$2.9 billion in 2010 (figure 5.5 chart a).

2. Secondary and post-secondary education

Aid commitments to secondary education remain the lowest across the education sector. The level of commitments slowly increased from US$0.7 billion in 2002 to US$2 billion in 2009, but fell to US$1 billion in 2010 (figure 5.5 chart b). However, some of this decline is caused by relative shifts in the amounts of education ODA not reported by sub-sector, or in the shares of general budget support relative to educational ODA, and the fact that different rules of thumb are used for allocating these forms of aid to the various sub-sectors. During 2002–10, the levels and trends of the aid committed to post-secondary education were similar to those for secondary education. However, in 2010, the share of post-secondary education in total education ODA commitments increased by 5 percentage points, while the corresponding share of secondary education declined by the same amount (figure 5.5 chart b).

Aid commitments to secondary education remain the lowest across the education sector. The level of commitments slowly increased from US$0.7 billion in 2002 to US$2 billion in 2009, but fell to US$1 billion in 2010.

D. Bilateral aid to education in low-income countries

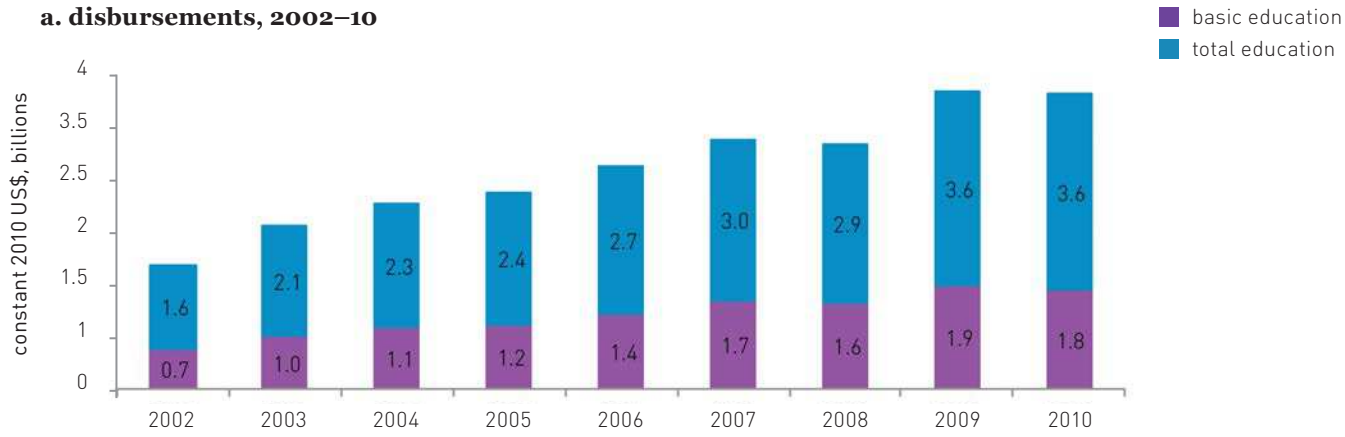
The total volume of disbursements of bilateral aid to education in low-income countries has more than doubled during since 2002, but stagnated at US$3.6 billion in 2010 (figure 5.6, chart a). This stagnation hides a substantial annual increase relative to the previous year (of 20 to 92 percent) among six bilateral donors (Australia, Canada, Denmark, Finland, New Zealand, and the United States). In 2002–10, 5 of 22 donors (Canada, Germany, Japan, the United Kingdom, and the United States) accounted for 83 percent of the increase in education aid disbursements. The disbursements for basic education also progressively rose, from US$0.7 billion in 2002 to US$1.8 billion in 2010. Over these years, they represented between 47 and 56 percent of the total bilateral ODA disbursements for education in low-income countries.



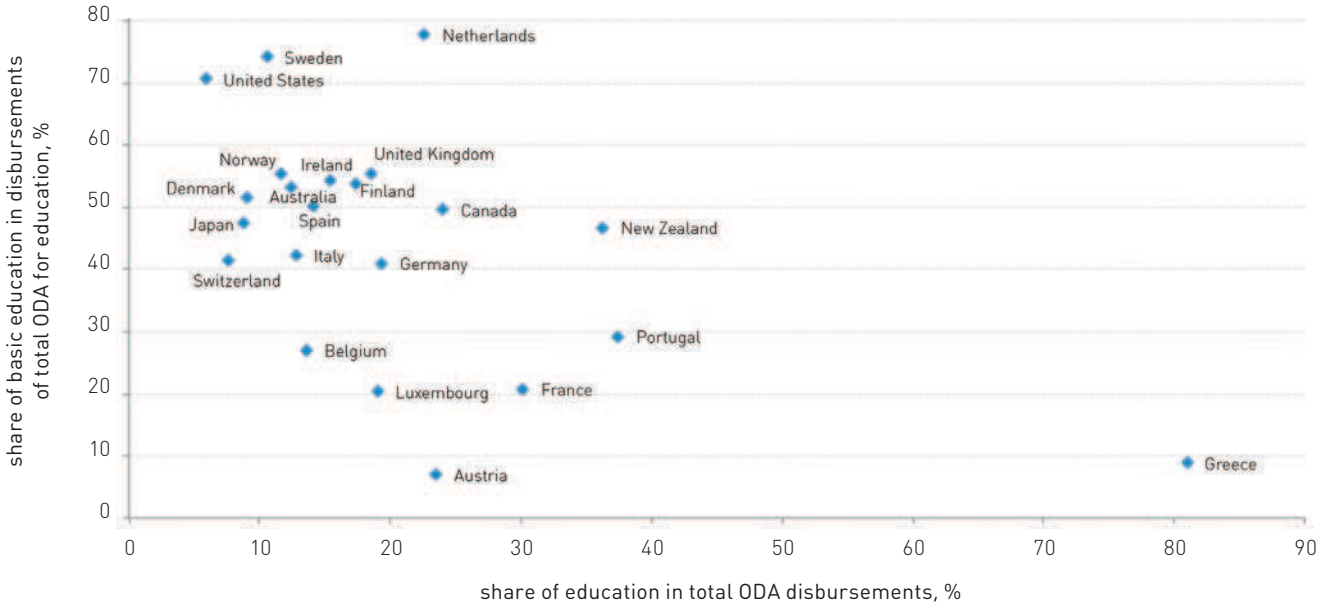
PHOTO CREDIT: Mats Lignell/Save the Children

FIGURE 5.6. BILATERAL EDUCATION AND BASIC EDUCATION OFFICIAL DEVELOPMENT ASSISTANCE TO LOW-INCOME COUNTRIES

a. disbursements, 2002–10



b. priority assigned to education and basic education official development assistance, 2010



Source: GPE compilation based on data in the Aid Architecture (database) and Aid Statistics (database), Development Assistance Committee, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, Paris, http://www.oecd.org/dac/.

Among bilateral donors, basic education is given greater priority as the share of education in total ODA decreases. In effect, basic education is relatively well protected: as the share of education in total ODA decreases, the share of basic education in total education aid increases significantly. In 2010, half the bilateral donors allocated at least 50 percent of their education ODA disbursements to basic education in low-income countries (figure 5.6, chart b). However, the allocations to education among these donors represented less than a fourth of the total ODA disbursements of the same donors.

E. Education official development assistance in GPE countries

Aid commitments in GPE countries rose from $2.8 billion in 2002 to $4 billion in 2010. This increase suggests that there is a fairly strong link between GPE membership and increases in education aid.

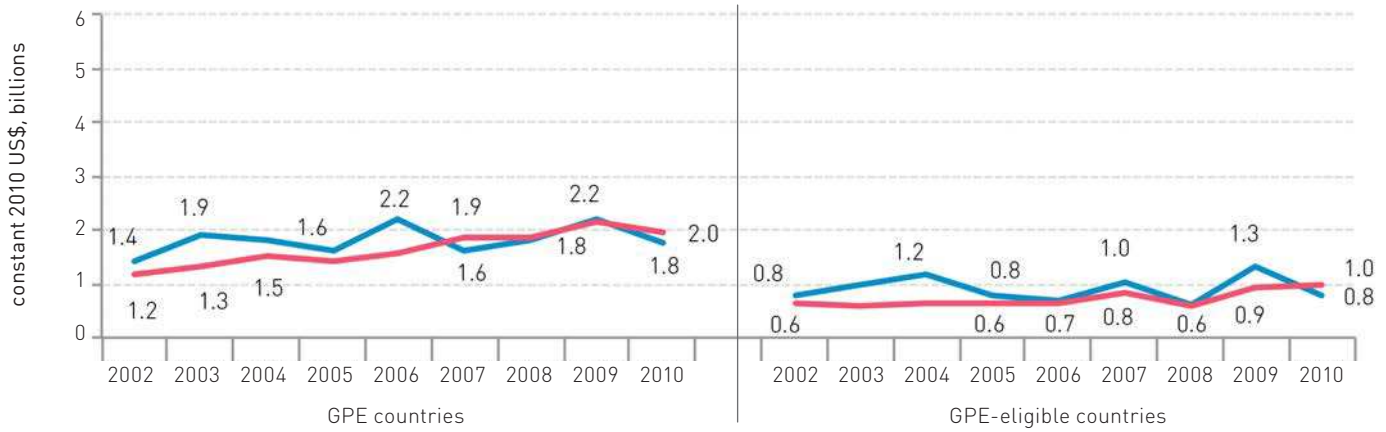
Between 2003 and 2011, of the 67 GPE-eligible countries, 46 joined the Global Partnership. At an average growth of US$170.9 million per year, the aid commitments to education in the GPE countries rose from US$2.8 billion in 2002 to US$4.0 billion in 2010 (figure 5.7, chart a). During the same period, the yearly percentage average increase in disbursed aid for education in general, for GPE-eligible countries that had not yet joined the GPE, was only one-third the corresponding increase in the GPE countries (US$53.9 million per year). This suggests that there is a fairly strong link between membership in the Global Partnership and increases in education aid. However, direct causality is difficult to assess because (1) GPE countries might have received more funding regardless of GPE membership, and, (2) more specifically, countries that have joined the Global Partnership, especially those that joined early on, have tended to be good performers and, thus, a more likely target for donor funding with our without GPE.

FIGURE 5.7. EDUCATION OFFICIAL DEVELOPMENT ASSISTANCE IN GPE COUNTRIES, 2002–10

a. ODA for education



b. ODA for basic education



Source: GPE compilation based on data in the Aid Architecture (database) and Aid Statistics (database), Development Assistance Committee, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, Paris, http://www.oecd.org/dac/.

V. The 2011 Monitoring exercise on aid effectiveness in the education sector

The GPE approach to development cooperation in education has been defined through the Compact on Mutual Accountability (table 5.3). The compact is based on aid effectiveness principles, including ownership, alignment, harmonization, managing for education results, and mutual accountability. Aid effectiveness is regarded as an "arrangement for the planning, management and deployment of aid that is efficient, reduces transaction costs and is targeted towards development outcomes" (Stern 2008, 20). Indicators to monitor aid effectiveness were agreed in 2005 in the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness (OECD 2005). The indicators were assessed by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) in 2005, 2008, and 2011.[7]

TABLE 5.4. THE GPE COMPACT ON MUTUAL ACCOUNTABILITY: PARTNER RESPONSIBILITIES

Developing-country governments	Donors and other partners
Sound ESPs through broadbased consultations	Help mobilize resources and make them more predictable
Commitment to education through strong domestic support	Align with country development priorities
Demonstrate results on key performance indicators	Harmonize procedures

Source: GPE compilation based on Charter of the Global Partnership for Education (as of November 2011), p.1 http://www.globalpartnership.org/media/Misc./CHARTER%20OF%20GPE%20%28final%29.pdf

Based on its principles of operation and the historical experience of coordinated approaches in the education sector, the Global Partnership has sought to support the monitoring of aid effectiveness at the global level through sector-specific efforts to deepen the understanding of the dynamics, practices, and behavior of government and donor partners in the education sector.

In 2008, the Global Partnership carried out a pilot survey to monitor the Paris Declaration indicators in 10 GPE countries (GPE 2009).[8] Based partly on that pilot, in 2011, the Global Partnership conducted the Monitoring exercise on aid effectiveness in the education sector in 39 developing-country partners.[9] Both surveys were aligned to the 2008 and 2011 OECD Surveys on monitoring the Paris Declaration on aid effectiveness to allow comparisons and to use a set of indicators that is globally recognized (OECD 2010). The GPE's 2011 monitoring exercise took place in the context of the 2011 OECD survey, the results of which are presented in the report *Aid Effectiveness 2005–10: Progress in implementing the Paris Declaration* (OECD 2011). The results of the 2011 GPE monitoring exercise will be soon published in the web site of the Global Partnership (GPE 2012).

In 2011, the Global Partnership conducted the Monitoring exercise on aid effectiveness in the education sector in 39 developing-country partners.

The monitoring exercise was aimed at supporting mutual learning on aid effectiveness by (1) providing a framework for discussions on aid effectiveness within the local education groups (LEGs), (2) collecting baseline data for the GPE Results Framework, and (3) generating a better understanding of the role of LEGs and national ESPs in promoting sector dialogue, partnership, and aid effectiveness.[10]

The 2011 monitoring exercise involved indicators of the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness that had been adapted to the education sector, and questions were added (see table 5.4 below) where relevant. Data were collected for the year 2010 through three questionnaires: a ministry of education questionnaire, a donor questionnaire, and a qualitative questionnaire given to the LEGs. Data collection was based on self-reporting and self-assessment by participants, who included approximately 245 donor partners and 30 ministries of education in 39 developing-country partners (table 5.4). However, the data on only 36 countries were used. It was agreed not to use the data from the Democratic Republic of Congo, Honduras, and Kenya because sector cooperation activities were limited in 2010 leading to a narrow database or low participation and therefore data was not considered being representative for the country. Of the 36 countries on which data were included, the situation in 13 was regarded as fragile in 2010 according to the World Bank. Five countries on which data are available—Burundi, Chad, Somalia, Sri Lanka, and Zimbabwe—were not GPE countries in 2010. The reported data relate to about US$2.2 billion in total education aid provided to these countries by bilateral and multilateral donor partners in 2010 and exclude aid provided by nongovernmental organizations or private foundations. This represented 15 percent of the ODA going to the education sector globally (US$13.4 billion) that year, about 36 percent of the education ODA commitments to low-income countries (US$5.6 billion), and more than 50 percent of all the ODA going to the 36 countries.

TABLE 5.5. COUNTRIES PARTICIPATING IN THE GPE MONITORING EXERCISE ON AID EFFECTIVENESS, 2011

Africa				Asia		Central Europe	Central America
Benin	Gambia, The	Madagascar	Senegal	Afghanistan	Nepal	Georgia	Honduras[a]
Burkina Faso	Ghana	Malawi	Sierra Leone	Cambodia	Papua New Guinea	Moldova	
Burundi[b]	Guinea	Mali	Somalia[b]	Kyrgyz Republic	Sri Lanka[b]		
Cameroon	Guinea-Bissau	Mozambique	Togo	Lao PDR	Tajikistan		
Chad[b]	Kenya	Niger	Zambia	Mongolia	Vietnam		
Congo, Dem. Rep.[a, b]	Lesotho	Rwanda	Zimbabwe[b]				
Ethiopia	Liberia						

Source: GPE compilation.

Note: Countries marked in blue had the status of fragile states in 2010 according to the World Bank. See "Fragile and Conflict-Affected Countries," World Bank, Washington, DC, http://go.worldbank.org/BNFOS8V3S0.

a. Partners provided information, but the narrow database, the low participation, or the difficult circumstances has meant that the data could not be considered representative of the country.

b. The country was not a GPE partner in 2010/11.

The products of the monitoring exercise are an overall synthesis report—*Making Education Aid More Effective* (GPE 2012)—and profiles for each participating country, of which 25 are available online.[11] The data collection and the review of the profiles formed the most important part of the monitoring exercise because these tools were designed to help the LEGs assess and discuss the effectiveness of sectoral collaboration and of aid delivery and management.

The data from the monitoring exercise will serve as baseline data for the GPE Results Framework, which is a component of the GPE's new monitoring and evaluation (M&E) strategy. In line with the efforts of the Global Partnership for Effective Development Cooperation, the GPE will continue to monitor the performance of education development partners through the GPE's annual *Results for Learning Report*. The indicators used for the monitoring exercise will be adapted to the indicators that will be identified by the Global Partnership for Effective Development Cooperation. Other accountability mechanisms such as the GPE accountability matrix, the annual Results Report, and the new Finance and Policy Reference Group will help ensure that education aid is delivered and used effectively.

A. Overview of the findings

The monitoring exercise depicts how governments and donor partners operate in the education sector in 36 countries. Overall, the results of the monitoring exercise are broadly consistent with the findings of the 2011 OECD survey. The results provide a credible evidence to inform discussions on aid and development effectiveness in the education sector. The monitoring exercise finds that transparency, communication, dialogue, joint effort and actions are critical for good performance against all surveyed indicators. Table 5.5 shows the aid effectiveness indicators used in the monitoring exercise. It compares the results of the exercise in the 36 countries surveyed with the 2010 Paris targets and the 2011 OECD survey results (which refer to all ODA sectors) as reference points. The targets are only a proxy indication of the relative performance of government and donor partners in the education sector. The results presented in table 5.5 are median results across all 36 countries surveyed and hide a wide range of country scores, individual donor scores, reform steps, and coordination practices that cannot be reflected through these data.



PHOTO CREDIT: Amadou Mbodj/Save the Children

TABLE 5.6. MONITORING EXERCISE RESULTS: AID EFFECTIVENESS IN THE EDUCATION SECTOR IN 2010

Paris Indicators adapted to the education sector[a]	2010 Paris target[b]	2011 GPE results[c]	Status of aid effectiveness[d]	2011 OECD results[e]
Ownership				
Ind. 1. An ESP is in place and endorsed	n.a.	100% (of 30)	■	n.a.
Implementation plan in place	n.a.	27/30	n.a.	n.a.
Medium-term expenditure framework in place	n.a.	25/30	n.a.	n.a.
Inclusive consultation process around ESP development[f]	n.a.	29/30	n.a.	n.a.
The ESP is available online and in hard copy	n.a.	30/30	n.a.	n.a.
The ESP has been translated in local language(s)[g]	n.a.	11/30	n.a.	n.a.
Data available for domestic education financing, 2008–10 and 2011–13	n.a.		n.a.	n.a.
Disbursements 2008-10		24/30		
Commitments 2011-13		22/30		
Alignment				
Ind. 3. Education aid flows are aligned on national education priorities	85%	80%	■	66%
Ind. 5a. Use of national public financial management (PFM) systems	55%	28%	■	38%
Ind. 5b. Use of national procurement systems	n.a.	38%	■	36%
Ind. 6. Strengthen capacity by avoiding parallel structures	2/3 reduction	3	■	23
Ind. 7. Education aid is more predictable	50% reduction	52%	■	55%
Harmonization				
Ind. 9. Use of common arrangements or procedures	66%	46%	■	36%
Ind. 4. Strengthen capacity through coordinated technical support	50%	60%	■	71%
Ind. 10a. Joint missions in the education sector	40%	50%	■	15%
Ind. 10b. Joint analytic work in the education sector	66%	71%	■	42%
Managing for education results				
Ind. 11. Results-oriented framework in place for the education sector	1/3 reduction	82%	■	n.a.
Mutual accountability				
Ind. 12. Joint sector review (JSR) process in place	100%	71%	■	42%
LEG in place	n.a.	36	n.a.	n.a.
Participation of civil society organizations in the LEG	n.a.	17/30	n.a.	n.a.
Sector coordination document in place	n.a.	25/30	n.a.	n.a.
Aid effectiveness targets agreed for the education sector	n.a.	19/30	n.a.	n.a.

Source: GPE compilation.

n.a. = not applicable.

Notes for previous Table 5.5:

a. The numbers in the left-hand column refer to the list of 12 indicators in the Paris Declaration. The monitoring exercise did not collect data on Paris indicators 2 (quality of country systems) and 8 (untied aid).
b. For 2010, 13 targets were associated with the 12 indicators identified in the Paris Declaration.
c. The data are based on the median results per indicator in the 36 participating countries for which sufficient data were available. The ministry of education questionnaires were not submitted from 6 countries. Indicators 1, 3, 7, 11, and 12 were based on information provided by the ministries of education in 30 countries. Information was not available on 6 of the 36 countries.
d. The traffic light color code is used to illustrate the areas of aid effectiveness in which the participating countries have achieved a median result higher than the 2010 Paris target for that indicator. The single country scores by indicator vary; see the statistical annex of the full monitoring exercise report. See "2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness," Global Partnership for Education, Washington, DC, http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2/.
e. The OECD data on aid effectiveness for 2010 have been disaggregated for the countries participating in the GPE monitoring exercise for more accurate comparison in this table (see Aid Effectiveness [database], Development Assistance Committee, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, Paris, http://www.oecd.org/dac/). The 2011 OECD survey results for all 78 countries in the OECD survey are different.
f. The consultative process includes civil society partners.
g. This refers to official languages other than English, French, Portuguese, or Spanish.

Sectoral cooperation for policy and coordination builds on four pillars: ESPs, LEGs, results-oriented frameworks and JSRs, which are in place in the majority of surveyed countries, but vary in terms of robustness and effectiveness degrees.

The monitoring exercise looked at the performance of education partners, individually and collectively, and was not intended to provide analysis of the GPE's impact on sectoral processes. It reflects an approach to sectoral cooperation that builds on four pillars for sector policy and coordination – ESPs, LEGs, results-oriented frameworks and JSR review processes. The monitoring exercise finds that these pillars are in place in the majority of the surveyed countries and where they were not it was signaled that they would be strengthened. Those four pillars support structured mutual accountability arrangements in the sector. However, the degree of process robustness and effectiveness in terms of these four pillars varies across countries. GPE partners in a number of countries reported on the positive influence of the GPE in the development and endorsement of ESPs, the establishment of LEGs, improvements in sectoral coordination, and the strengthening of national systems through GPE grants.

The education sector exceeded the 2010 Paris target and the 2011 OECD multisectoral survey results on donor collaboration in missions and donor collaboration in sectoral analytical work.

The 2011 OECD survey found that while there had been progress in aid effectiveness between 2005 and 2010, only one of the 13 Paris targets established for 2010 —coordinated technical cooperation—had been achieved by 2010 (OECD 2011). The education sector exceeded the 2010 Paris target and the 2011 OECD multisectoral survey results on two indicators: donor collaboration in missions (indicator 10a) and donor collaboration in sectoral analytical work (indicator 10b). The education sector showed slightly better results than the OECD survey on the indicators on aid alignment (indicator 3), program-based approaches (indicator 9), the use of national procurement systems (indicator 5b), and mutual accountability (indicator 12), though the sector did not meet the 2010 Paris target in these areas. The result of the education sector in technical cooperation (indicator 4) met the 2010 Paris target, but was significantly behind the 2011 OECD survey results in these 36 countries.

The main areas of concern in overall development cooperation and in the education sector are the use by donors of (1) national public financial management (PFM), (2) national procurement systems, and (3) program-based approaches.

Thirteen developing-country partners that were on the World Bank list of fragile situations in 2010 participated in the 2011 GPE monitoring exercise (see table 5.4). Of these, eight—Afghanistan, Georgia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia, Nepal, Sierra Leone, and Togo—were GPE countries in 2010. Four—Burundi, Chad, Somalia, and Zimbabwe—were eligible countries in 2010. (Because of a lack of sufficient data, a fifth, the Democratic Republic of Congo, is not under review here.) The 2011 monitoring exercise found that the results on individual Paris Declaration indicators of aid effectiveness among countries in a fragile situation were better among the eight countries that were members if the GPE in 2010. The results were worse among the four fragile states that were not GPE partners particularly in the case of the reliance on a higher relative number of parallel project implementation units (PIUs) (indicator 6), the extremely limited use of national systems (indicator 5) and shared approaches (indicator 9), and the absence of a results framework (indicator 11) and of joint sector reviews (JSRs) (indicator 12). The individual country profiles produced showing the monitoring exercise results show that efforts are being made in these countries to improve sectoral coordination. For example, a JSR was conducted in Togo for the first time in 2011; in Somalia, the LEG and the education cluster help coordinate external aid; and Burundi revived sectoral coordination around an ESP, a pooled fund, and the application for a GPE implementation grant.[12]

The main areas of concern are the donor's use of national public financial management and procurement systems, and program-based approaches.

Across 36 partner countries in Africa and Asia, a total of 30 donor partners—bilateral donors and multilateral development agencies and banks—participated in the monitoring exercise. These partners reported that a total of US$2.2 billion in education ODA was disbursed in 2010. At US$446 million provided in 25 partner countries, the World Bank supplied the most ODA in 2010 among the donors reporting, followed by the United Kingdom, which provided US$180 million to 11 partner countries, and the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), which provided US$170 million to 34 partner countries. The European Union reported that it had provided US$162 million to 17 partner countries, while the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) reported information on 15 partner countries, corresponding to US$145 million education aid in 2010. Germany (US$102 million) and France (US$60 million) reported on their education activities in 14 partner countries. Japan reported data on 20 partner countries, corresponding to US$90 million. The results regarding the performance of donor partners on the aid effectiveness indicators are relative to (1) the number of countries that are reported, (2) the situation in these countries, (3) the level of donor engagement and aid volume, and (4) the aid modality. No single donor leads on every aid effectiveness indicator, but there is more than one champion in each area, which demonstrates that, through discussions on joint efforts and standards and through progress in mutual learning, advancements can be achieved in enhancing the effectiveness of education aid, while also strengthening country systems, developing capacity, and expanding domestic accountability.

B. Findings of the monitoring exercise according to the principles and indicators of aid effectiveness

1. Ownership

In 2010, national ESPs were in place and endorsed in almost all countries. ESPs play a significant role for governments to articulate priorities while donor activities and funding can (and largely do) align around such a plan. The preparation, endorsement, implementation and monitoring processes around ESPs have a documented positive impact on sectoral collaboration and coordination. The ESP development is reported to be based on a consultative process involving external and national education stakeholders in all surveyed countries. In 29 countries for which data was available civil society partners were engaged in the consultation around the preparation of the education plan. National ownership of the development of the education sector involves more than the preparation and submission of a national ESP, however. It is also contingent on inclusiveness, transparency, and the use of budgeting and planning tools in education that support more effective cooperation with donor partners. Annual ESP implementation plans are in place in 27 countries. Twenty-five GPE countries have a medium-term expenditure framework in place, which is reviewed regularly with the ministry of finance in 22 countries. Access to the ESPs in hard or soft copy is ensured across all countries. Afghanistan, Cambodia, Georgia, the Kyrgyz Republic, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Moldova, Mongolia, Sri Lanka, Tajikistan, and Vietnam have reported that their ESPs and other sectoral reports have been translated into official national languages, as well as English or French. Among ministries of education, 19 have reported that the GPE process has had a positive influence on their decision to prepare ESPs.

Most of countries have ESPs endorsed by local donors and 25 have medium-term expenditure frameworks. Civil society were engaged in the elaboration of ESPs in most countries.

2. Alignment

Aligning education aid with the government budget: The majority of donor partners align their education aid with national education priorities which are expressed in the national education plans. Donor partners provided 85 percent of their education aid 'on plan' in support of the implementation of education plans in 2010. With regard to the alignment of education aid 'on budget' (indicator 3) the monitoring exercise found that donor partners disbursed 80 percent of what the governments had estimated in their budgets for 2010 to be disbursed. The Paris target was to achieve 85 percent alignment with government budgets. The education sector has come close to this target; the lowest alignment score was 15 percent, and the highest was 100 percent. The 2011 OECD survey found a 66 percent alignment rate for ODA overall in our 36 countries. The full monitoring exercise report discusses in detail the challenges with alignment.

The majority of donor partners align their education aid with national education priorities which are expressed in the national education plans.

Predictability of education aid: Ministries of education reported that only about half the education aid that donor partners had scheduled for disbursement in 2010 was disbursed (indicator 7). The overall level of aid predictability in 2010 according to the 2011 OECD survey was at approximately the same level (55 percent). Challenges were reported among both governments and donors with regard to the capture,

management, and updating of aid information. The shortages in terms of alignment with budgets and the level of predictability of education aid are linked to challenges perceived by donors in the reliability and capacity of country systems to absorb and manage external funding. This low level of predictability impacts not only national education planning and implementation processes but also puts challenges on other donors in the sector. The low level of predictability reflects on the ability of donors to report on their aid commitments for a number of years into the future. While some donors find it easy to present aid projections for three years, some country profiles show that donors have difficulties reporting for more than one year because of planning and budgeting constraints related to their own government.

Some donors have difficulties reporting aid to be disbursed for more than one year because of planning and budgeting constraints in their own country governments.

Using and strengthening national systems: Indicators 5a (use of national public financial management systems by donors), 5b (use of national procurement systems by donors), and 6 (use of parallel implementation units) refer to the extent to which donors use national systems and avoid using PIUs, as follows:

- *Indicator 5a:* The monitoring exercise found that only about 28 percent of education aid disbursed by donors to the government[13] uses one, two, or all three components of a country's PFM system (budgeting, reporting, and auditing procedures). The 2011 OECD survey showed that donors in the 36 countries surveyed used national PFM systems for only 38 percent of their aid disbursed to the government in 2010. These scores are below the 2010 Paris Declaration target of 55 percent. The OECD survey demonstrates that the increase in the quality of PFM systems does not necessarily trigger greater use of national PFM systems by donor partners. Cambodia, for example, raised its Country Policy and Institutional Assessment (CPIA) score from 2.5 to 3.5 between 2005 and 2010, but donors were hardly using the national system given that the results for indicator 5a of the GPE monitoring exercise show that only 4 percent of education aid in Cambodia is processed through the national PFM system.[14] The OECD survey reports that only 21 percent of overall ODA in Cambodia relies on the national PFM system. A similar example is Lao PDR, which also increased its CPIA score from 2.5 (2005) to 3.5 (2010). It is possible that donors respond with a long lag to improvements. It is also possible that donors have raised the level of what is considered acceptable rigor in national systems, and, therefore, improvement in systems has not led to improvements in the use of those systems. Responses to the qualitative questionnaire in the monitoring exercise show that donors support partner governments in implementing reform programs in PFM and procurement, but that the reforms are implemented only over the long term.

Only 28 percent of education aid was disbursed by donors to the government using the national public financial management systems and 38 percent the national procurement systems. Furthermore, most of countries have parallel implementation units in place, despite the efforts to reduce them.

- *Indicator 5b:* Of the education aid disbursed to governments, 38 percent was disbursed through national procurement systems. In 11 countries, donor partners made use of national procurement systems for 50 percent or more of their aid. Donors in Burkina Faso, Ghana, Nepal, and Zambia reported that they used procurement systems in the education sector for more than 80 percent of their aid to education. Donor partners in Cambodia, Malawi, and Vietnam used national procurement systems for less than 10 percent of their aid. In the Kyrgyz Republic, Liberia, Somalia, and Zimbabwe donor partners did not use national procurement systems at all, citing poor capacity or concerns about the fragility of these states. The 2011 OECD survey found that donors used national procurement systems to disburse 36 percent of their overall aid in the 36 countries under review.

- *Indicator 6:* PIUs are in operation in the majority of the 36 countries despite efforts to discourage the use of PIUs by the government and donor partners. The number of PIUs in participating countries ranged from zero (Lao PDR, Moldova, Nepal, and Togo) to 18 (Chad), with a median of 3. In most instances, PIUs are in operation because of limited government capacity with respect to PFM and procurement systems. Donor partners in some countries reportedly rely on contractors or work directly with the providers of goods and services, thus bypassing government financial and procurement systems. In 2008, the GPE pilot survey in the education sector found that, in the 10 countries surveyed, two PIUs were in use on average. An increase from 2 (from the 2008 survey to 2011) to 3 is not a real concern as this change is within the margin of measurement error. On the other hand, this increase does suggest that at a minimum level things are not improving in this respect.

3. Harmonization

In the 36 countries surveyed, donors provided only 46 percent of their education aid in the context of a program-based approach.

Harmonized and aligned education aid: Indicator 9 measures the use of program-based approaches, and, as a proxy, relies on the amount of money donor partners provide as general or sector budget support, as contributions to a pooled fund, or as any form of funding that supports a shared approach in the sector (box 5.2). The 2011 monitoring exercise shows that, in the 36 countries, donors provided only 46 percent of their education aid in the context of a program-based approach. The 2010 Paris Declaration target proposed that 66 percent of ODA should be disbursed in support of such approaches. The OECD survey found that only 36 percent of ODA was provided in this way by donors in the 36 countries in 2010. The performance of GPE partners in the education sector has been slightly better. Possible reasons are the existence of consultative sector plans and regular discussions in the LEGs; some countries also reported that program planning for the application of GPE grants favored discussions focusing on shared arrangements. There is a lot of variation between donors; some donors such as Canada, the UK, GPE and Italy provided on average more than three-quarters of their aid through program-based approaches.

BOX 5.1. OECD-DEFINED FEATURES OF A PROGRAM-BASED APPROACH

- Leadership by the host country or organization
- A single comprehensive program and budget framework
- A formalized process for donor partner coordination and harmonization of procedures for reporting, budgeting, financial management, and procurement
- Efforts to increase the use of local systems for program design and implementation, financial management, and monitoring and evaluation
- Donors can support and implement program-based approaches in different ways and across a range of aid modalities, including general budget support, sector budget support, project support, pooled arrangements, and trust funds

Source: OECD 2005.

Many reasons have been offered to explain why program-based approaches are not used, including the difficulties and time constraints encountered in the establishment of the appropriate arrangements because of the need to create structures and governance processes acceptable to governments and participating donor partners. These processes may require concurrent initiatives to enhance the quality of national systems, which may depend on the progress of overall reform in these areas. Capacity constraints on the effectiveness of government efforts to manage and absorb education aid, as well as to use expenditure frameworks, have been cited as barriers to greater reliance by donor partners on program-based approaches. The monitoring exercise shows that there is no single model for an effective program-based approach. The approaches applied vary in design, the degree of alignment and harmonization of procedures and systems, and the amount of government leadership, and they depend on the country context.

Harmonized and aligned technical cooperation: Coordinated technical cooperation has been moderately successful in the education sector. The share of technical assistance implemented in a coordinated manner in the education sector has ranged from a low of 14 percent to a high of 100 percent, with a median of 60 percent. Donors in 10 partner countries—Cambodia, Ethiopia, Liberia, Moldova, Nepal, Sri Lanka, Tajikistan, Togo, Zambia, and Zimbabwe—coordinate more than 90 percent of their technical assistance in the education sector. This is a moderately positive result compared to the 2010 Paris Declaration target (50 percent) and the 71 percent of coordination in technical assistance overall in these countries.

The share of technical assistance implemented in a coordinated manner in the education sector has ranged from a low of 14 percent to a high of 100 percent, with a median of 60 percent.

Coordinated missions and sectoral analysis: The education sector has reached and surpassed the 2010 Paris Declaration target for indicators 10a and 10b: half of all education sector missions within or to countries are each coordinated with at least one donor partner or the ministry of education, and more than 70 percent of sectoral analysis is coordinated or undertaken jointly by at least two partners. This level of performance exceeds by far the overall coordination efforts at the country level. Qualitative information on this indicator shows that the LEGs, joint funding arrangements and shared approaches, and the JSR process has increased the level of coordination in these areas. The 2008 GPE pilot survey found that this area of development cooperation was particularly strong in the education sector already in 2007.

4. Managing for education results

A results-oriented framework is in place: The monitoring exercise found that 26 countries out of the 32 on which data were reported by ministries of education possessed a results framework for the education sector. Three of the four GPE-eligible fragile states—Chad, Somalia, and Zimbabwe—did not have a results framework; Burundi was the exception. Five other countries—The Gambia, Guinea-Bissau, Lesotho, Somalia, and Tajikistan—reported that no results framework was used in 2010. The majority of reporting countries rely on educational management information systems and population censuses for data to track results. The data available for monitoring and evaluation for the national ESPs and for results management in the education sector are not always good or reliable:

82 percent of the countries on which data were reported possessed a results framework for the education sector, and 71 percent had regular JSR process and had undertaken a JSR in 2010.

some ministries of education stated that the data are reliable and of good quality in terms of accuracy, timeliness, and usefulness, but others reported that there are difficulties in the data collection process and in the availability and management of the information needed for meaningful policy dialogue. In other chapters of this report it is noted that, in the quality and learning outcomes area, countries possess more data than they use.

5. Mutual accountability

25 countries have a regular JSR process and undertook a JSR in 2010.

The JSR process in education: The monitoring exercise found that 25 countries had a regular JSR process and had undertaken a JSR in 2010. Ten countries had no JSR process or had not undertaken one in 2010; five of these countries had not been GPE partners in 2010. Few countries, such as Togo and Lao PDR, held their first education sector reviews in 2011, which was not recorded in the monitoring exercise. The structure and organizational set up of the JSRs is different across countries. Challenges have been reported regarding regularity, quality, consistency and link to policy dialogue.

The monitoring exercise helped understand (1) the dynamics of the cooperation between ministries of education and donors, (2) the structures of accountability and dialogue between governments and civil society, and (3) the collaboration among all education stakeholders, for example in the LEGs. The monitoring exercise shed little light (this was not its purpose) on the dynamics of the structures of domestic accountability of government, civil society, and the private sector. It surveyed the level of accountability of governments, donors, and civil society partners in terms of results in the financing and implementation of ESPs. The LEGs—the sectoral platform of coordination promoted by the GPE—include a wide range of actors beyond the government and donors and reflect an awareness that the development of the education sector and education service delivery can only be successful and sustainable if there are mechanisms for domestic accountability.

LEGs have been established in all reporting countries over the past 12 years; many new LEGs were formed in 2008. The inclusiveness of LEG membership varies across countries; some LEGs include a wide range of national education stakeholders. Often, technical working groups or a task force consisting of national and donor partners focus on specific issues under the umbrella of the LEGs, and, in a number of countries, the role of the LEGs is defined more formally within the national development cooperation framework. National civil society partners, for example, contribute local experience and knowledge, and their support for the ESPs and education policies can help broaden acceptance. The monitoring exercise found that, in 17 countries, civil society organizations are members of the LEGs and that, in 12 countries, national education coalitions participate in the LEGs. Beyond the LEGs, ministries of education in 25 countries reported that they were actively involved with civil society partners. In 13 countries, sectoral collaboration and partnership are based on principles that include engagement with civil society organizations.

LEGs have been established in all reporting countries over the past 12 years. In 17 of 30 of them civil society organizations are members of the LEGs.

The monitoring exercise found that there are similarities in the roles, purposes, and activities of the LEGs across countries. Many reporting partners underlined that the LEGs play a significant role in regular data reporting on aid, in technical cooperation, in planning and coordination for missions and analytical work, and in ESP development, endorsement, implementation, monitoring, and updating. The monitoring exercise shows that the work of the LEGs helps strengthen aid effectiveness by, for example, discouraging partners from establishing or using PIUs or by discussing the opportunities and challenges in establishing a program-based or a sector wide approach. Among those countries on which information is available, 25 have prepared a sectoral coordination document such as a memorandum of understanding or partnership principles. Some ESPs or joint financing agreements have also provided for sectoral cooperation principles. The principles of aid effectiveness have guided development cooperation in the education sector, and aid effectiveness targets had been established by 2010 for monitoring progress in the education sector in 19 countries.

In November 2011, the new GPE Fund was launched as a mechanism to streamline the existing GPE funding architecture.

VI. The Global Partnership for Education Fund

In November 2011, the new GPE Fund was launched as a mechanism to streamline the existing GPE funding architecture, which consisted of three separate funds: Catalytic Funds, the Education Program Development Fund, and the Secretariat Trust Fund. The new GPE Fund covers all areas eligible for funding as determined by the GPE Board of Directors and is designed as a financial intermediary fund, that is, agencies eligible to serve as a supervising or managing entity may directly receive funds after the approval of the Board of Directors. Complementing the new GPE Fund is the new European Commission GPE Fund, which covers all areas eligible for funding, but over which only the World Bank can act as supervising or managing entity. As of May 31, 2012, donor contribution agreements had been signed pledging US$836 million (equivalent) for the new GPE Fund and US$41 million (equivalent) for the European Commission GPE Fund. Table 5.6 shows the total donor contributions and pledges for the various trust funds that have been implemented by the GPE since 2003.



PHOTO CREDIT: GMB Akash/Panos Pictures

TABLE 5.7. GPE TRUST FUNDS: THE VALUE OF SIGNED DONOR CONTRIBUTION AGREEMENTS, MAY 31, 2012

Donor	Total, US$, millions	Share of all funds, %
Australia	47.8	1.6
Belgium	24.6	0.8
Canada	100.6	3.3
Denmark	171.2	5.7
European Commission	175.7	5.8
France	92.9	3.1
Germany	40.7	1.4
Ireland	55.0	1.8
Italy	35.2	1.2
Japan	8.5	0.3
Luxembourg	6.5	0.2
Netherlands	639.0	21.2
Norway	252.9	8.4
Romania	0.7	0.0
Russian Federation	15.2	0.5
Spain	326.5	10.8
Sweden	157.3	5.2
Switzerland	12.5	0.4
United Kingdom	844.4	28.0
United States	3.5	0.1
All donors	**3,010.8**	**100.0**

Source: GPE compilation.

From inception in 2003 through end-June 2012, aggregate implementation grant approvals (GPE implementation grants are designed specifically to provide funding to programs that support the implementation of national ESPs[15]) represented a total value of US$2,25.5 billion in 40 GPE countries. Table 5.7 provides a summary of program implementation grant approvals, disbursements, and implementation status.

From inception in 2003 through end-June 2012, aggregate implementation grant approvals represented a total value of US$2,25.5 billion in 40 GPE countries.

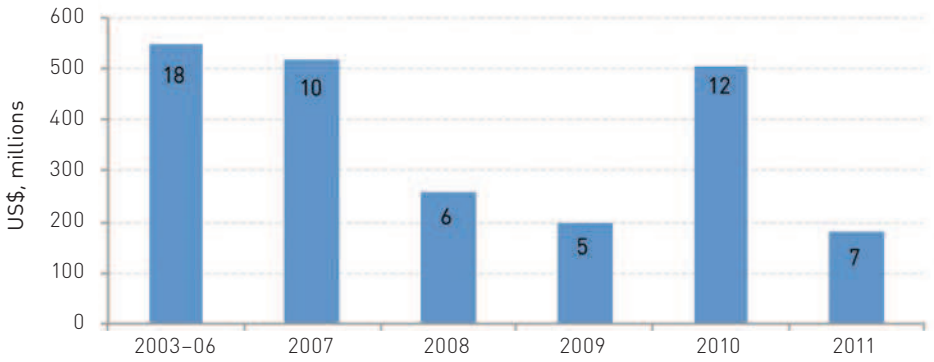
TABLE 5.8. THE GPE IMPLEMENTATION GRANT PORTFOLIO AT A GLANCE

Indicator	Total
Allocations	
Total through June 2012	US$2,254.5 million
Allocations cancelled	US$68.0 million
Net allocations	US$2,186.5 million
Disbursements	
Total through June 2012	US$1,506.6 million
Total through June 2012, %	68.9
Countries	
Number, approved implementation grant allocations	40
Number, multiple approved implementation grants	15
Implementation grant status	
Value share of portfolio closed, December 31, 2011, %	30
Value share of portfolio closed, June 30, 2012, %	32
Countries with active or pending grants, June 30, 2012, number	34, of which 7 were approved in 2011
Value, active or pending portfolio through June 30, 2012	US$1,582.3 million

Source: GPE compilation.

Figure 5.8 shows implementation grant approvals by year. The drop in approvals in 2011 relative to previous years reflects the delay in approving the Needs and Performance Framework—a tool for determining indicative allocations of GPE trust fund resources to countries eligible to receive implementation grants based on the distribution of an agreed overall indicative funding amount—and the overall indicative funding amount to which the tool would be applied. Implementation grant approvals are expected to increase in 2012 and beyond.

FIGURE 5.8. GPE IMPLEMENTATION GRANT APPROVALS, BY YEAR, 2003–11

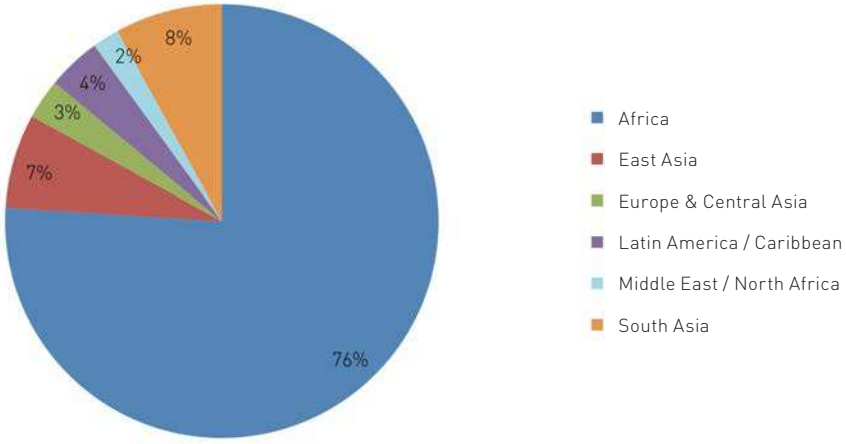


Source: GPE compilation.

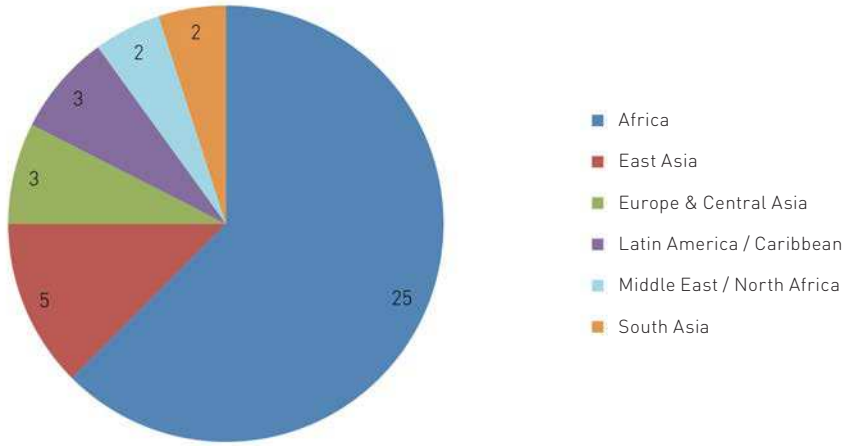
Of the value of allocations approved since the establishment of the GPE in 2002, 76 percent was allocated to 25 countries in the Africa region. Figure 5.9, chart a, shows the distribution of the value of allocations approved by region. Figure 5.9, chart b, shows the number of countries in each region for which allocations have been approved; some have received multiple allocations since the launch of the funds.

FIGURE 5.9. GPE IMPLEMENTATION GRANTS, BY REGION, 2003–11

a. Grant value



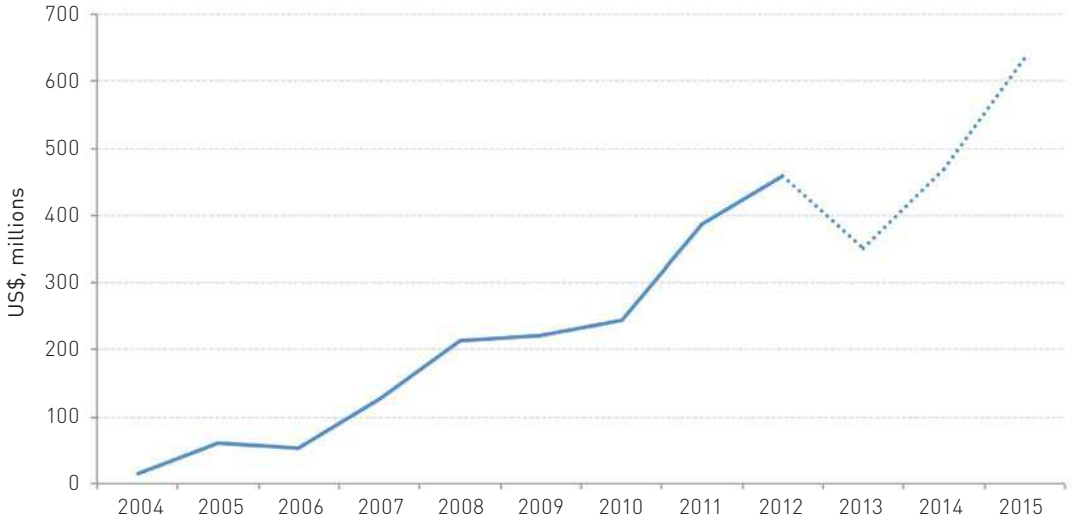
b. Grant-receiving countries



Source: GPE compilation.

The disbursements of program implementation grants have risen steadily since the creation of the Catalytic Fund in 2004. 2011 was a record year, at US$385.0 million disbursed, for a cumulative total of US$1,317.7 million. Disbursements from January through June 2012 totaled US$188.9 million and are on track to meet the 2012 calendar year target of US$430 million. Disbursements are expected to fall somewhat in 2013, reflecting the more than one-year gap in allocation decisions by the Board of Directors between November 2010 and December 2011 (figure 5.10)

FIGURE 5.10. GPE PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATION GRANT DISBURSEMENTS, 2004–15



Source: GPE compilation.

Note: The figure shows the Catalytic Fund and program implementation grants. GPE projections after 2011 are based on an expected allocation of US$2.0 billion by the end of 2014.

GPE-funded programs represent an important share of external financing in education. GPE fund disbursements accounted for 12 percent of the disbursements of official development assistance in basic education in 2010 in GPE countries, but this ratio varies a lot across countries. For example, in four countries that applied for an allocation in 2011 (Afghanistan, Côte d'Ivoire, Guinea-Bissau, and Mali), GPE funding accounted, respectively, for 11, 84, 35, and 25 percent of the external funds planned in education over the subsequent three years. This large amount of funding in a country or sector with low absorption capacity may entice ministries of finance to reduce the domestic funds going to education (or, indeed, other external funding) and to reallocate these funds to other sectors, thereby cutting back on additionality. For this reason, it is crucial for GPE partners to undertake policy dialogue within countries and to help increase the negotiating power of ministries of education (for example, through capacity building, sponsorship of workshops jointly with ministries of finance, and other, similar means).

GPE-funded programs represent an important share of external financing in education. GPE fund disbursements accounted for 12 percent of the disbursements of official development assistance in basic education in 2010 in GPE countries, but this ratio varies a lot across countries.

The GPE, together with the supervising or the managing entity for each program implementation grant, monitors the performance of all GPE grants. The GPE Secretariat monitors grants and makes recommendations to the Financial Advisory Committee and the Board of Directors on possible remediation where appropriate. Using the information provided by the supervising and managing entities and the knowledge gained through country visits, the Secretariat recently established a system to indicate its assessment of the active implementation grant portfolio. Implementation grants are judged as (1) on track for full disbursement and the achievement of the stated objectives, (2) showing signs of an emerging risk that full disbursement or the stated objectives will not be achieved , and (3) at risk of not achieving full disbursement or the stated objectives. For the last category, the Secretariat assesses, in particular, whether it should recommend that the allocation should be cancelled in full or in part. Any such recommendation is made in close consultation with the supervising or managing entity. Currently, in total, 71 percent of the active implementation grants are considered on track (76 percent according to value); 17 percent are showing signs of risk (18 percent according to value); and 11 percent are at risk (6 percent according to value).

To improve the ability of a partner country to execute activities financed through aid, it is critical that every partner in the LEG, especially the government, have sound information on future financial flows in the education sector. The results forms presented in chapter 6 provide such information and will help improve financial predictability. Specifically, to enhance the predictability of GPE program implementation grants, the GPE collects information on the annual disbursement targets of each country and ensures that this information is shared with the respective LEG. In 2011, the ratio of actual disbursements of GPE implementation funding to planned disbursements was around 62 percent. To improve this result, an analysis of the reasons for discrepancies between actual and planned disbursements is necessary. It appears that the disbursement of allocations by countries may often take more time than expected, especially during the first year. However, progress has been made in this area. The elapsed time between the approval of the allocation to the signing of the grant or transfer agreement has decreased significantly, from more than 12 months in 2007 to 6 months in 2010; and, in 2011, 73 percent of the grant agreements were signed within 6 months of the allocation. The GPE will discuss the disbursement targets with the LEGs and ensure that they are realistic.

To assess how well disbursements are transformed into results, the GPE has reviewed the documentation on achievements prepared by the World Bank, which was the supervising entity for 90 percent of the value of the portfolio in 2011. This exercise had to be limited in scope because many of the achievement indicators could not be aggregated or calculated because the funding was not earmarked for specific activities, especially in the case of the funding going to budget support. In 2011, GPE funds enabled the construction or restoration of almost 8,000 classrooms, the delivery of 18 million textbooks, the training of more than 110,000 teachers, and the provision of adult literacy sessions to 750,000 participants. In line with the principles of aid effectiveness, GPE-funded programs supported many other activities as well, the outcomes of which are difficult to measure and aggregate; this is the case of capacity building, for example.

ENDNOTES

1. The World Bank (2011) showed per capita income thresholds of US$1,005 or less, US$1,175 or less, and US$1,175–US$6,925 for IDA 1, IDA 2, and IDA 3 countries, respectively, in July 2011.

2. The historical series and derived indicators used in this chapter to measure education financing have been compiled using databases of the International Monetary Fund, the UNESCO Institute for Statistics, and the World Bank.

3. For a review of available studies, see PETS/QSDS Data Portal (database), World Bank, Washington, DC, http://pets.prognoz.com/prod/Home.aspx.

4. For an overview, see Abadzi (2009). An inspirational country case study using the Stallings classroom snapshot instrument can be found in Bruns, Evans, and Luque (2010).

5. All amounts in this section are in constant 2010 U.S. dollars.

6. According to Foster (2004), the ODA for basic education includes 50 percent of the education ODA not allocated by level and 10 percent of the amounts allocated to general budget support. The ODA for secondary and postsecondary education includes 25 percent of the amounts not allocated by level and 5 percent of the amounts allocated to general budget support. The total education ODA includes the amounts for the three levels of education and a notional 20 percent for general budget support.

7. See Aid Effectiveness (database), Development Assistance Committee, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, Paris, http://www.oecd.org/dac/.

8. Burkina Faso, Cambodia, Ethiopia, Ghana, Honduras, Madagascar, Mauritania, Mozambique, Nicaragua, and Rwanda.

9. See "2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness," Global Partnership for Education, Washington, DC, http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2/.

10. A LEG typically consists of the government and the development partner group, which includes partners that are supporting the country in developing and implementing an ESP.

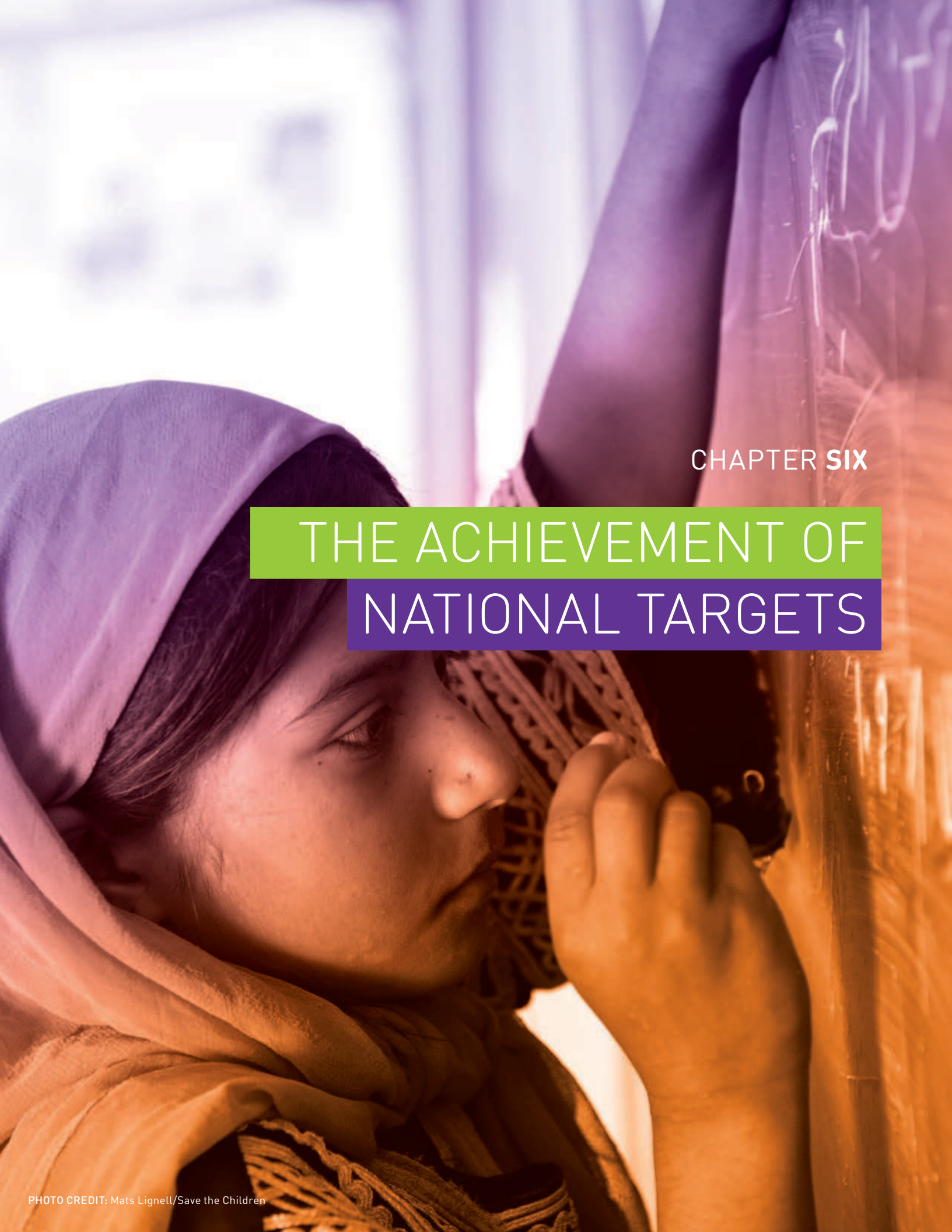
11. See "2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness," Global Partnership for Education, Washington, DC, http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2/.

12. GPE implementation grants are designed specifically to provide funding to programs that support the implementation of national ESPs.

13. Disbursements to the government sector: ODA disbursed in the context of an agreement with administrations (ministries, departments, agencies or municipalities) authorized to receive revenue or undertake expenditures on behalf of central government. (Source: OCED, www.oecd.org/document/19/0,3746,en_21571361_39494699_39503763_1_1_1_1,00.html#G).

14. The OECD survey uses the World Bank's CPIA framework, specifically indicator 13 under the relevant CPIA cluster, public sector management and institutions, which covers the quality of budget and financial management. To support its assessments, the CPIA also relies on the more PFM-focused Public Expenditure and Financial Accountability framework.

15. For a presentation of the activities financed by the Global Partnership for Education Fund: http://www.globalpartnership.org/finance-and-funding/global-partnership-for-education-fund/



CHAPTER **SIX**

THE ACHIEVEMENT OF NATIONAL TARGETS

PHOTO CREDIT: Mats Lignell/Save the Children

The Global Partnership for Education (GPE) focuses on the development and implementation of sound education sector plans (ESPs) that reflect national commitments made by country partners. This is why GPE monitoring is centered mainly on the level of attainment of national education targets specified in the ESPs of countries. This monitoring approach is consistent with the principles behind the Global Partnership's model for supporting national processes: it avoids imposing global targets that do not mirror expressed national priorities.

However, two analyses carried out by the GPE demonstrate that monitoring in the education sector is not rigorous and systematic. This is mainly because of the lack of available data on target indicators or the limited use of the data that are available. The first analysis, detailed in the next section, assessed documents related to the joint sector reviews (JSRs). It found that few countries monitor progress consistently against the targets identified in the ESPs (GPE 2012a).

The GPE has created a results form, a table containing key sectoral indicators for 2009–15, as presented in the Results Framework, to support monitoring in countries and improve transparency and accountability.

As part of its monitoring and evaluation strategy, the GPE has created a results form, a table containing key sectoral indicators for 2009–15, as presented in the Results Framework, to support monitoring in countries and improve transparency and accountability (see chapter 1). Results forms for each GPE developing country partner have been produced using publicly available national sources of data (mainly ESPs, JSRs, and GPE grant applications) and have been shared with the local education groups (LEGs) for certification and use.

The GPE carried out the second analysis on the basis of results forms and in the context of this report (see section IV). The purpose was to assess whether countries with ESP targets on which data are available have achieved any progress toward their objectives. In the analysis, two dimensions are examined: the data available on targets from 2009 to 2015 and the data available on achievements in 2010 and 2011. The analysis shows that data are available on a limited number of countries and indicators, especially on targets and achievements in domestic financing and service delivery. In addition, the degree of success in reaching targets was low and uneven across indicators.

In light of these analyses, the GPE will continue working with countries to support monitoring efforts—especially, improvements in the JSRs—and collect robust data to assess progress toward ESP targets.

I. The need to support the monitoring of ESP targets

Within the Global Partnership, the LEGs, typically led by the ministry of education and including development partners and other education stakeholders, are responsible for monitoring the implementation of national ESPs. This is an ongoing activity, carried out in various ways across countries, including regular meetings undertaken by local partners, the production of an annual ESP implementation report, and the organization of annual or semiannual JSRs. Each review usually involves representatives of the ministry of education, development partners, and, in many cases, also other ministries, national education stakeholders, and civil society organizations. The JSRs aim to monitor progress in the sector, using the ESPs as background documentation and, if available, implementation program reports and the conclusions of previous JSRs (GPE 2012a). Generally, the JSR reports contain the main conclusions about the progress observed and a description of the challenges remaining in the sector.

JSRs represent a unique opportunity for sectoral monitoring—the main source of information regarding the implementation of the ESPs—and should facilitate an understanding of the extent to which the ESP education targets have been achieved or need to be revised.

Joint sector reviews represent a unique opportunity for sectoral monitoring and should facilitate an understanding of the extent to which the ESP targets have been achieved.

In 2011, the GPE commissioned a study to assess the effectiveness of the JSRs based on the evidence of JSR reports and associated documents, including ESPs, codes of conduct or partnership principles, terms of reference, and so on (GPE 2012a). The GPE scrutinized more than 130 documents on 19 GPE countries and 17 interviews with education sector professionals representing the views of development partners and ministries of education in nine developing countries. The following are among the main conclusions:

- Almost all JSRs express a goal of using the respective ESP objectives as the basis for measuring progress; however, few countries prominently, consistently, and systematically monitor progress against ESP targets and indicators during the reviews. The ESPs are not the key instrument for monitoring progress in the sector; there are cases in which alternative, parallel sets of indicators have been generated and take precedence over the indicators described in the ESPs.

Few countries prominently, consistently, and systematically monitor progress against ESP targets and indicators during the JSR. Few of the JSRs present conclusions about schools, such as service delivery.

- JSR reports frequently assert that the reviews have monitored progress against ESP targets, but the record shows that *fewer than half the JSRs include an explicit analysis of data against key indicators, target by target.*

- Many *JSR reports generate long lists of recommendations that cannot be manageably implemented.*

- The analysis also shows that *critical themes for the Global Partnership are often given relatively little attention and coverage in the JSRs.* These include cross-cutting issues such as gender and the monitoring of learning outcomes (see chapter 4). Moreover, few of the reports present conclusions about schools, and, although the field-level is covered during supervision visits, this is rarely reflected in the JSR reports. For example, few studies tracking the effectiveness of education service delivery to schools are used as background documentation or even discussed during the JSRs.

A possible explanation for these inconsistencies may lie in the complexity of the ESPs, which are often developed by small teams of consultants and ministry of education and donor representatives. The process affects the ownership of the plan beyond these teams. For this reason, it is important that the drafting of the ESPs be fully participatory and encompass all stakeholders, including civil society organizations, teacher unions, other ministries, and the local actors who will implement the ESPs.

Another explanation may be the limited capacities of ministries of education and development partners to address the requirements of joint monitoring and evaluation. Thus, ministries of education have described their difficulties in implementing high-quality, reliable, and robust monitoring and evaluation systems that meet the demands of the ESPs in accuracy, timeliness, and usefulness.[1] Meanwhile, local donor representatives, who may not be education specialists and may be involved in many other activities, often do not have sufficient time to dedicate to the coordinating agencies, which is a barrier to adequate data tracking and analysis for the ESPs.

To confront these and other challenges highlighted through the JSRs, the GPE is currently designing fresh, more effective ways to support the process, track the commitments made by partners, and follow up on the implementation of the ESPs. For example, because information on national targets is often presented in numerous documents, the GPE has created a results form to facilitate access to this information on each GPE developing country partner. The results forms present, at a glance, key sectoral information on the progress achieved in reaching ESP objectives.

II. The country results forms on progress

The results forms follow the structure of the GPE Results Framework (see chapter 1). This means that they provide information on goals, outputs, and outcomes in education in developing countries. This is the first time since the launch of the GPE that such an initiative has been undertaken among GPE developing country partners, also referred to as GPE countries.

To produce the results forms, the GPE reviewed documentation that is publicly available and based on national sources in the 46 GPE countries, mainly the ESPs, the JSR reports, and GPE grant application packages. It extracted information on clearly established targets and data on the results achieved in the education sector grounded on six key indicator categories (table 6.1).[2] The data are derived from observations from 2008 to 2011 and from current targets to 2015.

TABLE 6.1. RESULTS FORM: CONTENT

Indicator category	Indicator identifier
Key education sector indicators	
Literacy rate	1.1
Key outcome indicators	2.1–2.8
Education service delivery	3.1–3.15
Domestic financing	4.1–4.4
External aid	
Aid disbursed and projected for total education	5.1
Aid disbursed and projected for basic education	5.2
Composition of LEGs and JSRs	6.1–6.5
GPE funding	7.1–7.13
Learning outcomes	8.1–8.4
Aid effectiveness in the education sector	9.1–9.5

Source: GPE compilation.

FIGURE 6.1. RESULTS FORMS: THE PRODUCTION AND REVIEW PROCESS



Source: GPE compilation.

In March 2012, after the information had been gathered, the GPE requested the LEGs to update, complete, and certify the forms (figure 6.1). By the end of September 2012, 28 countries had certified their forms. The other countries are still working through the process to include the latest available information on the sector, updating their ESPs, or undertaking JSRs. Five countries— Guyana, Kenya, Mali, São Tomé and Príncipe, and the Republic of Yemen—have not responded.

The certified results forms are presented in annex 6A. They are being published on the GPE website. Each form will be regularly updated following any fresh JSR or whenever a country requests. Unless otherwise indicated, the data derived from national sources may differ from data provided through international sources because of variations in definitions, methods of calculation, or, in some cases, underlying data, especially population data. For these reasons, the data based on national sources in these forms should not be used to make comparisons across countries. The data are intended, rather, for assessing the progress of individual countries.

III. Analysis of the degree of achievement of ESP targets

The GPE undertook an analysis of the results forms available in May 2012 to examine indicators that are associated with identifiable national targets and assess the share of countries that had reached their targets for 2010 and 2011. It compared the targets identified and the reported achievements related to indicators for the 46 GPE countries together as a single group.[3] The results forms that had not yet been certified by countries, but that had been produced using publicly available information were also taken into account.

Five criteria were established to determine the degree of achievement of the targets for the indicators presented in the results forms (table 6.2).

The data based on national sources in these forms should not be used to make comparisons across countries. The data are intended, rather, for assessing the progress of individual countries.



PHOTO CREDIT: Guy Calaf/Save the Children

TABLE 6.2. CRITERIA: DEGREE OF SUCCESS IN REACHING EDUCATION SECTOR PLAN TARGETS

Criteria	Description
Target achieved	
1. Target achieved	The target was reached or surpassed.
Target not achieved	
2. No information	The target was not reached, but no baseline data are available; it is thus unclear if there has been improvement in the indicator.
3. Improving trend	The target was not reached, but comparison with the available baseline data shows that there was improvement in the indicator.
4. Deteriorating trend	The target was not reached, and comparison with the available baseline data shows that the indicator moved in the wrong direction.
5. No information	The information is insufficient to determine whether the target was reached; reliable information is unavailable on the achievement value, the target, or both.

Source: GPE compilation.

The results forms cover several categories of indicators (see table 6.1), including scores on national and international assessments of learning outcomes, but targets have not been set for learning outcome indicators and aid effectiveness (see chapters 4 and 5 for information on these areas). For many indicators, an achievement value was available, but not a target value. We thus carried out our analysis of achievements based only on those indicators associated with information on both a target and an achievement. (In tables 6.3–6.6, the first two columns—countries reporting, %—show the share of the 46 GPE countries that provided both a target and a corresponding value for the achievement for each indicator in 2010 or 2011.)

The analysis suggests that consistent, well-documented monitoring of education indicators is not regularly performed in GPE countries, or, at least, the information is not publicly available.

Data on domestic financing indicators are available the least frequently (established targets and observed indicator values are available in only one in five of the countries), followed by data on education service delivery.

Two dimensions have been taken into account in the analysis. The first is the availability of data for the same year on identified targets and the achievements. The analysis suggests that consistent, well-documented monitoring of education indicators is not regularly performed in GPE countries, or, at least, the information is not publicly available. In most cases, because of the lack of sufficient data or established targets, it has been possible to determine whether progress has been achieved in only a small sample of countries and for a few indicators. Data on domestic financing indicators are available the least frequently (established targets and observed indicator values are available in only one in five of the countries), followed by data on education service delivery (data on targets and achievements are available in only one in four of the countries).

The second dimension taken into account in the analysis is the achievement of targets in those countries on which data are available. In 2010 and 2011, this varied across the categories of indicators, ranging from an achievement of 22 to 73 percent in key outcome indicators, 24 to 78 percent in domestic financing, 50 to 56 percent in external aid to education, and 0 to 100 percent in education service delivery (see below and table 6.1).

Regarding key outcome indicators, the largest share of countries met their targets in the primary-school completion rate, the gross enrollment ratio in preprimary education, and the gross intake ratio in primary education.

In domestic and external financing, a larger share of countries achieved their targets in the indicators on total education. The information on indicators of domestic and external financing is critical because it helps ascertain if GPE funding is associated with a substitution effect. The GPE will therefore ensure that the results forms provide clear baselines and targets for these indicators, especially in the case of countries drafting or updating ESPs.

In the case of education service delivery, data are available only on a small share of countries. A relatively high share of these countries attained their targets in indicators on the total number of teachers and students in primary education.

A. The findings on key outcome indicators

Among key outcome indicators, data on the primary-school completion rate are available the most regularly. Perhaps because improvement in the rate is an Education for All goal, the indicator seems to be monitored more consistently than other indicators in this category; the success in reaching targets was assessed in 15 of the 46 countries in 2011: 30 percent of the countries reported they had attained their targets for this indicator in 2011.

In 2011, 30 percent of GPE countries reported they had attained their targets for the primary-school completion rate.

TABLE 6.3. REACHING TARGETS IN SECTORAL OUTCOME INDICATORS, GPE COUNTRIES, 2010 AND 2011

percent

Indicator	Share of reporting countries among all GPE countries		Share of countries among all reporting countries							
			Targets achieved		Targets not achieved		Targets achieved, improving trend		Targets achieved, deteriorating trend	
	2010	2011	2010	2011	2010	2011	2010	2011	2010	2011
Gross enrollment ratio in preprimary education	17	24	41	63	12	8	24	17	24	8
Gross intake ratio in primary education	28	30	46	73	7	0	14	13	32	13
Gender parity index in the gross intake ratio	24	20	46	55	29	35	8	10	17	0
Rate of out-of-school children	9	7	22	57	22	29	0	0	44	0
Primary-school completion rate	35	33	31	33	20	12	26	33	26	21
Gender parity index in the completion rate	22	13	50	54	32	0	0	15	18	31
Transition rate, primary to secondary education	20	17	45	41	10	12	10	0	35	53
Lower-secondary completion rate	13	17	31	53	31	0	0	24	31	24

Source: GPE compilation.

Data on the targets and achievements in the gross intake ratio in primary education are available for nearly one in three of the countries, and the majority of the countries on which data are available (73 percent) achieved their targets in 2011.

Data on out-of-school children are the least likely to be available, and target achievement could not be determined for over 90 percent of the countries in 2010 or 2011. This may be because the rate of out-of-school children is often difficult to estimate and, consequently, also difficult to monitor on a regular basis. Among those few countries reporting, 57 percent indicated they had met their targets. Clearly, only through a thorough understanding of the characteristics of the population of out-of-school children can the Education for All strategies be successfully developed and efficiently implemented (see chapter 3).

Data on out-of-school children are the least likely to be available among key outcome indicators, and target achievement could not be determined for over 90 percent of the countries.

Indicators on lower-secondary education are apparently monitored less regularly than indicators on primary education. Thus, target achievement in the lower-secondary completion rate could be assessed for only six countries in 2010 and for only eight countries in 2011. In only about half of these countries were the targets met.

Nonetheless, the level of target achievement may have been slightly skewed for two reasons, as follows:

- A target was considered successfully fulfilled only if the observed value matched or surpassed the target. Thus, if there was improvement, but the observed value failed by even less than a percentage point to match the target, the target was considered unmet. The criteria should probably be less strictly applied in some cases.

- A deteriorating trend in the gross intake ratio may not indicate failure if the baseline ratio was above 100 percent.

B. The findings on domestic finance

The achievement of targets has been assessed for total and recurrent expenditures on education overall and on basic education.[4] Among all GPE countries, the share of countries reporting on targets and observed values was smallest for these indicators relative to all indicators, ranging from 7 to 17 percent in 2010 and from 4 to 13 percent in 2011 (table 6.4). Most of the countries on which target attainment analysis has been carried out on these indicators met their targets or showed improvement; from 50 to 78 percent of the reporting countries achieved their targets in 2011.



PHOTO CREDIT: Prashanth Vishwanathan/Save the Children

TABLE 6.4. REACHING DOMESTIC FINANCING TARGETS IN EDUCATION, GPE COUNTRIES, 2010 AND 2011

percent

Indicator	Share of reporting countries among all GPE countries		Share of countries among all reporting countries							
			Targets achieved		Targets not achieved		Targets achieved, improving trend		Targets achieved, deteriorating trend	
	2010	2011	2010	2011	2010	2011	2010	2011	2010	2011
Total education expenditure										
In total public expenditure	17	9	24	78	41	0	41	0	0	22
In total public recurrent expenditure	15	15	73	73	27	0	0	0	0	27
Basic education expenditure										
In total public expenditure	7	4	29	50	57	0	0	50	0	0
In total public recurrent expenditure	15	13	60	69	13	0	13	15	13	15

Source: GPE compilation.

C. The findings on external aid to education

To asses the achievement of targets in external aid to education, we have compared the levels of scheduled and disbursed assistance. The data have been collected mainly in U.S. dollars as reported by the corresponding donors in 2011 through the 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Development Effectiveness in the Education Sector.[5] For this reason, only the most recent data available at the time (2010) is presented here. A portion of the aid going for general budget support was included in the aid to education to reflect the use of this category of aid across various national budget expenditure items.[6]

The assessment was possible in the case of 27 of the 46 GPE countries for external aid to total education and in the case of 22 of the GPE countries for external aid to basic education. The difference in the number of countries may have arisen because, in some instances, aid to total education cannot be broken down by education subsector, and aid for basic education was therefore not reported.

In 2010, the projected external aid going to total education was actually disbursed in the case of over half the countries on which data are available on both projected aid and disbursed aid (table 6.5). In the case of aid to basic education, in exactly half the countries on which data are available, the projected aid was actually disbursed.

In 2010, the projected external aid going to total education was actually disbursed in the case of over half the countries on which data are available on both projected aid and disbursed aid.

It has been difficult to assess the achievements in these indicators because we did not have information on all the exchange rates used by donors within each country. The success in reaching targets may be affected by exchange rate fluctuations. The effect of these fluctuations may, however, be less because we are examining total aid flows.

TABLE 6.5. REACHING TARGETS IN EXTERNAL EDUCATION AID, GPE COUNTRIES, 2010
(in US$, millions)

Indicator	Share of reporting countries among all GPE countries	Share of countries among all reporting countries			
		Targets achieved	Targets not achieved	Targets achieved, improving trend	Targets achieved, deteriorating trend
Projected aid (targets) and disbursed aid					
Total education	59	56	44	—	—
Basic education	48	50	50	—	—

Source: GPE compilation.
Note: — = not available.

D. The findings on education service delivery

More than three-fourths of GPE countries did not have sufficient data or established targets on basic education service delivery indicators. For this reason, in these cases, we have been unable to assess whether they made progress in 2010 or 2011 (table 6.6).

TABLE 6.6. REACHING TARGETS IN EDUCATION SERVICE DELIVERY, GPE COUNTRIES, 2010 AND 2011

percent

Indicator	Share of reporting countries among all GPE countries		Share of countries among all reporting countries							
			Targets achieved		Targets not achieved		Targets achieved, improving trend		Targets achieved, deteriorating trend	
	2010	2011	2010	2011	2010	2011	2010	2011	2010	2011
Primary school										
New entrants	13	15	85	60	15	0	0	27	0	13
Pupils	26	26	35	35	8	0	50	50	8	15
Teachers, total	22	17	81	65	10	12	10	12	0	12
Teachers, new	11	11	64	40	0	20	18	20	18	20
Classrooms, total	13	13	31	50	0	0	69	50	0	0
Classrooms, new	4	2	50	100	50	0	0	0	0	0
Textbooks per pupil ratio (mathematics)	4	2	100	100	0	0	0	0	0	0
Textbooks per pupil Ratio (language)	4	2	100	100	0	0	0	0	0	0
Lower-secondary school										
New entrants	7	4	33	50	0	0	33	0	33	50
Students	13	13	85	69	0	0	15	15	0	15
Teachers, total	11	13	82	85	0	0	0	15	18	0
Teachers, new	2	4	0	50	0	0	0	50	100	0
Classrooms, total	7	9	100	100	0	0	0	0	0	0
Classrooms, new	4	2	50	100	50	0	0	0	0	0
Most recent study on effective learning time, teacher attendance	2	0	100	—	0	—	0	—	0	—

Source: GPE compilation.

Note: — = not available.

The number of pupils in primary school was the indicator that was most frequently monitored by GPE countries, although data on targets and achievements are available only for one-quarter of these countries. The data show that progress was achieved in most countries on which data are available even in cases where targets were not met. Similarly, countries seem to be doing relatively well in increasing the number of primary-school teachers. The progress in delivering classrooms and textbooks is particularly difficult to establish because of the lack of data.

The analysis of the JSRs and the analysis of the success in reaching targets have demonstrated that sectoral monitoring data are lacking in countries or, at least, that it is difficult to gather information on education targets and on achievements. For this reason, local partners face barriers in correctly assessing the implementation of ESPs, holding each other accountable, and agreeing on the needed enhancements.

Because of the lack of data and the difficulty of gathering data on education targets and achievements, local partners face barriers in correctly assessing the implementation of ESPs, holding each other accountable, and agreeing on the needed enhancements.

In almost all JSRs, the intention is expressed to use the respective ESP objectives as the basis for measuring progress, but few JSRs use the objectives prominently, consistently, and systematically. Less than half the JSRs we have examined include an explicit analysis of data on key indicators, and, in some cases, alternative indicators have been generated and have been preferred over those in the ESPs.

Our analysis of the level of the achievement of targets, the first of its kind in the education sector, suggests that, in most cases, the regular, consistent, and well-documented monitoring of education indicators is not carried out because of the lack of sufficient data or established targets. Our analysis highlights that the lack of data is a particularly serious problem in the case of indicators on domestic financing, on which data are available on both targets and achievements in only one in five of the countries. It is also a particular problem in the case of indicators on education service delivery, on which data are available on only one in four of the countries.

Our analysis also shows that progress has been uneven across the categories of indicators. Among key outcome indicators, the largest share of countries achieved their targets in the primary-school completion rate, the gross enrollment ratio in preprimary education, and the gross intake ratio in primary education. Among the indicators on domestic and external financing, the largest share of countries achieved their targets on the indicators on total education. Among the indicators on education service delivery, the most success was achieved in the total number of teachers and students.

In the education sector, the lack of robust, rigorous monitoring against clearly identified targets is critical and may diminish the effectiveness of the Global Partnership, given that one of the objectives of the GPE is to facilitate the drafting or updating of ESPs. Country partners should define specific, measurable, attainable, relevant, and timely targets within a results framework that includes a description of ESP objectives. Within the next three years, donors and governments should specify the level of their financial support in line with the information provided in the medium-term expenditure framework, if available.

The results forms produced by the Global Partnership and certified by the LEGs should help identify any missing information and facilitate the improvement of transparency, monitoring, and accountability in the education sector. The GPE will continue to work with countries to ensure the accuracy and timeliness of data following JSR processes.

ENDNOTES

1. Ministries of education in GPE countries reported on this issue through the questionnaires they submitted for the 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector. See "2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness," Global Partnership for Education, Washington, DC, http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2/.

2. This is so except in the case of the literacy rate, which is based on data of the Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org. For details on the sources of information, see annex 6A.

3. At the time of the analysis, 46 countries were members of the GPE. Since then, four other countries have joined.

4. The definition of basic education varies across countries; see the results forms in annex 6A.

5. See "2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness," Global Partnership for Education, Washington, DC, http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2/.

6. Donors were asked to include in their aid to the education sector a 20 percent share of their aid to general budget support.

ANNEX



PHOTO CREDIT: Veronica Barbosa/Save the Children

Annex 1A. The Results Framework: Detailed Presentation of the Indicators

The results chain established in the Results Framework is based on three levels: goal, outcome, and output (see table 1.1).

The goal

The relevant goal indicator is the number of persons aged 15 to 24 years who can read and write with understanding a short simple statement on their everyday lives, divided by the population in that age group. This indicator is used to assess the midterm contribution of the GPE to human capital development. Actions between now and 2015 will have little impact on this indicator because of the lead time associated with impact. (It takes 15 to 20 years for a primary education system to exert its full effect on the youth literacy rate, for example.) The aim of analyzing this indicator is to provide a long-term marker of progress and enable the identification of developing countries with specific issues or of best performers that can be studied for useful lessons. Literacy is a complex and manifold phenomenon that is characterized by diverse dimensions pertaining to (1) the skills and abilities involved in reading and writing and in the use of numbers, (2) perceptions about what one may do with written materials, and (3) literacy practices. Literacy often encompasses numeracy, the ability to make simple arithmetic calculations.

Thus, literacy cannot be measured according to a single, simple metric. Most countries produce literacy rates and estimates of the number of people who are illiterate. This information is usually calculated from the responses to simple questions in population censuses or household surveys. Typically, the key question is "Do you know how to read and write?" It is clear that a question such as this cannot yield detailed information on skills or practices. Skills need to be tested; they cannot be collapsed into a single dimension because reading, writing, and doing arithmetic are each a set of complex skills (UIL and Brazil 2010).

Literacy practices are also well beyond the scope of such a question. Literacy rates usually reflect perceptions, what individuals feel and believe they can do with written materials, and this information is useful in understanding identity formation processes and social positioning on a key variable affecting social exclusion, that is, access to education. Literacy rates are likewise related to skills even if this relationship is not linear because perceptions are formed within a context: limited skills might be sufficient in an environment that is not particularly demanding. Thus, the information conveyed by literacy rates is valuable, but should not be considered an indicator of skills or practices. The UIS currently collects data on literacy rates and has developed a program to test reading and numeracy skills, the Literacy Assessment and Monitoring Program. Released in late 2012, the first report on this program also explores the relationship between perceptions and skills on the basis of empirical evidence. As a marker of progress, however, the GPE will continue to rely on the UIS literacy rate for persons 15 to 24 years of age.

The outcome

The indicators of outcomes measure the share of children (learners) receiving a basic education of good quality. The eight outcome indicators in the Results Framework are as follows:

- *Gross enrolment ratio in preprimary education:* This measures the participation of children in early childhood education programs. Enrolment data on these programs can be affected by differences in reporting practices, namely, the extent to which childcare programs with little or no pedagogical content are included in the statistics.

- *Grade 1 gross intake ratio:* This measures the total number of new entrants in the first grade of primary education, regardless of age. It is expressed as a percentage of the population at the age officially recognized for primary-school entrance. A high ratio indicates a large share of new entrants of the appropriate age. The indicator can be distorted if repeaters in grade 1

are not effectively distinguished from new entrants. Rates higher than 100 percent may show success in attracting delayed entrants or a failure in measuring repetition correctly. The ratios in many GPE countries are currently much higher than 100 percent.

- *Rate of out-of-school children:* This is the number of children of official primary-school age who are not enrolled in primary or secondary school. It is expressed as a percentage of the population at the official primary-school age. This measures the size of the population in the official primary-school age range that should be targeted by efforts to achieve universal primary education. The administrative data used in the calculation of the rate are based on enrollment at a specific date, which can bias the results by counting enrolled children who never attend school or by omitting children who enroll after the reference date. Furthermore, children who drop out of school after the reference date are not counted as out of school until the next year. Inconsistencies in enrolment or population data can also result in over- or underestimates of the rate. The international comparability of this indicator can be affected by the use of different concepts of enrollment and out-of-school children across countries. Cf. Annex 1C for further discussion on this indicator.

- *Primary-school completion rate:* This is the percentage of children who have completed the last year of primary schooling, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population at the theoretical graduation age for primary school. The gross intake ratio at the last grade of primary school is used as a proxy for the primary-school completion rate. The gross intake ratio is computed as the total number of students in the last grade of primary school, regardless of age and minus repeaters, divided by the total number of children at the theoretical age of entrance to the last grade of primary school. Under certain circumstances, the computation may under- or overestimate the actual proportion of a given cohort completing primary school, and the ratio sometimes exceeds 100 percent because of over- and underage children who have entered primary school late or early or who have repeated grades or because of the use of a population denominator that is derived from population projections or interpolations, which may under- or overestimate the real size of the population.

- *Transition rate from primary to lower-secondary education:* This measures the number of new entrants to the first grade of secondary education (general programs only) in a given year expressed as a percentage of the number of pupils enrolled in the final grade of primary education in the previous year. The main issue associated with this indicator is that, at the time of data collection, schools may have difficulty distinguishing new entrants from repeaters. The quality of the indicator can also be affected by students who have dropped out or changed schools.

- *Lower-secondary completion rate:* This is the percentage of children who are completing the last year of lower-secondary education. The gross intake ratio at the last grade of lower-secondary education is used as a proxy for this indicator. The gross intake ratio is computed as the total number of students in the last grade of lower-secondary education, minus repeaters, divided by the number of children at the theoretical age of completion of the last grade of lower-secondary education. The caveats with respect to the primary-school completion rate are caveats in this case as well.

- *Gender parity in primary and secondary education:* The share of GPE developing-country partners that have achieved gender parity has been calculated for the gross intake ratio, the primary-school completion rate, and the lower-secondary completion rate. Gender parity is thus a ratio of ratios, for example, the ratio of the gross intake ratio for males, divided by the gross intake ratio for females. By convention, gender parity is achieved if the gender parity index is between 0.97 and 1.03.

- *Learning outcome indicators:* The Results Framework contains two quality indicators focusing on learning outcomes:

- ◇ The proportion of pupils who, by the end of two grades of primary school, have demonstrated that they can read and understand the meaning of grade-level text

- ◇ The proportion of students who, by the end of the primary or basic education cycle, are able to read and demonstrate understanding, as defined by the national curriculum or as agreed by national experts

There is no standardized methodology for reporting on these indicators. Therefore, the GPE will use the information available through national and regional assessment systems to report on relevant quality achievements or other efforts.

The output

The output indicators refer to four results related to the following:

- *The development of sound education sector policies:* No indicator or rating has yet been established that allows cross-country comparisons on the quality of the ESPs. The GPE is developing a methodology to report on the quality of ESPs. The methodology will be described in the Guidelines for Education Plan Preparation and Appraisal, which is being drafted in collaboration with the International Institute for Educational Planning. The development partner group in each country is responsible for producing an ESP appraisal report using the new guidelines. The report will help identify strengths and weaknesses in the ESP. The GPE will collect the appraisal reports and will thus be able to provide information on the quality of the ESPs, their coherence with the goals of the GPE, and any issues that should be considered.

- *The mobilization of sufficient and sustainable domestic and external financing for education:* The GPE will use the information provided by the LEGs in the JSRs to report on annual financial commitments made by developing-country partners and donors and to determine whether the commitments are being fulfilled. This will be critical in ensuring that the financing provided by the GPE supplements and supports rather than replaces other sources of funding—such as domestic financing and bilateral or multilateral aid. In addition, for aggregate data on official development assistance in GPE countries, the GPE will rely on the database of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.[1] The Results Framework will present the following specific indicators at this output level:

  - ◇ Public expenditure on education as a percent of total government expenditure, public expenditure on basic education as a percent of total public expenditure on education, and aid commitments and disbursements for education

  - ◇ The ratio of actual disbursements of GPE implementation funding relative to planned disbursements

- *The delivery of aid for education according to the principles of aid effectiveness:* The GPE has undertaken two exercises to monitor the implementation of the core Paris Declaration indicators of relevance to education. The first exercise was conducted in 2008 as a pilot survey in 10 developing-country partners (GPE 2009). In late 2010, the GPE undertook a monitoring exercise in 38 participating developing countries.[2] The exercise involved an expanded set of questions, but focused on the same set of core indicators with respect to the 2008 survey. The four core indicators directly related to the delivery of education aid included in the GPE Results Framework are shown in table 1A.1.

[1] See Aid Architecture (database) and Aid Statistics (database), Development Assistance Committee, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, Paris, http://www.oecd.org/dac/.

[2] "2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness," Global Partnership for Education, Washington, DC, http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2/.

TABLE 1A.1. AID EFFECTIVENESS INDICATORS AND TARGETS IN THE ESPs

Target	Indicator	Definition
Education aid flows are aligned on national education priorities	% of education aid to the government sector reported in the government budget	Disbursements to the government sector: official development assistance disbursed in the context of an agreement with administrations (ministries, departments, agencies, or municipalities) authorized to receive revenue or undertake expenditures on behalf of the central government
Use of country public financial management systems	% of education aid that involves national public financial management systems	Official development assistance disbursements on education for the government sector that use at least one of the following three public financial management system procedures: (i) national budget execution procedures, (ii) national financial reporting procedures, and (iii) national auditing procedures
Use of country procurement systems	% of education aid that involves national procurement systems and procedures	Donor funds provided for the implementation of projects and programs are managed according to national procurement procedures as established in general legislation and implemented by the government
Use of common arrangements or procedures	% of education aid provided in the context of program-based approaches	Program-based approach: a mechanism for engaging in development cooperation based on the principles of coordinated support for a locally owned program of development, such as a national ESP. The approach has the following features: (i) Leadership by the host country; (ii) A single comprehensive program and budget framework; (iii) A formal process for donor coordination and the harmonization of donor procedures for reporting, budgeting, financial management, and procurement; and (iv) Efforts to increase the use of country systems for program design and implementation, financial management, and M&E The indicator is measured according to donor use of budget support or joint financing mechanisms. A donor may support the approach through project support as long as (i) and (ii) apply fully and (iii) and (iv) apply to the extent possible

Source: OECD 2010.

These indicators are subject to change with regard to the new global monitoring indicators that will be agreed by the Global Partnership for effective development cooperation. It may not be possible to aggregate, at the global level, the indicators on the improvement of education service delivery. The Secretariat will provide this information on GPE countries that achieve the national targets and facilitate access to the studies undertaken within the country.

- *The improvement of education service delivery:* The main purpose of these indicators is to assess the capacity of the education sector to deliver inputs to schools as planned in the ESPs. Two types of indicators are used, as follows:

  - ◊ Indicators such as the number of pupils, teachers, and classrooms, and the number of textbooks per pupil provide information on the size of the education sector and the capacity of ministries of education to provide services to pupils. However, these indicators are aggregated at the national level.

  - ◊ Indicators are needed to determine the extent to which inputs are delivered to schools and the associated impact on learning outcomes. This information requires special studies such as public expenditure tracking surveys that include the education sector or perhaps focus exclusively on the education sector. If performed carefully, these surveys can provide policy makers with diagnostic tools that reveal how well incentives and accountability systems are functioning and how they may be improved. There is a substantial and growing literature on how to conduct and use such surveys.[3] The literature documents how pervasive the systemic inefficiencies and leakages are, substantially reducing the value of education investments by external development partners and by developing countries. Similarly, more evidence is becoming available on methods for measuring the loss in instructional time and learning opportunity and diagnosing the underlying causes of poor learning outcomes. These problems tend to be related to weaknesses in education sector accountability systems and in the incentives facing service providers.[4] The GPE encourages developing-country partners to undertake these studies, report on the results during the JSR process, and use them to develop or update the ESPs.

[3] For a review of available public expenditure tracking surveys, see PETS/QSDS Data Portal (database), World Bank, Washington, DC, http://pets.prognoz.com/prod/. For an overview of the concept and uses of the surveys, see, for example, Reinikka and Smith (2004). Country-specific surveys include Ferraz, Finan, and Moreira (2010); Francken (2003); Tanzania (2005); Kenya (2005); and Ye and Canagarajah (2002).

[4] For an overview, see Abadzi (2009). An inspirational country case study using the Stallings classroom snapshot instrument can be found in Bruns, Evans, and Luque (2010).

Annex 1B. The Accountability Matrix

	Education policy and planning	Education finance	Aid effectiveness	Data and M&E	Advocacy	Good practice and knowledge sharing
Objective	• Development of sound sectoral policies in education	• Mobilization of sufficient and sustainable domestic and external financing for education	• Aid for basic education provided and managed efficiently and effectively	• Reliable, timely, and relevant data are produced, analyzed, and used by local and global education stakeholders	• Effective advocacy for quality basic education	• Communication of good practice and knowledge sharing among GPE partners contribute to improved educational outcomes
Board of Directors	• Sets overall policies and strategies that will enable partners to implement sound ESPs through coordinated GPE processes	• Mobilize political support for increasing the financing for basic education • Monitor the implementation of the GPE Fund and ensure its effective governance • Respond to specific resource challenges that threaten the progress toward GPE goals	• Ensure that GPE policies and practices reflect internationally agreed principles of aid effectiveness • Ensure implementation of the accountability matrix	• Oversee the partnership's M&E efforts • Promote evidence-based policy making	• Advocate for the GPE at the global level • Advocate for policies that improve learning outcomes, girls education, and support for fragile states	• Enhance links among the various GPE partners by strengthening channels of communication and collaboration
GPE Chair	• Provide political and intellectual leadership for the partnership • Facilitate GPE decision making on strategies and policies and follow through to ensure implementation	• Advocate for greater external and domestic financing for basic education • Lead efforts to mobilize funds	• Advocate for aid effectiveness among partners • Provide leadership to facilitate the task of the Board of Directors in ensuring policies and practices that reflect principles of aid effectiveness	• Promote the awareness and use of M&E instruments by all stakeholders and advocate for actions in weak or neglected areas pointed out in the M&E reports	• Take the lead in advocacy • Promote dialogue among partners	• Promote knowledge sharing within the partnership at board meetings

Unit	Education policy and planning	Education finance	Aid effectiveness	Data and M&E	Advocacy	Good practice and knowledge sharing
GPE Secretariat	• Provide quality support for planning in monitoring processes, including ESP development and JSRs • Inform, provide support, and collect and share information on the country processes leading to ESP endorsement • Ensure endorsed ESPs meet the criteria defined in the Guidelines for Education Plan Preparation and Appraisal • Ensure that GPE funding requests meet agreed policy and quality criteria	• Support resource mobilization efforts • Support supervising entities to ensure timely and effective disbursement of the Global Partnership for Education Fund • Coordinate progress reporting on activities financed through the Global Partnership for Education Fund • Maintain the needs and performance framework and recommend indicative allocations	• Support LEGs in developing, monitoring, and collecting information on an agenda for aid effectiveness at the country level • Help LEGs to harmonize and align their work and support around one ESP • Help LEGs identify the best method for supporting a program-based approach and strengthening country systems	• Use data from national M&E systems and collaborate with data collection agencies to improve data reliability and availability • If data are missing, produce data based on country sources • Provide annual progress reports on GPE performance on the basis of the Results Framework and the accountability matrix • Monitor the utilization of GPE funding in line with partnership objectives and policies • Monitor the implementation of the policy pledges made by partners at the GPE Replenishment Conference in Copenhagen in November 2011	• Advocate for the GPE at the country and global levels through a communication strategy, including briefs, outreach activities, newsletters, a website, and dissemination • Advocate for policies and practices that improve learning outcomes, girls education, and support for fragile states • Discuss and remind partners of their funding commitments; if needed, publish information pertaining to failures in honoring financing commitments	• Facilitate the implementation of the Global and Regional Activities Program • Produce, distribute, and follow up on the use of GPE knowledge products that are strategic • Draw on lessons emerging from country experiences and gather feedback to inform GPE strategic directions • Identify and disseminate best policy practices • Share information on the receipt and disbursement of funds on a timely basis with all stakeholders

Unit	Education policy and planning	Education finance	Aid effectiveness	Data and M&E	Advocacy	Good practice and knowledge sharing
Ministry of education, government	• Develop ESPs that address equity, access, and quality and that are coherent with the three GPE strategic directions wherever relevant • Use evidence to improve policy and planning • Enhance accountability toward learners and parents • Improve participation, communication, and transparency in education planning • Engage stakeholders, including civil society and the private sector, in policy dialogue and resource mobilization for the ESPs	• Provide the agreed public expenditure for basic education as a share of the government budget • Improve the performance of the education budget by reducing the discrepancy between budgets and expenditures • Provide equitable resource allocations to reduce disparities • Ensure close collaboration between with the ministry of finance and the ministries involved in education • Ensure the efficient and effective use of resources for agreed purposes and with no tolerance for corruption	• Engage with national civil society, parliament, decentralized authorities, and other education stakeholders to create ownership of the national ESP and involve them in sector policy and decision making • Take the lead in the implementation, monitoring, and management of the principles of aid effectiveness • Take the lead in the JSRs • Strengthen the quality of public financial management and procurement systems in collaboration with other government entities • Collect accurate information on aid and record it in the budget	• Establish and maintain reliable data collection systems • Monitor and report on the progress in implementing ESPs, including through the JSRs • Report to the LEG on core sector data as presented in the GPE Results Framework and the accountability matrix • Collaborate with any broad impact evaluation of the GPE	• Raise awareness on equity and quality education within the government • Engage in resource mobilization for the funding of the ESPs	• Be informed about good practices and models and apply them to the country context • Share experiences from pilot projects and quality evaluations on what works in improving education quality and equity • Ensure that all relevant ministries and authorities with a stake in the ESP are involved in GPE processes

Unit	Education policy and planning	Education finance	Aid effectiveness	Data and M&E	Advocacy	Good practice and knowledge sharing
Bilateral and multilateral donor partners	• At the global level: Ensure that aid is aligned with ESP priorities • Champion best practices • Ensure coordinated and demand-driven technical and financial assistance for ESP development and implementation At the country level: Support the government in developing ESPs that credibly address access, equity, and quality and that are coherent with GPE strategic directions wherever relevant • Appraise and endorse ESPs • Use domestic and international evidence to improve policy and planning • Accept a binding division of labor among LEG partners based on government priorities	• At the global level: Increase the amount and the predictability of aid for basic education • Ensure that any commitments made result in timely disbursements At the country level: Ensure that additional adequate and predictable long-term resources are available for ESP implementation • Ensure that the gap and lead times between commitments and disbursements are reduced and share information with relevant partners • Support interministerial coordination in relevant initiatives with the ministry of finance to secure sufficient resources for the sector • Promote public financial management reforms in the education sector • Assist the government in assessing and reducing fiduciary risks • Assist the government in accessing GPE funding instruments	• At the global level: Increase education aid and ensure that it is predictable over time and in alignment with the ESPs • Increase the use of public financial management and procurement systems if aid is directed to the government sector and otherwise help to improve the capacity and quality of the systems • Help develop program-based approaches and coordinate missions and analytical work • Phase out project implementation units, while providing technical cooperation to strengthen the absorptive capacity of systems to manage and utilize aid At the country level: Agree on a binding process to develop, implement, and monitor the principles and indicators of aid effectiveness, as stipulated in the Paris Declaration and the Accra Agenda • Promote the engagement of non-state actors in sector policy and decision making	• At the global level: Provide information on financial commitments, disbursements, and aid modalities to the government and the GPE • Review and provide inputs for the GPE M&E strategy and related products, including suggestions for the refinement of indicators and for data corrections At the country level: Participate in joint field visits and systematic school observations to document the quality and impact of service delivery • Assist in monitoring sector accountability and disseminate the related findings • Monitor and report on progress in implementing the ESPs • Promote quality evaluations by national stakeholders • Support the development of locally owned M&E systems and capacities • Support the government in developing and maintaining an effective country-wide M&E system • Ensure regular JSRs with the government	• At the global level: Advocate for basic education as a significant share of bilateral and multilateral aid programs • Advocate for GPE focus areas At the country level: Advocate for more domestic resources for basic education • Assist in stimulating the demand for equitable, quality education • Assist in disseminating the findings of the government and non-state actors on educational matters • Promote dialogue on the findings of M&E and quality evaluations pertaining to quality and equity issues	• At the global level: Be actively involved in the implementation of the Global and Regional Activities Program • Share good practices and experiences with the GPE so that these are disseminated by the Secretariat • Make use of GPE knowledge products • Share the findings and methodologies of the quality evaluations • Ensure coordination and information sharing with the GPE At the country level: Become informed and adopt suitable good practices • Support countries in developing and documenting good practices

Unit	Education policy and planning	Education finance	Aid effectiveness	Data and M&E	Advocacy	Good practice and knowledge sharing
Coordinating agency	• Coordinate among government, donor, and civil society partners in the LEGs for the development, endorsement, and implementation of the ESPs • Lead donors and civil society in supporting the ministry of education during the development, endorsement, and implementation of the ESPs • Ensure that the government has appropriate and coordinated support for ESP development and implementation • Serve as the communication link between the government, civil society, donors, and the GPE • Promote the inclusion of civil society in the LEG and provide civil society the opportunity to contribute as an active partner	• Support the government in ensuring sustainable funding for the ESPs • Facilitate the timely and efficient disbursement of all funds supporting the implementation of the ESPs • Report on progress in ESP implementation, including funding commitments and disbursements	• Promote the engagement of national civil society in overall sector dialogue • Promote the agenda on aid effectiveness with the ministry of education and donor partners and encourage the agreement on and implementation of GPE principles	• Advocate for and support timely and reliable data reporting to the UIS and the GPE based on the Results Framework, the accountability matrix, and efforts to promote aid effectiveness • Support the ministry of education in organizing the JSRs and send the related terms of reference and the final report to the GPE • Report to the government, the GPE, and country partners on financial commitments and disbursements • Coordinate and support any evaluations of the broad impact of the GPE	• Use the GPE tools and ensure two-way communication with the Secretariat and the LEG • Advocate for sustained and increasing aid to education	• Ensure that GPE knowledge products are disseminated and used wherever appropriate • Inform the LEG and the government about good practices shared by the GPE • Share good country practices and experiences with the GPE
Supervising and managing entity	• Ensure that GPE support is directed toward appropriate policies and plans • Ensure that GPE-funded activities are aligned with the ESP • Ensure that there is adequate capacity for GPE-funded activities	• Ensure the timely disbursement of grant allocations to the country • Ensure that grant management adheres to the principles of aid effectiveness	• Support the use of shared arrangements for financing and resource transfers • Support the use of country systems • Ensure that other partners, especially the coordinating agency, are involved in following up on the program approved by the GPE	• Track and report on the use of GPE-funded activities • Ensure that GPE grant supervision is in line with national M&E systems	• Share good practice and experience with the GPE, for example, on the use of shared arrangements or funding requests	

Unit	Education policy and planning	Education finance	Aid effectiveness	Data and M&E	Advocacy	Good practice and knowledge sharing
International civil society	• Identify and disseminate best practices • If available, provide technical and financial advice to national civil society in advocating for sound education sector policies	• Advocate for increased levels of aid that are aligned with national priorities • Monitor the allocation, receipt, disbursement, and utilization of funds from donors, the GPE, and governments	• Advocate for the improved implementation of the principles of aid effectiveness so as to achieve results • Advocate for the alignment and harmonization of education aid with national education plans and procedures	• Provide additional data as available to inform the policy process and critical discussions on sector progress	• Advocate for the GPE at the country and global levels by engaging in constructive debates and discussions • Support civil society participation in GPE discussions • Assist in holding governments and global institutions accountable for their education commitments	• Enhance the dialogue on GPE strategic areas • Support the implementation of the Global and Regional Activities Program • Work with national civil society to improve technical capacities
National civil society	• Participate actively in the LEGs to improve the quality of the ESPs and promote new policies and practices in the country • Play a lead role, in partnership with the ministry of education, in the development of policies based on evidence from school programs to inform education planning and budgets • Play an active role, in partnership with the coordinating agency, in coordinating the LEG	• Ensure the accountability of the government for education budgets and expenditures • Monitor the allocation, receipt, disbursement, and utilization of funds from donors, the GPE, and governments • Ensure that funding and planning managed by civil society are coordinated with the overall ESP • Ensure transparency in education spending and the implementation in schools and at the national level	• Monitor and promote progress toward better coordination and alignment of civil society support for the implementation of the ESP • Actively participate as an integral member of the LEG • Promote government accountability and government compliance with the principles of effectiveness • Mobilize local civil society to ensure its involvement in GPE processes • Participate in annual JSRs	• Provide data on performance and on the importance of non-state actors in the education sector • Provide evidence of best practices to improve education sector policy and planning	• Advocate for adequate government budget allocations for education • Work with members of parliament and advocate for the GPE • Ensure that representative voices are heard by the LEG regarding the development, implementation, and monitoring of the ESP • Advocate for policies and policy implementation to improve learning outcomes, girls education, and support for fragile states	• Coordinate outreach activities and the representation of non-state actors on the GPE Board of Directors • Share good practices and innovations

Unit	Education policy and planning	Education finance	Aid effectiveness	Data and M&E	Advocacy	Good practice and knowledge sharing
Private partners, research entities, foundations	• Identify and finance activities that support national education policies	• Support the development of innovative financing	• Advocate for private foundations to align and coordinate education aid with national education plans and procedures Advocate for improved implementation of the principles of aid effectiveness	• Lobby for the private sector to share information on financial commitments and disbursements in the education sector	• Advocate for policies that improve learning outcomes, girls education, and support for fragile states	• Provide insights into opportunities and challenges for engaging non-state actors in the education sector

Source: GPE compilation.

Annex 1C. Measurement Issues in Counting the Number of Out-of-School Children

Out-of-school children of primary-school age are children of primary-school age who are not in either primary or secondary school. Children who are out of school include children who have never entered school, as well as children who have dropped out.[5] While it is conceptually unproblematic to determine which children have never been in school, it is not as easy to determine the numbers of children who, having once been in school, have dropped out of school. This is so because many of these children exhibit irregular attendance patterns that lead to staying in school, dropping out, or dropping back in.

Estimates of out-of-school children

There are two main sources of data on out-of-school children: administrative records (education management information systems or EMISs) and household surveys. The numbers of out-of-school children gauged through these sources can differ substantially because of the differences in the methodologies used to derive the numbers.

[5] Dropouts are defined as those children who are not attending and who do not plan to attend again. However, intentions are hard to measure, particularly using administrative data. Even if intentions are measured, they are not always realized. Sometimes, children go back to school after having been out for a period. Thus, data on dropouts are always only approximations. Not having ever been in school, though, is a relatively unambiguous status. The UNESCO Institute for Statistics takes these limitations and issues into account as much as possible, but it also faces limitations if data are misreported starting at the level of individual schools.

In addition, there is the issue of drop-out risk: children who are likely to drop out, but have not yet dropped out. It is clear from research that dropping out is not always a single decision based on a choice between two alternatives: remaining in school or dropping out. Rather, the decision involves a process that may take several years and often starts with poor attendance that becomes more chronic little by little.

There are advantages and limitations in using either type of data to count out-of-school children, and neither the EMISs nor the household surveys provide sufficient information on partial attendance situations or irregular attendance, which can be a precursor to dropping out. In addition, the EMISs tend to estimate the number of dropouts mostly indirectly based on estimates of repetition. Thus, if the repetition data are underreported (sometimes significantly), then the drop-out data are overestimated.

Administrative data are usually collected by governments annually and thus can allow for the annual monitoring of the number of out-of-school children. However, the reporting systems often provide imperfect measures of out-of-school populations, and administrative data may be subject to unknown biases through both over- and underreporting.

To produce education indicators (ratios), administrative data are combined with population data that are interpolations or projections from censuses. The resulting indicators often suffer from considerable measurement error. The number of out-of-school children is derived using the complement of enrollment, essentially the total population, minus measured enrollment. However, enrollment is a one-time event, in almost all cases registered only at the beginning of the school year, and can be followed by nonattendance or irregular attendance. Non-attendance can be extreme in cases in which children cease to attend altogether after a few months.

EMISs also often do not provide information on children who are being schooled outside the regular school system, in informal schools, madrassas, and so on. The poor quality of the data associated with the age of children that are provided by administrative sources likewise affects the reliability of the out-of-school numbers. The out-of-school data refer to children of primary-school age, which require information on the age of pupils, but such information is normally poorly reported by schools. The age-specific data then have to be compared to age-specific data from population projections or interpolations between censuses, which are, in turn, subject to many errors. It is important for policy analysts and opinion leaders to realize that, ultimately, the numbers of out-of-school children are only best estimates and not direct measurements.

In many household surveys, education is used as a background characteristic to describe other phenomena and is not the main subject of the surveys. These surveys normally ascertain whether the children attend, not simply whether the children were enrolled at the beginning of the school year. Moreover, they do not measure at a standard point of the school year across countries. Household surveys often consider that a child is attending school if the child has attended at any time during the school year. However, there is a need to capture the more evasive phenomena, such as nonattendance after enrollment, desultory attendance so extreme that, during periods of nonattendance, the children should really be considered out of school (in and then out of school). As a result, the number of out-of-school children derived from existing household surveys is underestimated because within-year dropouts (who are effectively out of school) are not always properly captured. (That the standard instruments run a danger of not capturing this problem is confirmed by the findings of a field study discussed below.)

An additional problem is that household surveys mostly collect the age of children at the time of the survey. The age of each child at the beginning of the school year is not always known because the exact date of birth is not often remembered by the survey respondent, or it is not collected. In addition, household surveys can only create population estimates of total numbers of the children out of school by inflating the survey results back up to the total population, and these inflation factors are only estimates. Thus, as with EMISs, out-of-school data from surveys are only estimates.

On the positive side, education data collected through household surveys can provide information on children both inside and outside the regular school system. Additionally, household surveys collect information on other

characteristics of children such as gender, ethnicity, health, and family status, as well as information on the households in which they reside, such as location (urban or rural), income, and the education and gender of the household head. This information can be used to identify target groups for policy (using a profiling or statistical approach). Finally, another advantage of household surveys for the calculation of ratios is that the source of data on in-school status (the numerator of the attendance ratio) and population (the denominator) is one and the same, the household, whereas data taken from administrative records are based on information provided by schools on enrollment and projections taken from censuses.

Measuring out-of-school children in Karnataka, India

To ascertain whether the questions normally asked during household surveys are capturing the out-of-school issue sufficiently, a quick study was conducted in Karnataka, India. The intent was not to provide an estimate for the region, but, by comparing the standard questions used in most household surveys with a set of modified questions, to document potential problems in current household surveys and to provide insights on ways to capture within-year dropouts comprehensively (or effectively out-of-school children), thereby improving the measurement of the number of out-of-school children.

The questionnaire used in the study was divided into two sections. The first section was a slightly modified version of the education module of the current UNICEF Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys questionnaire. This module collects information on whether children have ever attended school and, if so, whether they have attended school during the current school year at any time. It also collects information on the level of education and grade a child has attended, along with other individual characteristics such as age and gender.

The second section inquired about children's school attendance for the week prior to the interview and over the last three months of the school year. In cases where a child did not attend school in the week prior to the interview, information was collected on the main reason for the absence, the last month the child attended school or preschool during the current school year, whether the parent intends that the child will return to school during the rest of the school year, and the challenges the child may face in returning to school. For the last three months of the school year (excluding the last week), the questionnaire collected information on the absences of any children, along with the main reason for the absence and a description of school attendance patterns. The purpose of these questions was mainly to distinguish temporary absenteeism from within-year dropout (or effective out of school) and permanent drop-out risks.

Data collection primarily targeted school areas known or presumed to exhibit irregular school attendance given that the goal was not to measure a problem, but to document the difference in results generated by the standard household survey questionnaire and the modified questionnaire. The selected study sites were spread across four districts in Karnataka: Bangalore Rural, Kolar, Ramanagar, and Tumkur. The study questionnaire was administered in 57 households where the respondents were either the heads of household or an adult household member. These households had 91 children of primary-school age (6- to 13-year-olds in this case).

Analysis of the survey data revealed the following: Using only the traditional question found in the education module of current household surveys ("Did [name] attend school or preschool at any time during the school year?"), 16 children were recorded as dropouts for the 2011–12 school year; they had attended at some point, but were not attending during the year in course. However, with the additional information collected in the second section of the questionnaire, 22 more children were found to have completely stopped attending during the school year in course, bringing the total number of effectively out-of-school children to 38. Therefore, 58 percent of the total number of traditionally defined and

within-year dropouts would not have been captured using only the traditional questionnaire in household surveys.

In addition, 5 primary-school age children in the study attended school extremely sporadically during the school year even though they had not stopped attending altogether. These children were in and out of school because they had to work for wages, care for their siblings, are part of nomadic families, or their families do not value education.

The total number of out-of-school children in the interviewed households for the 2011–12 school year was 24 if school attendance was solely based on the question "Did [name] attend school or preschool at any time during the school year?"[6] However, if additional questions are asked about a child's school attendance, the actual number of effectively out-of-school children becomes higher (it essentially doubles): 46. This is because the within-year dropouts are not captured solely using the traditional question.

In conclusion, the education module of current household surveys needs to be modified to capture dropouts during the school year more precisely, thereby providing more accurate counts of out-of-school children.

It is important to recall that the education section in the most important household surveys of the last decades is much, much smaller than the health section: perhaps 10 to 20 percent of the size of the health sections. It is no wonder, then, that the education sector must rely on much poorer information than the health sector and that even issues as fundamental as school attendance or school entry are so badly measured, analyzed, and understood. There is scope for improving the education sector's understanding of these issues either by increasing the size of the education section in household surveys or by carrying out more special-purpose education surveys (possibly linking households and schools).

[6] This included 7 children who had never attended school and 1 primary-school age child attending preschool.

Annex 2A. List of Countries Eligible to Join the GPE

Country	Income group	Fragile situation
GPE countries		
Afghanistan	Low	Yes
Albania	Upper middle	No
Benin	Low	No
Bhutan	Lower middle	No
Burkina Faso	Low	No
Cambodia	Low	No
Cameroon	Lower middle	No
Central African Republic	Low	Yes
Côte d'Ivoire	Lower middle	Yes
Djibouti	Lower middle	No
Ethiopia	Low	No
Gambia, The	Low	No
Georgia	Lower middle	Yes
Ghana	Lower middle	No
Guinea	Low	Yes
Guinea-Bissau	Low	Yes
Guyana	Lower middle	No
Haiti	Low	Yes
Honduras	Lower middle	No
Kenya	Low	No
Kyrgyz Republic	Low	No
Lao PDR	Lower middle	No
Lesotho	Lower middle	No
Liberia	Low	Yes
Madagascar	Low	No
Malawi	Low	No
Mali	Low	No
Mauritania	Lower middle	No
Moldova	Lower middle	No
Mongolia	Lower middle	No
Mozambique	Low	No
Nepal	Low	Yes
Nicaragua	Lower middle	No
Niger	Low	No

Country	Income group	Fragile situation
GPE countries (continued)		
Papua New Guinea	Lower middle	No
Rwanda	Low	No
São Tomé and Príncipe	Lower middle	No
Senegal	Lower middle	No
Sierra Leone	Low	Yes
Tajikistan	Low	No
Timor-Leste	Lower middle	Yes
Togo	Low	Yes
Uganda	Low	No
Vietnam	Lower middle	No
Yemen, Rep.	Lower middle	Yes
Zambia	Lower middle	No
GPE-eligible countries		
Angola	Lower middle	Yes
Bangladesh	Low	No
Burundi	Low	Yes
Chad	Low	Yes
Comoros	Low	Yes
Congo, Dem. Rep.	Low	Yes
Congo, Rep.	Lower middle	Yes
Eritrea	Low	Yes
Kiribati	Lower middle	Yes
Myanmar	Low	Yes
Nigeria	Lower middle	No
Pakistan	Lower middle	No
Solomon Islands	Lower middle	Yes
Somalia	Low	Yes
Sri Lanka	Lower middle	No
Sudan	Lower middle	Yes
Tanzania	Low	No
Tonga	Lower middle	No
Uzbekistan	Lower middle	No
Vanuatu	Lower middle	No
Zimbabwe	Low	Yes

Source: GPE Secretariat.

Annex 2B. Key Participation and Progression Data Tables

TABLE 2B.1. GERs IN PREPRIMARY EDUCATION

Percent

GPE status	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
GPE	14	14	14	15	16	18	19	20	22	22	23
GPE fragile	6	6	6	7	7	9	10	10	13	13	14
GPE nonfragile	16	16	17	18	19	21	22	23	24	25	26
GPE-eligible	21	20	20	18	20	21	22	20	20	20	21

Source: Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org.

TABLE 2B.2. GIRs IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

Percent

GPE status	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
GPE	105	105	108	112	118	117	117	122	127	125	125
GPE fragile	106	107	117	119	126	100	108	106	106	113	116
GPE nonfragile	104	105	105	110	115	122	120	127	134	129	127
GPE-eligible	97	101	105	104	104	106	108	106	106	106	106

Source: Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org.

TABLE 2B.3. OOS CHILDREN

Percent

GPE status	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
GPE	34	33	31	29	28	25	24	21	19	18	18
GPE fragile	47	46	40	37	35	35	34	34	33	33	31
GPE nonfragile	30	29	29	27	25	22	21	17	15	14	14
GPE-eligible	38	36	35	33	30	28	27	26	26	26	26

Source: Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org.

TABLE 2B.4. PRIMARY-SCHOOL COMPLETION RATES

Percent

GPE status	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
GPE	56	58	59	60	61	62	64	64	67	68	71
GPE fragile	50	51	53	53	54	54	55	55	55	56	57
GPE nonfragile	58	60	61	62	63	65	66	67	70	71	75
GPE-eligible	59	61	62	63	64	66	68	67	66	68	70

Source: Data Centre (database), UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, http://www.uis.unesco.org.

Annex 3A. GPE Developing Country Partners in this Report

Afghanistan*	Guyana	Niger
Albania	Haiti	Papua New Guinea*
Benin	Honduras	Moldova
Bhutan*	Kenya	Rwanda
Burkina Faso	Kyrgyz Republic	São Tomé and Príncipe
Cambodia	Lao PDR	Senegal
Cameroon	Lesotho	Sierra Leone
Central African Republic	Liberia	Tajikistan
Côte d'Ivoire	Madagascar	Timor-Leste
Djibouti	Malawi	Togo
Ethiopia	Mali	Uganda
Gambia, The	Mauritania	Vietnam
Georgia	Mongolia	Yemen, Rep.
Ghana	Mozambique	Zambia
Guinea	Nepal	
Guinea-Bissau	Nicaragua	

Source: GPE website, April 2012.

Note: * Indicates countries in which it has not been possible to access DHS or MICS surveys.

Annex 3B. The 154 DHS and MICS Surveys Accessed for this Report

*Afghanistan 2010 DHS	Dominican Republic 2007 DHS	*Lesotho 2004 DHS	*Rwanda 2010 DHS
*Albania 2006 MICS	Egypt, Arab Rep. 2000 DHS	*Lesotho 2009 DHS	*São Tomé and Príncipe 2000 MICS
*Albania 2009 DHS	Egypt, Arab Rep. 2008 DHS	*Liberia 2007 DHS	*São Tomé and Príncipe 2008 DHS
Angola 2006 DHS	*Ethiopia 2000 DHS	Macedonia, FYR 2005 MICS	*Senegal 2000 MICS
Bangladesh 1999 DHS	*Ethiopia 2005 DHS	*Madagascar 1997 DHS	*Senegal 2005 DHS
Bangladesh 2006 MICS	Gabon 2000 DHS	*Madagascar 2008 DHS	*Senegal 2008 DHS
Bangladesh 2007 DHS	*Gambia, The 2000 MICS	*Malawi 2000 DHS	Serbia 2006 MICS
Belarus 2005 MICS	*Gambia, The 2006 MICS	*Malawi 2006 MICS	*Sierra Leone 2000 MICS
Belize 2006 MICS	Georgia 2005 MICS	*Malawi 2010 DHS	*Sierra Leone 2005 MICS
*Benin 2001 DHS	*Ghana 1998 DHS	Maldives 2009 DHS	*Sierra Leone 2008 DHS
*Benin 2006 DHS	*Ghana 2006 MICS	*Mali 2001 DHS	Somalia 2006 MICS
Bolivia 1998 DHS	*Ghana 2008 DHS	*Mali 2006 DHS	South Africa 1998 DHS
Bolivia 2008 DHS	*Guinea 1999 DHS	*Mongolia 2000 MICS	Suriname 2006 MICS
Bosnia and Herzegovina 2006 MICS	*Guinea 2005 DHS	*Mongolia 2005 MICS	Swaziland 2006 DHS
Brazil 1996 DHS	*Guinea-Bissau 2000 MICS	Montenegro 2006 MICS	Syrian Arab Republic 2006 MICS
*Burkina Faso 1998 DHS	*Guinea-Bissau 2006 MICS	Morocco 2003 DHS	*Tajikistan 2000 MICS
*Burkina Faso 2006 MICS	*Guyana 2005 DHS	*Mozambique 2003 DHS	*Tajikistan 2005 MICS
Burundi 2005 MICS	*Guyana 2007 MICS	*Mozambique 2008 MICS	Tanzania 1999 DHS
Cambodia 2000 DHS	*Guyana 2009 DHS	Mozambique 2009 DHS	Tanzania 2010 DHS
Cambodia 2010 DHS	*Haiti 2000 DHS	Namibia 2000 DHS	Thailand 2006 MICS
*Cameroon 1998 DHS	*Haiti 2006 DHS	Namibia 2006 DHS	*Timor-Leste 2009 DHS
*Cameroon 2004 DHS	*Honduras 2005 DHS	*Nepal 2001 DHS	*Togo 1998 DHS
*Cameroon 2006 MICS	*Honduras 2006 DHS	*Nepal 2006 DHS	*Togo 2006 MICS
*Central African Republic 2000 MICS	India 1998 DHS	*Nepal 2011 DHS	Trinidad and Tobago 2006 MICS
*Central African Republic 2006 MICS	India 2005 DHS	*Nicaragua 2001 DHS	*Uganda 2000 DHS
Chad 2004 DHS	Indonesia 2002 DHS	*Niger 1998 DHS	*Uganda 2006 DHS
Colombia 2000 DHS	Indonesia 2007 DHS	*Niger 2006 DHS	Ukraine 2005 MICS
Colombia 2010 DHS	Iraq 2006 MICS	Nigeria 1999 DHS	Uzbekistan 2006 MICS
Comoros 1996 DHS	Jamaica 2005 MICS	Nigeria 2007 MICS	Vanuatu 2007 MICS
Congo, Dem. Rep. 1999 MICS	Jordan 2002 DHS	Nigeria 2008 DHS	*Vietnam 2002 DHS
Congo, Dem. Rep. 2007 DHS	Jordan 2009 DHS	Pakistan 2006 DHS	*Vietnam 2005 DHS
Congo, Rep. 2005 DHS	Kazakhstan 1999 DHS	Peru 2000 DHS	*Vietnam 2006 MICS
Congo, Rep. 2009 DHS	Kazakhstan 2006 MICS	Peru 2004 DHS	*Yemen, Rep. 2006 MICS
*Côte d'Ivoire 1998 DHS	*Kenya 1998 DHS	Philippines 1998 DHS	*Zambia 2001 DHS
*Côte d'Ivoire 2005 DHS	*Kenya 2008 DHS	Philippines 2008 DHS	*Zambia 2007 DHS
*Côte d'Ivoire 2006 MICS	*Kyrgyz Republic 1997 DHS	*Moldova 2000 MICS	Zimbabwe 1999 DHS
Cuba 2006 MICS	*Kyrgyz Republic 2006 MICS	*Moldova 2005 DHS	Zimbabwe 2005 DHS
*Djibouti 2006 MICS	*Lao PDR 2000 MICS	*Rwanda 2000 DHS	
Dominican Republic 1999 DHS	*Lao PDR 2006 MICS	*Rwanda 2005 DHS	

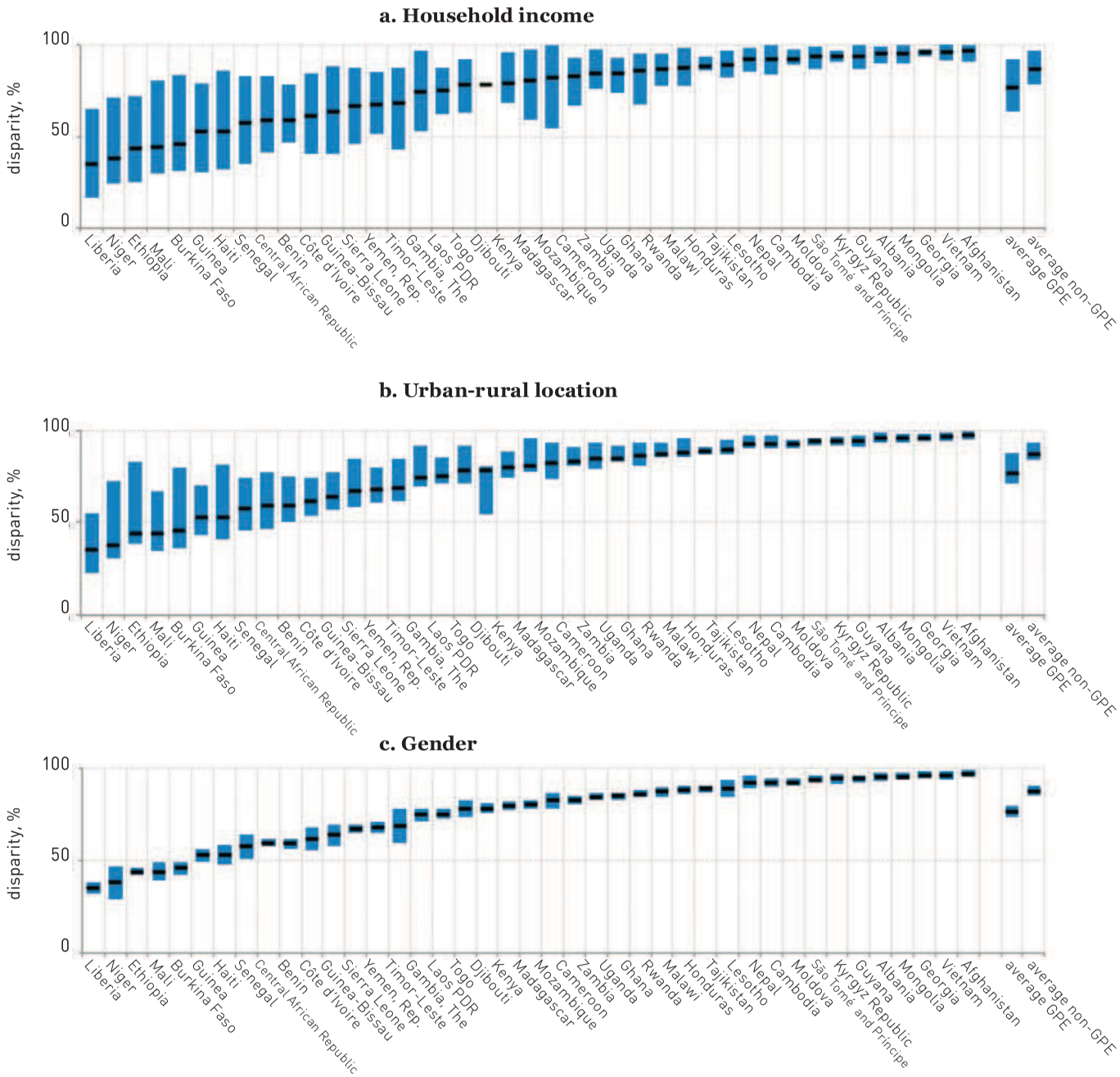
Source: GPE Secretariat.
Note: * Indicates a GPE country.

Annex 3C. Additional Participation and Service Delivery Figures

highest-lowest differences, wealth quintile, urban-rural, girls-boys

average GAR

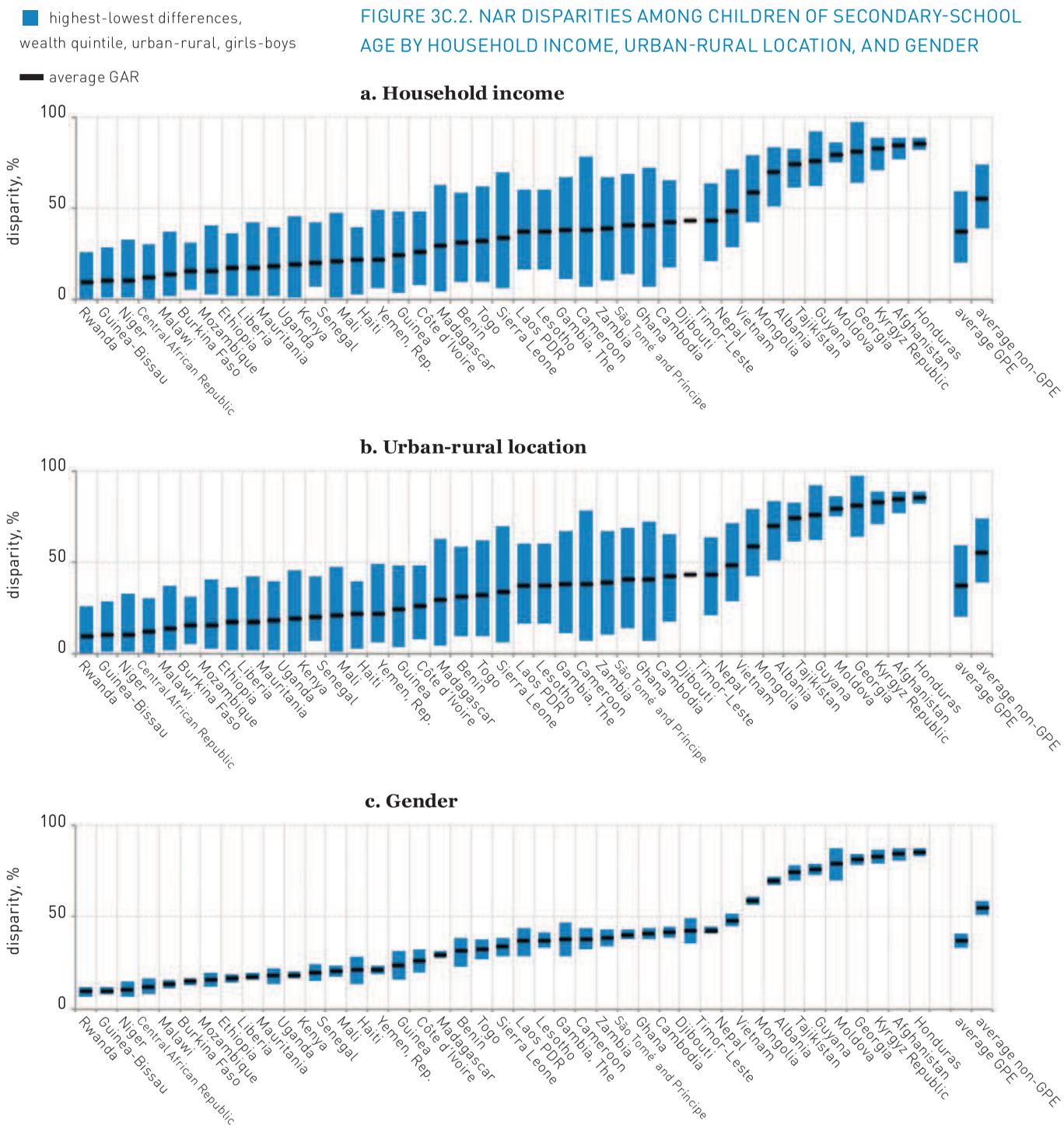
FIGURE 3C.1. NAR DISPARITIES AMONG CHILDREN OF PRIMARY-SCHOOL AGE IN GPE COUNTRIES BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME, URBAN-RURAL LOCATION, AND GENDER



Source: Data of DHS and MICS surveys, 2005–11.

Note: The black line = the country average. The blue bars = the difference between households in the highest and lowest income quintiles (chart a), urban and rural location (chart b), and girls and boys (chart c).

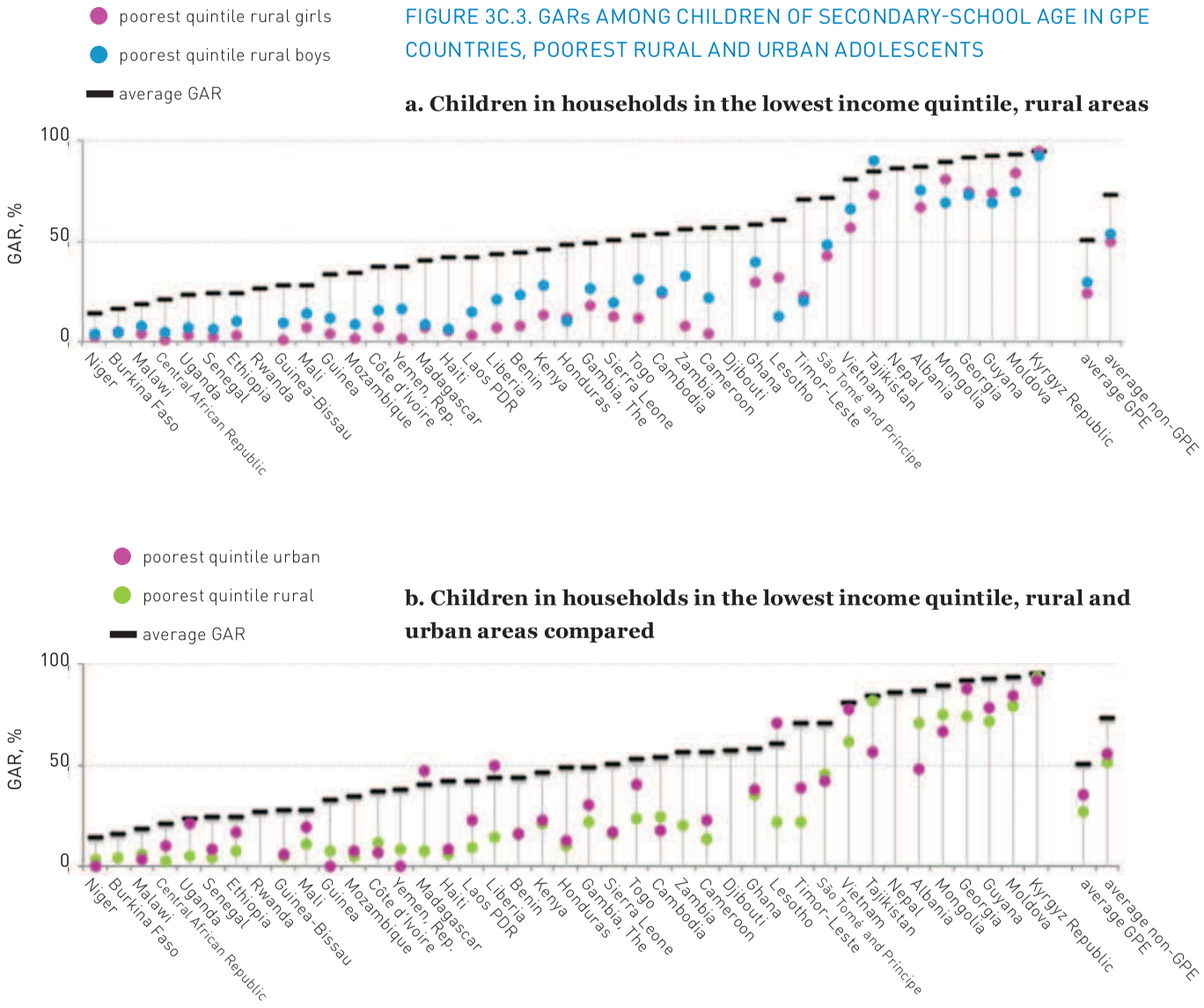
FIGURE 3C.2. NAR DISPARITIES AMONG CHILDREN OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL AGE BY HOUSEHOLD INCOME, URBAN-RURAL LOCATION, AND GENDER



Source: Data of DHS and MICS surveys, 2005–11.

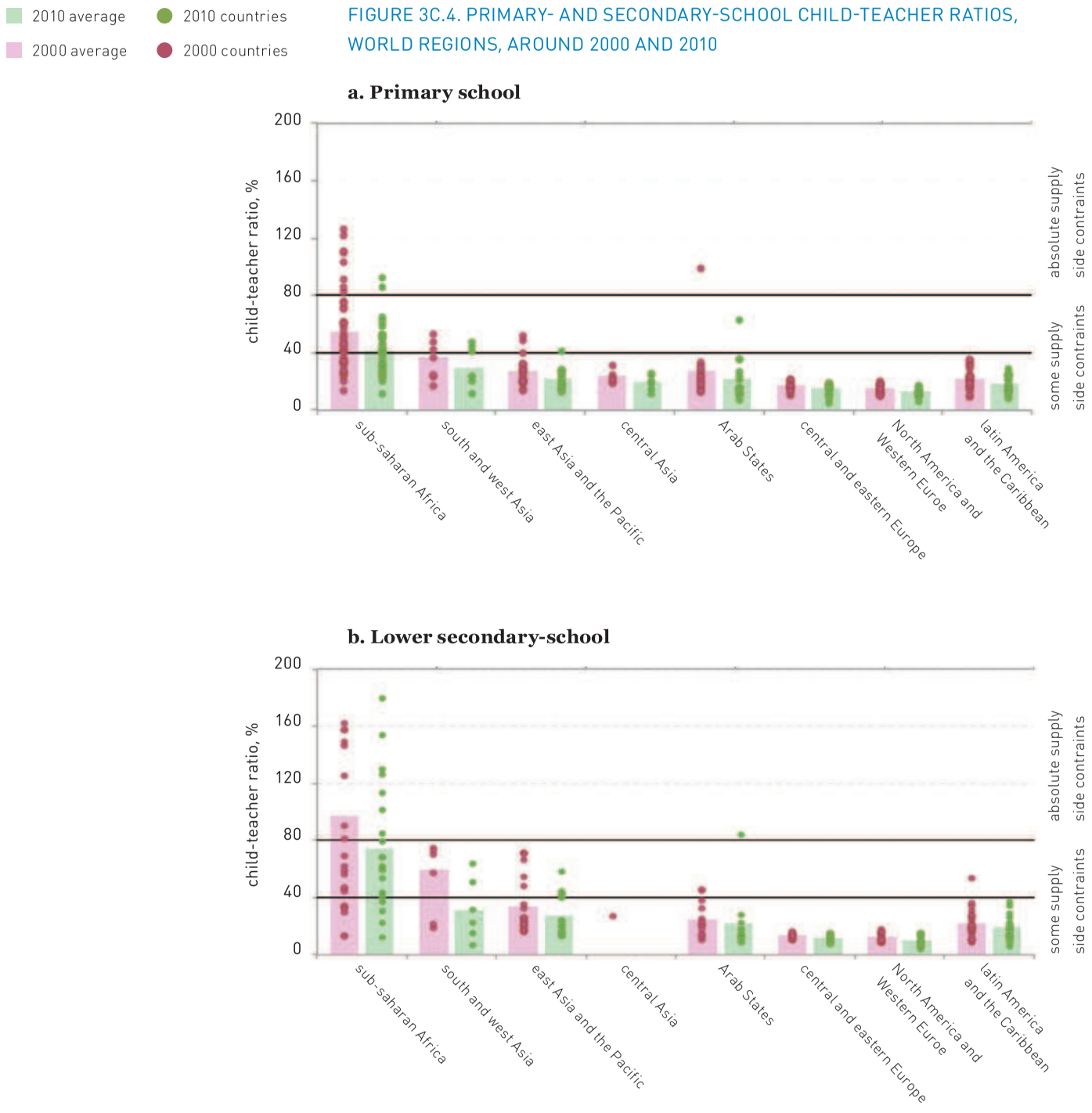
Note: The black line = the country average. The blue bars = the difference between households in the highest and lowest income quintiles (chart a), urban and rural location (chart b), and girls and boys (chart c).

FIGURE 3C.3. GARs AMONG CHILDREN OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL AGE IN GPE COUNTRIES, POOREST RURAL AND URBAN ADOLESCENTS



Source: Data of DHS and MICS surveys, 2005–11.

FIGURE 3C.4. PRIMARY- AND SECONDARY-SCHOOL CHILD-TEACHER RATIOS, WORLD REGIONS, AROUND 2000 AND 2010



Source: UIS data on teachers and the school-age population.

Annex 4A. Country ESPs and JSRs Scored According to the Effort to Achieve Better Data on Learning Outcomes

Country	Most recent ESP					JSRs				Score
	Year	Includes LO data in diagnosis	Proposal for LO monitoring	LO target set	LO indicator defined	JSR available	JSR communicated	JSR includes LO data	JSR Includes LO trend data	
Lesotho	2005	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	8
Madagascar	2008	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	8
Mozambique	2005	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	8
Ethiopia	2005	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	7
Gambia, The	2008	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	7
Liberia	2009	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	7
Timor-Leste	2011	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	7
Ghana	2004	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	7
Rwanda	2010	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	6
Senegal	2005	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	6
Togo	2010	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	6
Zambia	2007	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	6
Mali	2005	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	6
Honduras	2003	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	5
Kenya	2005	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	5
Lao PDR	2009	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	5
Mauritania	2001	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	5
Benin	2006	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	5
Niger	2002	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	5
Uganda	2010	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	5
Papua New Guinea	2009	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	4
São Tomé and Príncipe	2006	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	4
Sierra Leone	2006	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	4
Nepal	2009	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	4
Cambodia	2010	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	4
Moldova	2006	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	4

Country	Most recent ESP					JSRs				Score
	Year	Includes LO data in diagnosis	Proposal for LO monitoring	LO target set	LO indicator defined	JSR available	JSR communicated	JSR includes LO data	JSR Includes LO trend data	
Guinea	2002	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	4
Georgia	2007	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	3
Guyana	2002	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	3
Mongolia	2006	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	3
Haiti	2007	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	3
Malawi	2008	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	3
Burkina Faso	2002	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	3
Central African Republic	2008	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Djibouti	2006	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	2
Guinea-Bissau	2010	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Tajikistan	2005	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Yemen, Rep.	2003	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Kyrgyz Republic	2006	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	2
Afghanistan	2011	0	1	0	0	—	—	—	0	1
Albania	2005	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Côte d'Ivoire	2010	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Nicaragua	2002	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Vietnam	2003	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Bhutan	2008	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total, %		**43**	**91**	**50**	**57**	**65**	**57**	**39**	**13**	**n.a.**

Source: Reviews of all ESPs (GPE, "Education Sector Plan," various).

Note: The table should not be interpreted to suggest that countries showing better tracking act upon the results, have higher scores, or achieve improvements as a consequence. Tracking learning outcomes is only one of many possible factors affecting learner performance. The year refers to the year of the preparation of the ESP.

LO = learning outcome.

— = not available.

n.a. = not applicable.

Annex 4B. Learning Outcome Indicators and Targets in the Education Sector Plans

Country	Monitoring indicator in the ESP and the target	Easy fit with the GPE Results Framework
Benin	The share of children at the end of the primary-school cycle who have attained the required level of competence in mathematics, reading, and writing approaches 100 percent	Yes
Cambodia	Percentage of students meeting the learning standards in the Khmer language and in mathematics based on testing at grades 3 and 6	Yes
Djibouti	Success rate in evaluations of competence in mathematics, languages, and life skills	Yes
Ethiopia	Test scores in a sample assessment of learning achievement in grades 4 and 8	No
Gambia, The	Increase grade-level competence in core subjects from 10 to 15 percent; according to the annual national assessment test: increase grade-level competence (minimum) in core subjects from 46 to 60 percent and improve reading in the early grades so that 80 percent of children are reading at grade level	Yes
Georgia	PIRLS-TIMSS average scale score in reading achievement: an improvement (to be specified) on the 2006 score, grade 4 and 8 achievement, and the gender parity index	No
Ghana	Test scores at primary grades 1 to 6	No
Guyana	50 percent improvement in the number of pupils meeting the defined standards among cohorts entering primary education in 2003	No
Haiti	Evaluations of basic competence among pupils in grade 4 in reading, writing, and mathematics	No
Honduras	Increase the average academic achievement to 70 percent in mathematics and Spanish in grades 3 and 6	Yes
Kenya	Percentage of students displaying knowledge and skills stipulated in the curriculum; number of districts with mean scores of less than 250 reduced from 35 to 15 by 2010	No
Lao PDR	Define minimum standards of student achievement in grades 3, 5, and 9 and assure an understanding of minimum standards among teachers, parents, and other stakeholders	No
Lesotho	Average score in national achievement tests in grades 3 and 6; mathematics, English, and Sesotho improves by at least 15 percent by 2015; learning achievement in basic education improves to 50 percent in 2009 and 70 percent by 2015; performance in national achievement tests improves by 20 percent, on average, by 2009 and by another 40 percent by 2015 in grades 3 and 6; include a SACMEQ reference	Yes
Liberia	Proportion of students who, after two years of primary schooling, demonstrate sufficient reading fluency and comprehension to read to learn; proportion of students who are able to read with comprehension by the end of primary school according to national curriculum goals	Yes

Country	Monitoring indicator in the ESP and the target	Easy fit with the GPE Results Framework
Madagascar	Average score in Malagasy 60 points of 3010 and 75 points of 2075 in grades 2 and 5; average score in mathematics 60 points of 3010 and 75 points of 2075 in grades 2 and 5; average score in French 60 points of 3010 and 75 points of 2075 in grades 2 and 5	No
Mali	Share of successful pupils in various evaluations (French and mathematics, grades 2, 4, and 6)	No
Mauritania	The competence rate among pupils increases gradually from 33 to 45 percent in 2005 and to 70 percent in 2010	No
Moldova	Proportion of pupils who have achieved the established national standard at the end of grades 4 and 9	No
Mongolia	Percentage of successful graduates in basic education to reach 99.5 percent	No
Mozambique	Performance of students in Portuguese and mathematics on the standardized test improves by 10 percent in 2009	No
Nepal	Not available in the core report	No
Papua New Guinea	Share of all children graduating from grade 8 meeting the minimum standards of competence in the basic education curriculum; share of pupils who receive a satisfactory score according to the curriculum standards monitoring test	No
Rwanda	Share of pupils passing the senior 3 national examination	No
São Tomé and Príncipe	Competence of pupils in Portuguese, mathematics, and science in grade 3; carrying out tests in grade 4 will facilitate international comparisons	No
Senegal	Raise the competence in French and mathematics each by 5 points; the desired level of competence (73.5 percent) reached by 15 percent of pupils in reading, languages, mathematics, and sciences in 2007 and 20 percent in 2010; the minimum level of competence (50 percent) reached by 60 percent of pupils in reading, languages, mathematics, and science in 2007 and 70 percent in 2010; improvement in the success rate in the graduation certificate in elementary education (45.2 percent en 2004)	1
Sierra Leone	Improved reading habits and better understanding of the written word	No
Timor-Leste	EGRA in grade 3 to show over 80 percent of children with a high level of learning in 2030	1

Source: Reviews of all ESPs (GPE, "Education Sector Plan," various).

Annex 4C. Literature-Based Considerations for the Classification Framework Used in Chapter 4

Education production functions at the macro level

The existing literature on education production functions (Altinok 2010; Hanushek and Wössmann 2007) is based on models that try to explain the relationships between school attainment or achievement and economic growth, similar to the models used to identify the determinants of learning outcomes. The research generally does not take into account either learning-specific contextual information or governance indicators. (GPE is conducting new research on this issue.)

Many data sets do not cover fragile states or least developed economies. There are also problems of data comparability in research on learning outcomes, which are measured using different scales at different times. Until recently, even if economic indicators such as gross domestic product per capita could be taken as a time series, this was not possible with data on learning outcomes or school resources (Altinok 2010); so, it is difficult to isolate the impact of general development over time from the impact of school resources.

Most of the literature in this area finds that class size (or the pupil-teacher ratio), teacher salaries, formal certification in general pedagogical theory, and other such factors, which tend to be core indicators in the initial GPE framework and are still frequently the focus of the quality aspects in ESPs, have few if any effects on learning, at least in the range of effects in which it would be realistic to seek to make changes, taking into account the reality reflected in the underlying variables: changing class size from 60 to 35 does not allow for a different style of teaching, and, even if it did, smaller class size makes no difference to learning if teaching is based on memorization, even though it reduce the difficulties faced by teachers in the classroom (Altinok 2010). The GPE will encourage donor partners (for example, the International Institute for Educational Planning and the UIS) to help build national capacities to perform the relevant analyses. If such analyses are carried out based on microdata and if countries are also able to delve into the macro research, awareness of the relative lack of power of these policies on quality will gradually shift attention to the pedagogical and accountability issues that, until now, have not seemed to make a difference.

Micro and school factors

Based on the existing literature on pupils and school levels (micro), a framework can be produced to categorize the factors influencing specific learning outcomes and to identify areas of intervention (Gillies and Quijada 2008; Riddell 2008). The variables are generally split into two categories, as follows:

- Contextual or demographic variables that go beyond the scope of education interventions, such as the socioeconomic status of the pupil's family, the pupil's age, household living conditions, and rural or urban status, and so on.

- Policy variables in which the education system can intervene, such as teacher training, class size, the time on task, the availability of pedagogical materials, and so on.

Being able to link school, community, and student characteristics to student performance allows researchers and policy makers to identify the factors that are most closely associated with good or poor performance. The link can be either merely correlational or causal if the evidence for it is derived from rigorous evaluations. This information, in turn, allows policy makers to develop policies tailored to improve student performance.

Although the effect of specific factors varies from country to country, the type of recurring factors are fairly common. For instance, a meta-review of PASEC assessments in 14 Sub-Saharan countries (mostly in West Africa) has identified the following factors (Pasquier-Doumer and Guénard 2011):

- Factors generally associated with lower learning outcomes: repetition, the age of pupils, female gender, entrants who are over the grade-appropriate age, poverty, teacher absenteeism, overcrowded classrooms, child absenteeism, child work, and rural location

- Factors generally associated with higher learning outcomes: the use of the mother tongue of pupils as the language of instruction; textbooks that students can take home; pre- and in-service teacher training, especially in subject-matter pedagogy; the availability of teacher guidebooks; regular pupil homework; the literacy of parents; better nutrition; academic attainment among teachers; and regular school inspection (which may be a proxy for teacher supervision and coaching)

Recent SACMEQ data yield similar results for East and Southern Africa.[7] LLECE (2010) indicates there is consistency across the factors identified in studies carried out in 1997 and 2006 and (broadly) the factors identified in data on Africa, as follows:[8]

- The classroom environment, school furnishings, computers in the school (which could be a proxy for socioeconomic status), community involvement, the presence of teacher associations, and early childhood schooling have positive effects

- Poverty, repetition, ethnic minority status, gender, and child work have negative effects

There is thus a significant amount of research that confirms the existence of similar factors in learning outcomes across countries. For example, simple interventions in reading that are supported by rigorous evaluations, including randomized evaluations, can improve the situation. Pflepsen (2011) mentions factors such as the following:

- 20–30 minutes of extra instruction per day

- The inclusion of phonics instruction and a focus on the big 5 reading skills (phonological awareness, phonics or the alphabetical principle, vocabulary or word knowledge, fluency, and comprehension)

- Enhancement of the quality of teaching practices by providing teachers with training on specific teaching techniques, the use of direct or explicit lesson plans, and the provision of teacher training aids

However, such research is not sufficiently applied in the ESP drafting process. For example, among the thousands of expert papers on education quality, only one is quoted in an ESP (Papua New Guinea).

Annex 4D. Analysis of Joint Sector Reviews

Albania, Bhutan, Nicaragua, and Vietnam have submitted no JSR. Côte d'Ivoire drafted an ESP in 2010, but, because of internal conflict, has not submitted a JSR. Highlights of other JSPs are presented below.

Benin

The 2010 JSR signals the lack of significant progress. It points out that data and targets on learning outcomes are not taken into account and recommends that indicators of quality and data collection methods be identified and defined.

Cameroon

While the 2009 JSR does not address learning outcomes, the 2010 JSR recommends the establishment of an assessment data system, including international data, and the 2011 JSR recommends a strategy focusing on learning outcomes.

[7] "SACMEQ Posters," Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality(accessed December 14, 2011), http://www.sacmeq.org/PostersSACMEQIII.htm.

[8] For more substantive studies on ways to improve learning in Latin America, see Vegas and Petrow (2010).

Ethiopia

The 2006 JSR includes classroom observations. "National Learning Assessment (NLA) conducted in G.C. 2004 (for Grade 4 and Grade 8) highlights the prime importance of factors that are not related to the curricular system." The report criticizes the fact that data on learning outcomes are not being used, though the data are supported by indicators and targets. The 2004 national assessment is not covered in the report, and donors have requested that it be highlighted.

Ghana

Better test scores in grades 1 to 6 were learning outcome targets of the 2004 ESP, which was drafted before Ghana began conducting biennial national assessment surveys, in 2005, 2007, 2009, and 2011, on large samples. The 2010 JSR includes indicators on the development, availability, and use of textbooks; absenteeism in public elementary schools; teaching methods; and teacher motivation and morale. Data on examination pass rates are used to monitor learning outcomes. The 2009 report contains trend data from the national education assessment, but no targets. The 2007 JSR proposes a plan to use the national education assessment test as a regular assessment tool.

Guinea

The 2005 JSR includes precise indicators and targets in learning and is more well documented than the ESP on this issue, but the 2006 and 2007 JSRs do not mention learning outcomes despite the large quantity of available data (PASEC and pupil and teacher assessments). The 2011 JSR highlights the need for pupil assessment data and includes plans for ongoing teacher assessments. However, despite a reasonable initial target ("50 percent of grade 4 pupils can read French at an acceptable international standard"), the relevant indicator has not been monitored through the JSR because of an internal crisis.

Lesotho

The 2007 JSR report acknowledges that examination data are not reliable. It contains detailed data from the national assessment and references SACMEQ data and trends for 2002–06.

Liberia

The 2010 JSR contains data on examination pass rates and information on the operational standards of child-friendly schools. The 2009 JSR includes EGRA data.

Madagascar

The 2006 report covers PASEC trend data.

Nepal

The education sector plans to develop a national assessment.

Annex 4E. International Assessments

The IEA studies: PIRLS and TIMSS

Founded over 50 years ago, the IEA is the oldest international institution working on education assessment. In recent decades, the IEA has been expanding its work from Europe and the United States to less developed economies.

Established by the IEA, TIMSS provides data on the achievements of pupils in grades 4 and 8 in mathematics and science. It emphasizes survey items that offer insight into the analytical, problem-solving, and inquiry skills and capabilities of pupils. It is designed to reflect broadly the mathematics and science curricula of participating countries. PIRLS is a similar IEA educational assessment that focuses on the reading literacy achievement of pupils in grades 4 and 8. These studies are supervised at the TIMSS and PIRLS International Study

Center, at Boston College in Chestnut Hill, Massachusetts. The management consortium also includes the IEA Secretariat (Amsterdam), the IEA Data Processing and Research Center (Hamburg), the National Foundation for Educational Research (United Kingdom), Statistics Canada, and the Educational Testing Service (Princeton, New Jersey). It was possible to administer the 2011 rounds of TIMSS and PIRLS to grades 4 to 6 according to the same timeline. The results are expected in December 2012.[9]

IEA has also supported other studies, such as the International Computer and Information Literacy Study (initiated in 2010), the International Civic and Citizenship Education Study (2009), and the Teacher Education and Development Study in Mathematics, which has involved a pre-PIRLS program designed for developing countries that relies on a simplified PIRLS using texts more aligned with developing-country curricula.

SACMEQ

Created in 1990, SACMEQ assesses learning outcomes among pupils in grade 6 through a test of achievement in reading literacy and numeracy. SACMEQ also seeks to develop institutional capacity through joint training and cooperative education policy research on schooling and the quality of education and to monitor changes in achievement. SACMEQ has likewise developed a life skills test on knowledge about HIV/AIDS. The test is sponsored in part by the Netherlands. The methodology is based on IEA studies. The data should be delivered more rapidly; the 2007 data were released only in 2010. The future of SACMEQ needs to be secured. Donors and countries should provide support and develop a stable institutional hosting arrangement.[10]

PASEC

Established in 1991, PASEC assesses students in grades 2 and 5. Tests are conducted in mathematics, French, and national languages on the basis of elements that were common in curricula in francophone countries in Africa in the mid-1990s. It is the only assessment program that relies on a pre- and post-test methodology. France supplies the major financial support. Donors appear not to be sufficiently supportive of this important program. It is not clear that there should be only one donor. Since 2009, PASEC has extended its assessment to Lebanon and Asia (Cambodia, Lao PDR, and Vietnam) and is planning important changes in its testing methodology.[11]

LLECE

LLECE is a network of quality assessment systems for education in Latin America. It is coordinated by UNESCO's Regional Bureau for Education in Latin America and the Caribbean, in Santiago, Chile. The first assessment was called simply LLECE. The two subsequent assessments are the SERCE and TERCE assessments. TERCE is currently in the planning stage. The main aim of the process has been to provide information on student achievements and associated factors that would be useful in the formulation of education policies to improve schools. Pupils in grades 3 and 4 were assessed during the first assessment, LLECE 1998. LLECE assessments in grades 3 and 6 were also carried out in 2006. An interesting feature of the LLECE approach is the coverage of the results for the purpose of policy dialogue by the Partnership for Educational Revitalization in the Americas, which provides support in the distribution of the results and in policy discussions.[12]

[9] For additional information, see Mullis et al. (2007) and the IEA website, at http://www.iea.nl.

[10] For additional information, visit the SACMEQ website, at www.sacmeq.org.

[11] For additional information, visit the PASEC website, at http://www.confemen.org/spip.php?rubrique3.

[12] For additional information on the Partnership for Educational Revitalization in the Americas, visit http://www.preal.org/. For more on LLECE, see http://portal.unesco.org/geography/en/ev.php-URL_ID=7919&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html.

Early grade tools: ASER, EGMA, EGRA, Uwezo, and others

The following assessments are different from the ones described above in that they do not attempt to provide a solid basis for international comparisons. However, they are applied in more than one country; they have become relatively common; and the more formal of the applications across countries share key features.

Initiated in the mid-2000s, EGRA is an oral assessment designed to measure the most basic foundation skills for literacy acquisition in the early grades: recognizing letters of the alphabet, reading simple words, fluency in and understanding of sentences and paragraphs, and listening with comprehension. RTI International, in an effort sponsored by USAID, developed the first EGRA and put it in the public domain. Because the tool is in the public domain, many institutions have relied on the basic approach, with modifications, while using the EGRA acronym. Most EGRAs are sponsored by USAID, the World Bank, and major international NGOs. There should be more explicit coordination between the various types of EGRAs and other early grade oral assessments such as ASER and those of Save the Children. The GPE has proposed this coordination through the Global and Regional Activities Program, possibly through the sponsorship of the UIS.[13]

EGMA is being applied to measure the extent to which schoolchildren in early primary grades in developing countries are acquiring skills in mathematics. Assessments such as ASER also cover early grade mathematics problems. In addition, UNESCO has launched a pilot version of an early grade writing assessment using scientific input from the University of Las Canarias, Spain, under the leadership of Juan Jimenez.

Unlike assessments such as TIMSS or SACMEQ, early grade skill assessments do not aim to provide internationally comparable data on average levels of proficiency. Indeed, sample sizes have sometimes been relatively small, given that EGRAs, for example, have most often been applied as baseline data for program evaluations and have not typically been aimed at providing a national picture of learning levels. Abadzi (2011) suggests one should include assessments of fewer tasks in EGRAs and aim for more comparability across languages and countries. Moreover, as in the case of Haiti or Mali, individual countries may sometimes be the focus of many EGRA projects, which is inefficient. EGRAs are also not as easily implemented as other assessments, such as ASER or Uwezo. There has been relatively little financing available for postsurvey capacity building in data analysis. The reporting process can require up to a year, though the time frame is often less. Most EGRA data sets are not well documented, nor are the definitions of variables standardized. The data sets are thus often not useful for secondary analysis by researchers. Budgets need to be expanded for standardization and documentation. Donors should likewise insist on more data standardization and more sharing of tools and results.[14]

The NGO Pratham pioneered ASER (an oral assessment applied individually to children) in India in the decade of the 2000s, and a version of the assessment is now being applied in Africa. ASER is used to assess reading levels by asking pupils to read a simple paragraph or, at least, individual words or letters of the alphabet. If pupils are able to read the screening paragraph, they are asked to read a more complex one. The assessment and the scoring require relatively few special skills and little training, and results can be scored almost immediately, which helps create policy awareness, including at the village level. The approach facilitates the grouping of pupils by level of proficiency so that teachers may focus on particular reading deficiencies no matter the age or grade of the pupils.[15]

[13] For additional information on the EGRAs, visit https://www.eddataglobal.org/reading/index.cfm.

[14] For more on EGMAs, visit https://www.eddataglobal.org/math/index.cfm.For additional information on related issues, see USAID (2009).

[15] For additional information on the ASERs, visit http://www.asercentre.org/.

That both the ASER and the EGRA were developed around the middle of the decade 2001–10 highlights that various NGOs and research organizations had become concerned and were willing to focus on quality in education and learning outcomes. There was also an implicit perception that existing assessments were not being used in the most effective way. Thus, for example, assessments were being used to improve quality and learning outcomes not in the early grades of the primary cycle, where the problems arise, but in the later grades, where it is more difficult to address fundamental problems in reading and mathematics. There were models for the new approach in projects such as Breakthrough to Literacy in Zambia, which shares features with both the ASER and the EGRA. Various NGOs have initiated reading improvement programs that also involve assessments. For instance, Save the Children's Literacy Boost Program uses oral assessments, including prereading skills, to track improvements in early grade reading.[16]

While the ASERs, EGRAs, and other, similar assessments have been helpful in emphasizing the importance of early proficiency in reading and mathematics and the quality of learning outcomes, they should be accompanied by comprehensive assessments at the end of the primary-school cycle. Oral assessments of early grade skills should also be used to assist countries in setting targets in learning, remedial teaching, and capacity building. They are useful in drawing the attention of policy makers to issues related to the quality of education, such as in the case of the ASERs and Uwezo, especially because they include measures that may be readily understood by nonspecialists (for example, the share of pupils unable to read words).

The READ program, the OLO, and related metadata efforts

None of the assessments mentioned above can be entirely effective unless there is progress in two other areas: (a) capacity building in creating and conducting national assessments that have greater local scope than regional and international assessments (for example, a focus on additional grades and subjects) and (b) the use of assessments not only at the broad policy level, but also in providing instructional support to teachers. There should be more meta-assessments aimed at accomplishing these two tasks.

The problem of the lack of the application of data has been documented in PASEC evaluations. The World Bank has initiated a program, the Russia Education Aid for Development Program (READ), that does not aim to collect learning outcomes data, but to foster national capacities and the use of assessment data to identify appropriate education policies.[17] Similarly the SABER effort on assessments, at the World Bank, fosters systems' capacities to evaluate their learning assessments on a comparative basis.

Hosted at the UIS, the Observatory of Learning Outcomes (OLO) is not designed to perform assessments or provide technical assistance, but to collect data on indicators and metadata on national assessments and to serve as a data repository. The OLO has already launched a pilot data-collection survey.[18]

The World Bank's EdStats database provides compilations of the data gathered through major assessments.[19]

The scope of the work of the OLO is coordinated through the OLO Advisory Board, which includes READ and SABER actors. Other coordination efforts need to be enhanced,

[16] For additional information, see http://www.globalpartnership.org/media/Literacy%20Event%202011/Amy_Jo_Dowd_Save_the_Children_Sep_8.pdf.

[17] See READ et al. (2011) and "READ (Russia Education Aid for Development Program)," World Bank, Washington, DC, http://go.worldbank.org/4E13GOEBP0.

[18] See UIS (2011) and "Observatory of Learning Outcomes," UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Paris,http://www.uis.unesco.org/Education/Pages/observatory-of-learning-outcomes.aspx.

[19] See USAID (2009) and EdStats Education Statistics (database), World Bank, Washington, DC, http://go.worldbank.org/ITABCOGIV1.

and global organizations such as the GPE, the UIS, and UNESCO could help in this area. For instance, whereas most EGRAs are conducted in anglophone countries (the focus of USAID), PASEC, which has been examining oral and early grade skills, focuses on francophone Africa (a focus of the Agence Française de Développement). More exchanges on methodologies and lessons learned through global bodies such as the UIS would be a welcome development, especially in areas where actions have been specific to countries, such as early grade oral skills. These areas would benefit from greater standardization and the emergence of good practices that are shared among countries and providers.

Other programs

Three other global initiatives focused on learning outcomes should be mentioned: the UIS's Literacy Assessment and Monitoring Program, the OECD's Program for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies, and OECD's PISA. These programs do not target primary education; so, they are not examined in this chapter. However, the practical experience derived through these assessments is useful and can be, with care, applied in primary schools. In particular, if an institution such as the UIS were to serve as a repository of relevant data or set standards and identify best practice in some of these areas, these programs would represent a useful foundation.

Public versus private programs

Unlike other assessment programs, which are typically managed by public organizations or nonprofit institutions, most EGRAs and ASERs are performed by NGOs and consultants funded by donor organizations or by private institutions or NGOs, such as Pratham, RTI International, Save the Children, or Uwezo. These latter tend to be private or bilateral initiatives funded by public spending, mainly USAID, but also NGOS or philanthropic funds such as Pratham or the Hewlett Foundation. While PASEC, PISA, and SACMEQ, among others, are carried out through education ministry governing boards or technical committees, the assessments conducted by private actors or NGOs do not always have a clear link with ministries.

The participation of the private sector in education assessment—largely in analysis and testing, such as the Educational Testing Service in IEA or the ACER in PISA, rather than as financial donors or users—is not new in middle-income countries. However, major assessment entities have been reluctant to engage directly in testing in low-income countries, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa. Low-income countries are only recently beginning to benefit from this private sector expertise, although assessments are usually still being managed solely by ministries of education and multilateral agencies such as the Conference of Education Ministers of Countries Using French as a Common Language (CONFEMEN), the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP), and UNESCO. Private consultants did not become involved in PASEC until 16 years after the first PASEC assessment. Previously, PASEC, like SACMEQ, depended exclusively on a network of civil servants and international experts funded by governments. In contrast, the IEA has been relying on private institutions, as well as national-level public institutions, for decades. There seems to be no particular set of advantages in relying on purely private or purely public models; there seems to be a role for useful mixes of private and public, as well as NGOs, consulting firms, and think-tanks.

Because some instruments, such as the EGRAs, are totally in the public domain, because the methodologies (though not always the resulting data sets) are well documented, and because no protocol or membership procedures are required, the related tools can be used widely to help fill many data gaps, as used by nimble NGOs. The downside is that since these tools are mostly used by NGOs or donor projects, and are used by them to advocate to governments, governments are not as inclined as they could be to themselves use the same tools for the regular monitoring of learning outcomes. These issues could be partly addressed if the UIS, for example, were to foster NGO communities of practice that encourage the emergence of professional standards, and if the funders and providers of NGO-originated tools put more emphasis on the relationships with local assessment systems.

Annex 4F. Participation in a National or International Assessment, by GPE Status

Country	Fragile state	GPE partner	TIMSS	PASEC	SACMEQ	LLECE	PIRLS	EGRA	EGMA	International assessments, number	National	Total types of assess
Non-GPE												
Burundi	Yes	No	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	2	1	3
Indonesia	No	No	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	1	3
Nigeria	Yes	No	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	2	1	3
Bangladesh	Yes	No	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	2
India	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	2
Tanzania	No	No	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	2	0	2
Tonga	Yes	No	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	2
Vanuatu	Yes	No	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	2
Congo, Dem. Rep.	Yes	No	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	2
Angola	Yes	No	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1
Chad	Yes	No	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Comoros	Yes	No	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Congo, Rep.	Yes	No	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Kiribati	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Myanmar	Yes	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Pakistan	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Zimbabwe	Yes	No	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Cape Verde	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Eritrea	Yes	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Solomon Islands	Yes	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Somalia	Yes	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Sri Lanka	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Sudan	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
South Sudan, Rep.	Yes	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Uzbekistan	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total, non-GPE, %	**64.0**		**4.0**	**20.0**	**8.0**	**0**	**8.0**	**32.0**	**4.0**	**76.0[a]**	**40.0**	

Country	Fragile state	GPE partner	TIMSS	PASEC	SACMEQ	LLECE	PIRLS	EGRA	EGMA	International assessments, number	National	Total types of assess
GPE												
Albania	No	Yes (2006)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Benin	No	Yes (2007)	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Bhutan	No	Yes (2009)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Burkina Faso	No	Yes (2002)	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Cambodia	Yes	Yes (2006)	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Cameroon	No	Yes (2006)	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Central African Republic	Yes	Yes (2008)	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Côte d'Ivoire	Yes	Yes (2010)	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Djibouti	Yes	Yes (2006)	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Ethiopia	No	Yes (2004)	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	2
Gambia, The	Yes	Yes (2003)	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	2
Georgia	No	Yes (2007)	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	1	3
Ghana	No	Yes (2004)	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	1	3
Guinea	Yes	Yes (2002)	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Guinea-Bissau	Yes	Yes (2011)	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Guyana	No	Yes (2002)	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	2
Haiti	Yes	Yes (2008)	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1
Honduras	No	Yes (2002)	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	4	1	5
Kenya	No	Yes (2005)	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	2	1	3

Country	Fragile state	GPE partner	TIMSS	PASEC	SACMEQ	LLECE	PIRLS	EGRA	EGMA	International assessments, number	National	Total types of assess
Kyrgyz Republic	No	Yes (2006)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Lao PDR	Yes	Yes (2008)	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Lesotho	No	Yes (2005)	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Liberia	No	Yes (2007)	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2	0	2
Madagascar	No	Yes (2005)	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	2	1	3
Malawi	No	Yes (2009)	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	3	1	4
Mali	No	Yes (2006)	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	3	1	4
Mauritania	Yes	Yes (2002)	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Moldova	No	Yes (2005)	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1
Mongolia	No	Yes (2006)	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	2
Mozambique	No	Yes (2003)	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	2	0	2
Nepal	No	Yes (2009)	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1
Nicaragua	No	Yes (2002)	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	2	1	3
Niger	No	Yes (2002)	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Papua New Guinea	Yes	Yes (2010)	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1
Rwanda	No	Yes (2006)	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2	1	3
São Tomé and Príncipe	Yes	Yes (2007)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Senegal	No	Yes (2006)	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	2	1	3
Sierra Leone	Yes	Yes (2007)	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1

Country	Fragile state	GPE partner	TIMSS	PASEC	SACMEQ	LLECE	PIRLS	EGRA	EGMA	International assessments, number	National	Total types of assess
Tajikistan	No	Yes (2005)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Timor-Leste	No	Yes (2005)	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1
Togo	Yes	Yes (2010)	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Uganda	No	Yes (2011)	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	2	1	3
Vietnam	No	Yes (2003)	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	2	1	3
Yemen, Rep.	No	Yes (2003)	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	2
Zambia	No	Yes (2008)	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	3	1	4
Total, GPE, %	**32.6**		**8.7**	**37.0**	**13.0**	**4.3**	**8.7**	**50.0**	**10.9**	**>100.0[a]**	**60.9**	

Source: GPE compilation based on each assessment.

a. The share can be greater than 100 percent because of participation in several assessments. If this participation is not taken into account, the shares for GPE and non-GPE countries are 84 and 56 percent, respectively.

Annex 4G. EGRA or EGRA-Like Studies in Mali, February 2012

Language	Purpose	Approach	Funding	Implementing agency	Scope (sample size)	Month	Year
Bamanakan	Undertake local adaptations based on a French-language version of EGRA; develop teaching methods for literacy acquisition in French and mother tongues	Program evaluation	PLAN International	Institut pour l'Education Populaire	Apply EGRA as a baseline in treatment and control schools and develop and test teaching methods		2007
Bamankan, Bomu, Fulfulde, Songhoy	Baseline for tracking the progress of future Hewlett Foundation learning improvement efforts; assessment of the language of instruction through classroom observations	National- or system-level diagnosis	William and Flora Hewlett Foundation	RTI International	In each language, 20 grade 2 students in 25 schools	April	2009

Language	Purpose	Approach	Funding	Implementing agency	Scope (sample size)	Month	Year
French, Arabic	Adapt instruction and evaluation through the PHARE Interactive Radio Instruction Program	National- or system-level diagnosis	USAID, Mali	RTI International–PHARE	French, grades 2, 4, and 6; Arabic, grades 2 and 4	April	2009
French	Adapt instruction and evaluation through the PHARE Interactive Radio Instruction Program	Program evaluation	USAID, Mali	RTI International–PHARE	French, grades 2, 3, and 4[a]	April	2011, 2013
French	Capacity development of district officials	National- or system-level diagnosis	USAID, Mali	RTI International–PHARE	French, grades 2 and 4 in 32 schools in each of 2 districts	April	2010
French, Shenara, Bamanakan	Baseline for sponsor reporting	Classroom-based assessment	Save the Children	Save the Children	Grade 3, 60 schools	April	2010
French; Bamanankan; Shenara[b]	Baseline for (a) tracking the progress of Save the Children's Literacy Boost pilot project in Sikasso District; and (b) evaluating outcomes for sponsor-funded planning in Sikasso and Yorosso; adapt Literacy Boost interventions in schools and communities	Program evaluation	Save the Children	Save the Children	Approximately 1,200 grade 3 children in 60 schools	April	2010
Bamankan, Bomu, Fulfulde, Songhoy	Impact evaluation of the Institut pour l'Education Populaire's national-language instruction program	Program evaluation	William and Flora Hewlett Foundation	RTI International	Application in 4 Malian languages in grades 1, 2, and 3 (50 program schools and 50 control schools); end of year: 1 application (same languages, 40 program and control schools)	April, May	2009, 2010, 2012

Source: GPE compilation based on EGRA tracking data.

Note: PHARE = Mali-USAID Programme Harmonisé d'Appui au Renforcement de l'Education (Road to Reading Program).

a. The grades tested vary by school type.

b. The tool was adapted in the native language by officials of the Centre d'Animation Pedagogique and staff of Save the Children.

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Afghanistan

Area	Indicator	Values				Targets					
		2008	2009	2010	2011	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%)	39									
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)							85	89	92	95
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)			73.9				82.4	87.0	90.0	92.7
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR			0.88				0.73	0.77	0.82	0.86
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER)			32				26	24	21	17
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR			68				74	76	79	83
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR			0.68				0.62	0.65	0.69	0.75
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education							79	81	84	87
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)			37.2				83.2	84.7	86.2	87.6
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary							1,089,400	1,183,900	1,282,500	1,364,700
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students			5,112,728	5,561,436	(a)	(a)	5,874,430	6,229,637	6,623,480	7,020,710
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers			110,886	115,336	(a)	(a)	103,818	123,700	128,632	133,615
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers							4,983	19,882	4,932	4,983
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms			31,607				78,000	85,800	91,200	96,900
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms			4,744				13,618	14,799	16,031	17,059
	Ind. 3.7 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary			376,649 (b)				586,461	625,991	682,855	752,312
	Ind. 3.8 – Lower Secondary Students			575,028				1,880,586	1,945,501	2,010,106	2,098,183
	Ind. 3.9 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers			46,199				47,104	49,095	51,100	53,138
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary New Teachers							1,978	1,991	2,005	2,038
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms			50,079				40,077	42,687	45,351	49,041
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms			3,414				7,331	7,825	8,536	9,404
	Ind. 3.13 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)			1							
	Ind. 3.14 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)			1							
	Ind. 3.15 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance										
Domestic Financing	*Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending*		*15*	*17*			*15*	*16*			
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education (e)			*72*			*70*	*69*			
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending				*16.6 (c)*						
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education (e)				*14.63 (d)*						

External Aid to Education (USD million)*

Indicator	Values	Targets			
	2010	2010	2011	2012	2013
Ind. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education	219.91	286.56	224.22	227.26	56.10
CIDA	*15.00*	*15.00*	*34.00*	*37.00*	*37.00*
DANIDA	*20.00*	*20.00*	*20.00*	*20.00*	
France	*2.41*	*2.41*	*2.57*	*2.16*	
Germany	*27.65*	*72.41*	*64.51*	*64.51*	
India					
Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Gov. Of Japan	*17.00 (f)*	*17.00*	*15.00*	*32.50*	
JICA	*4.45 (f)*	*4.00*	*5.66*	*N/A*	*0.95*
Netherlands	*5.24*	*4.00*	*7.00*	*7.00*	*7.00*
New Zealand	*0.45 (f)*	*0.41*	*0.80*	*0.75*	*0.75*
SIDA	*17.71*	*41.33*	*24.18*	*23.27*	*10.33*
UNESCO (g)			*0.50*	*0.07*	*0.07*
USAID					
World Bank (ARTF+IDA)	*110 (f)*	*110.00*	*50.00*	*40.00*	
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education	148.01	168.10	184.34	147.94	29.98
CIDA			*34.00*	*28.00*	*29.00*
DANIDA	*20.00*	*20.00*	*20.00*	*20.00*	
France	*1.44*	*1.44*	*1.33*	*1.33*	
Germany	*25.02*	*26.33*	*33.57*	*33.57*	
India					
Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Gov. Of Japan	*17.00*	*17.00*	*15.00*	*25.00*	
JICA	*4.45*		*6.66*		*0.95*
Netherlands	*2.00*	*2.00*			
New Zealand	*0.39 (f)*				
SIDA	*17.71*	*41.33*	*23.55*		
UNESCO (g)			*0.23*	*0.04*	*0.03*
USAID					
World Bank (ARTF+IDA)	*60.00 (f)*	*60.00*	*50.00*	*40.00*	

***** This information was reported by the Local Education Group in USD in 2011.

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	Pilot is planned for 2011/2012 in lower secondary (grade 9)
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	No
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	No
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	In all grades (4-12) for language classes (Dari, Pashtu) students have written exam and oral reading fluency tests

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	DANIDA
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	CIDA, AFD, World Bank, Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, UNESCO, UNICEF, USAID, JICA, UNAMA, India, AUSAID, GIZ, DFID, SDC, NZAID, PACE-A, Swedish Committee for Afghanistan, UN-Women
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	Afghanistan Chamber of Commerce, Save the Children
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	
Ind. 6.5 – Date of next JSR	1-Jun.-12

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	2011-2013
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	2011
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	N/A
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	N/A
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	2011
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	55.7
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	2012-2015
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	In process
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	In process
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	UNICEF
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	Budget Support
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	N/A

Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation – Annual disbursements (USD million)		
2012	**2013**	**2014**
9.00	22.53	24.21

Aid Effectiveness Indicators

Indicator	Results 2010	Information for GPE's 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector (h)
Ind. 9.1 - Aid Alignment (%)	–	Due to differences in reporting (the Ministry of Education reporting figures for basic education only, and development partners mostly reporting figures for total education), comparative analysis of alignment of disbursed aid to government activities in 2010 was not possible. However, responses from participating development partners as to how much of their funding in 2010 was aligned to national priorities was quite high, at 76%. The Paris Declaration Evaluation of 2011 found the education budget to be 'donor directed'. However, on-budget aid is increasing.
Ind. 9.2 - Coordinated Technical Cooperation (%)	76%	In 2010, 76% of aid flows for technical cooperation was implemented through coordinated programs that were in line with national and sector development strategies. This ratio exceeds the median value of GPE countries that participated in this exercise and the Paris Declaration target (50%). MoE has started a process to develop a comprehensive capacity building plan.
Ind. 9.3a / 9.3b - Use of Public Financial Management / Procurement Country Systems (%)	28% / 56%	Development partners indicated a low level of confidence in Afghanistan's country systems. Only 28% of all aid disbursed to the government sector used national public financial management systems. The procurement system was used for a larger share of education aid (56%).
Ind. 9.4 - Number of Parallel Implementation Units	4	Four parallel implementation units were reported by participating development partners as in place in the education sector in 2010, double the median for this exercise. However 28 units were reported for all sectors, a high number that demonstrates capacity and implementation issues across public service delivery.
Ind. 9.5 - Aid Provided through Program Based Approaches (%)	39%	39% of education aid in 2010 was disbursed through program-based approaches, most of it through the Afghanistan Reconstruction Trust Fund, a multi-donor partner fund set up in 2002. Through this, 31 development partners support government recurrent expenditure.

Notes:

Except for the Global Partnership funding information, data provided in these results forms were collected from national and other publicly available sources, and validated by the Local Education Group (LEG) in each country. LEGs are typically led by the Ministry of Education and include development partners and other education stakeholders. Data were not processed or analyzed by the Global Partnership for Education. It is reported as it was presented in the original sources, or as it was communicated to us through the Coordinating Agency or Lead Donor of the LEG.

The data derived from national sources may differ from international sources because of divergences in definitions, methods of calculation, or in some cases due to different underlying data. For these reasons, the data based on national sources in these Results Forms should not be used for making comparisons between countries, but rather for assessing the progress of individual countries.

(a) Data dropped because it included all education levels (and not only the primary level)

(b) Number of students in grade 7- number of repeaters in grade 7

(c) Total Education Sector budget over total national budget

(d) Total Ministry of Education Budget over Total National Budget

(e) Age of population in basic education is from 1 to 15 years old

(f) Indicated for 2009/2010 Fiscal year

(g) Excluding funds from other donors

(h) Information on this exercise, including the specific country profile with details on these results, can be found in this site: *http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2*. Results were compared with the median of all countries participating in this exercise for the education sector, with the results for all sectors in the country as presented in the 2011 OECD Survey on Monitoring the Paris Declaration, and with aid effectiveness targets for all sectors established by countries themselves to be achieved by 2010.

Sources of information:

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Albania

Area	Indicator	Values				Targets					
		2008	2009	2010	2011	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%)	98.8									
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)										
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)										
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR										
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER)										
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR		92.1	93.9	To be determined						
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR		1.0	1.0	To be determined						
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education		100.2	100.5	100.5						
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)		86.6	92.6	To be determined						
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary		42,043	39,360	38,425						
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students		224,781	215,660	206,617						
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers		11,409	10,854	10,605						
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers										
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms		8,897	8,513	7,882						
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms										
	Ind. 3.7 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary (a)		50,169	47,165	46,961						
	Ind. 3.8 – Lower Secondary Students		215,214	205,024	19,787						
	Ind. 3.9 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers		15,832	15,119	14,979						
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary New Teachers										
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms		8,536	8,039	7,764						
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms (b)		740	1,162	526				452	345	460
	Ind. 3.13 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)		1	1	1						
	Ind. 3.14 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)		1	1	1						
	Ind. 3.15 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance										
Domestic Financing	Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending		3.4	3.5	3.2		3.5	3.3	3.2	3.1	3.1
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education (c)		2.2	2.1	1.9		2.4	2.4	2.0	1.9	1.8
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending		2.8	3.2	2.8		3.3	2.9	3.0	2.8	2.8
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education (c)		2.0	1.9	1.8		1.9	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.7

External Aid to Education (in USD million)*

Indicator	Values			Targets		
	2010	2011	2012	2010	2011	2012
Ind. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education	5.7	8.2	12.7	6	16.5	15.3
BEI	*3.7*	*4.2*	*2.8*	*2*	*6.6*	*5.1*
CEIB	*0*	*1.4*	*6.4*	*2.2*	*4.1*	*5.7*
World Bank	*2*	*2.6*	*3.5*	*1.8*	*5.8*	*4.5*
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education	3	7.1	9.7	4.8	9.4	10.4
BEI	*1.6*	*3.1*	*2.8*	*1.6*	*3.1*	*3.5*
CEIB	*0*	*1.4*	*3.9*	*1.8*	*3.5*	*3.9*
World Bank	*1.4*	*2.6*	*3*	*1.4*	*2.8*	*3*

***** This information was reported by the Local Education Group in USD in 2011.

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	Lower Secondary - grade 9
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	PISA 2000, 2009 and 2012
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	2009, 2010, 2011
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	

Test	Grade	Year	Subject	Mean
National Assessment	Grade 9	2009	Language	32 (d)
National Assessment	Grade 9	2009	Math	20 (d)
National Assessment	Grade 9	2010	Language	29 (d)
National Assessment	Grade 9	2010	Math	23 (d)
National Assessment	Grade 9	2011	Language	30 (d)
National Assessment	Grade 9	2011	Math	24 (d)
PISA	Grade 9 and 10	2000	Reading	349
PISA	Grade 9 and 10	2000	Math	381
PISA	Grade 9 and 10	2000	Science	374
PISA	Grade 9 and 10	2009	Reading	385
PISA	Grade 9 and 10	2009	Math	377

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	UNICEF
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	UNICEF, World Bank, Swiss Cooperation, European Union, etc.
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	Save the Children, Open Society Foundations
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	Jun.-12
Ind. 6.5 – Date of next JSR	Fall-13

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	2006
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	N/A
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	
Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation - Annual disbursements (USD million)	

Notes:

Except for the Global Partnership funding information, data provided in these Results forms were collected from national and other publicly available sources, and validated by the Local Education Group (LEG) in each country. LEGs are typically led by the Ministry of Education and include development partners and other education stakeholders. Data were not processed or analyzed by the Global Partnership for Education. It is reported as it was presented in the original sources, or as it was communicated to us through the Coordinating Agency or Lead Donor of the LEG.

The data derived from national sources may differ from international sources because of divergences in definitions, methods of calculation, or in some cases due to different underlying data. For these reasons, the data based on national sources in these Results Forms should not be used for making comparisons between countries, but rather for assessing the progress of individual countries.

(a) It excludes private schools

(b) It refers to enrollment to Form 1

(c) The age for the population in basic education is from 6 to 16 years old.

(d) Scale goes up to 50

Sources of information:

Local Education Group (2012). Information on Aid to Education Sector by Development Partner. Tirana, Albania.

Ministry of Education (2012). Education Sector Data. Tirana, Albania.

UIS (2010). Youth Literacy Rates (15-24 years old). UIS: Montreal, Canada.

Burkina Faso

Area	Indicator	Values						Targets					
		2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%)	39.3											
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)		2.7	2.6	2.7	3.0		4.3	4.7	6.4	8.1	9.8	11.5
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)		86.9	78.0	85.8	85.7	88.3		89.6	93.4	97.3	101.1	105.0
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR		0.91	0.94	0.96	0.97	0.98	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER)												
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR		38.9	41.7	45.9	52.1	55.1	51.3	55.2	59.2	63.6	67.9	75.1
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR		0.76	0.83	0.86	0.89	0.95	1	1	1	1	1	1
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education		53.1	49.6	54.2	52.7	51.4	62.8	68.9	75.0	81.0	87.1	93.2
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)		14.4	15.8	17.1	17.5	20.3	17.5	28.9	40.9	51.7	63.1	74.5
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary		388,889	377,667	430,428	444,519	470,288		454,602	502,829	543,406	598,024	634,829
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students (millions)		1.742	1.906	2.047	2.205	2.344	2.320	2.344	2.537	2.743	2.968	3.196
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers		31,520	34,837	37,814	40,639	43,330		35,308	38,668	42,235	46,175	51,375
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers			3,000	3,090	4,832	3,104	3,719	4,771	5,822	5,443	4,445	5,940
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms		31,809	35,129	38,269	40,912	43,661	38,722	35,568	38,668	42,235	46,175	51,375
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms		2,884	3,320	3,140	2,643	2,749	2,422		3,100	3,567	3,940	5,200
	Ind. 3.7 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary		93,117	95,182	123,737	133,706	144,123	133,706	166,757	204,959	248,639	297,885	352,666
	Ind. 3.8 – Lower Secondary Students		344,123	375,406	439,501	498,538	517,084	456,743	577,313	661,947	752,496	849,014	951,123
	Ind. 3.9 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers		5,888	7,221	8,309	9,580	11,958						
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary New Teachers		721	1,333	1,088	1,271	2,378	2,112 (a)	1,113	1,271	1,680	2,178	2,794
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms		4,643	5,151	5,858	6,599	7,509	6,599	7,605	8,296	9,036	9,800	10,596
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms		517	512	707	741	910	500 (a)	1,006	691	740	764	796
	Ind. 3.13 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)		0.90	1.15	1.19	1.2	1.18	1	1	1	1	1	1
	Ind. 3.14 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)		0.92	1.13	1.17	1.2	1.14	1	1	1	1	1	1
	Ind. 3.15 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance		2008 (b)		2010 (c)			N/A (j)					
Domestic Financing	Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending	17.3	18.2	16.2	19.2	14.1	14.0						
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education	63.7	64.9	63.4	62.6	58.8	64.3						
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending	23.0	24.4	25.2	26.9	26.4	26.8						
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education	63.1	64.5	63.0	60.1	59.1	64.1						

External Aid to Education (in USD million)*

Indicator	Values		Targets			
	2010	2011	2010	2011	2012	2013
Ind. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education	**65.4**	**32.7**	**44.0**	**49.0**	**71.5**	**49.1**
AFD (f)	*3.4*	*8.0*			*7.2*	*6.3*
CIDA (g)	*10.5*	*10.6*	*10.5*	*10.6*	*11.2*	*8.6*
Denmark (h)	*0.6*			*4.1*	*4.1*	*3.0*
European Commission (i)	*20.6*			*14.2*	*14.2*	*14.2*
JICA	*1.5*		*1.5*	*1.5*	*14.0*	*2.0*
Netherlands	*17.47*		*17.61*	*14.00*	*10.47*	*10.47*
Switzerland (i)	*4.7*			*4.6*	*4.6*	*4.6*
UNICEF	*6.58*	*13.98*			*5.90*	
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education	**38.0**	**29.2**	**12.5**	**12.1**	**46.5**	**26.4**
AFD (f)	*1.9*	*4.6*			*5.0*	*5.3*
CIDA (g)	*10.5*	*10.6*	*10.5*	*10.6*	*11.2*	*8.6*
Denmark (h)			*0.5*			
European Commission (i)						
JICA	*1.50*		*1.50*	*1.50*	*14.00*	*2.00*
Netherlands	*17.47*				*10.47*	*10.47*
Switzerland (i)						
UNICEF	*6.58*	*13.98*			*5.90*	

***** This information was reported by the Local Education Group in USD in 2011.

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	PASEC in 1996 and 2007
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	Primary Education Certificate (CEP)
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	Biannual evaluation of learning outcomes, last conducted in 2012

Test	Grade	Year	Subject	Results
PASEC	CP2	1996/1997	French	58.2
PASEC	CM1	1996/1998	French	46.6
PASEC	CP2	1996/1997	Math	53.2
PASEC	CM1	1996/1998	Math	45.8
PASEC	CP2	2006/2007	French	43.1
PASEC	CM1	2006/2008	French	37.4
PASEC	CP2	2006/2007	Math	34.0
PASEC	CM1	2006/2007	Math	36.8

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	UNICEF
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	World Bank, AfDB, Norway, Sweden, CIDA, AFD, Denmark, JICA, Netherlands, Switzerland, UNICEF and European Commission
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	National Coalition EFA
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	Apr. 2012
Ind. 6.5 – Date of next JSR	Mar./Apr. 2013

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	2012-2021
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	2003
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	N/A
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	N/A
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	2008
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	102 (implementation of 3 grants: 22 in 2009; 45 in 2011; and 35 in 2012)
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	2008-2012
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	10-Apr.-12 (for the 35 million in 2012)
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	30-Sep.-12
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	World Bank
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	Budgetary Support
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	67

Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation – Annual disbursements (USD million)

2009	2010	2011	2012
22	/	45	35

Aid Effectiveness

Indicators	Results 2010	Information for GPE's 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector (h)
Ind. 9.1 - Aid Alignment (%)	46%	The alignment of aid in the education sector was weak. 46% of the aid actually disbursed in 2010 was accounted in the budgetary estimations of government, while 84% of the aid for all sectors together was accounted in the budgetary estimations. Also, the median of the reporting countries was almost the double of this figure.
Ind. 9.2 - Coordinated Technical Cooperation (%)	64%	64% of the technical cooperation for education in 2010 was coordinated with the national priorities, a figure slightly higher than the median of reporting countries and the results for all sectors together. A strategic plan to strengthen capacities (PSRC) has been adopted.
Ind. 9.3a / 9.3b - Use of Public Financial Management / Procurement Country Systems (%)	81% / 99%	There have been efforts to increase the use of the country systems in the education sector. In consequence, large amounts of aid used them: 81% of the aid used the PFM country systems and 99% the procurement country systems, while donors used 36% and 54% these systems respectively in 2007. Furthermore, these results were larger in the education sector. In 2008 the government developed a plan to strengthen the capacities of fiduciary services in the education sector (PASF).
Ind. 9.4 - Number of Parallel Implementation Units	1	Only one PBU was reported in the education sector in 2010. After the closure of the Education Projects Office (BPE), a pool fund was established in the sector to support the implementation of the Education Sector Plan.
Ind. 9.5 - Aid Provided through Program Based Approaches (%)	50%	Half of the aid to education was provided in 2010 through PBAs. This is the result of the implementation of the pool fund development for the basic education (FSDEB), that allowed the harmonization of donor procedures. This same proportion of aid was provided through PBAs for all sectors together, but in 2007 the results for the education sector were larger.

Notes:

Except for the Global Partnership funding information, data provided in these Results forms were collected from national and other publicly available sources, and validated by the Local Education Group (LEG) in each country. LEGs are typically led by the Ministry of Education and include development partners and other education stakeholders. Data were not processed or analyzed by the Global Partnership for Education. It is reported as it was presented in the original sources, or as it was communicated to us through the Coordinating Agency or Lead Donor of the LEG.

The data derived from national sources may differ from international sources because of divergences in definitions, methods of calculation, or in some cases due to different underlying data. For these reasons, the data based on national sources in these Results Forms should not be used for making comparisons between countries, but rather for assessing the progress of individual countries.

(a) This refers to the general education and technical and professional education.

(b) Study on the effective teaching time in the primary education (2008).

(c) Study on the effective official teaching time (2010).

(d) These figures were indicated for the academic year, but are reported in the column of the latest year of the academic period.

(e) The age of the population in basic education is from 3 to 16 years old.

(f) These amounts were indicated in Euros, and converted into US dollars using the 2011 mean exchange rate: EUR 1 = USD 1.3921.

(g) These amounts were indicated in Canadian dollars, and converted into US dollars using the 2011 mean exchange rate: 2011 CAD 1 = USD 1.0114.

(h) These amounts were indicated in Danish currency, and converted into US dollars using the 2011 mean exchange rate: DDK 1 = USD 0.1868.

(i) This information was indicated in 2011 through the 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Development Effectiveness in the Education Sector of the Global Partnership for Education.

(j) The targets are not disaggregated by sector.

(k) Information on this exercise, including the specific country profile with details on these results, can be found in this site: *http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2*. Results were compared with the median of all countries participating in this exercise for the education sector, with the results for all sectors in the country as presented in the 2011 OECD Survey on Monitoring the Paris Declaration, and with aid effectiveness targets for all sectors established by countries themselves to be achieved by 2010.

Sources of information:

Development Partners (2008). Technical Evaluation Report on Burkina Faso's Education Sector Plan in the Context of the FTI. October 2008, Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso.

Global Partnership for Education (2012). *2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector*. Country Profile Information based on information submitted by the Ministry of Education and Development Partners, Global Partnership for Education: Washington, D.C., United States.

Global Partnership for Education (2012). Disbursements and Projections for GPE Funding. Global Partnership for Education: Washington, D.C., United Sates.

Government of Burkina Faso, (2008). Request for Funding to the Fast Track Initiative Catalytic Fund. CFC/OSLO/2008-02, Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso.

Government of Burkina Faso, Ministry of Basic Education and Literacy (2007). Decennial Plan of Basic Education Development (PDDEB), Phase II (2008 - 2010). October 2007, Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso.

Local Education Group (2011). Aide-memoire of 15th Joint Mission to Monitor the Decennial Plan of Basic Education Development. April 5, 2011, Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso.

Local Education Group (2012). Information on aid to education submitted by donors directly to the Global Partnership for Education. Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso.

UIS (2009). Youth Literacy Rates (15-24 years old). UIS: Montreal, Canada.

Cambodia

Area	Indicator	Values				Targets					
		2008	2009	2010	2011	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%)	87.2									
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)			39.8	46.0	50.0	45.0	50.0	55.0	60.0	
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)			92.4 (a)	1.4	0.9					
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR			1 (b)	1.0	1.03 (b)					
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER)			5.2	3.6 (c)	4.0	5.0	4.0	3.0	2.0	
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR			83.2	89.8	90.0	85.0	90.0	95.0	100.0	
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR			1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education				79.3	97.0				97.0	
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)			48.7	42.1	51.0	50.0	51.0	52.0	54.0	
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary			110,210 (d)							
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students			2,239,757 (e)	2,142,464		2,128,993 (e)	2,086,693 (e)	2044927 (e)	1,984,432 (e)	1,947,491 (e)
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers				45,296	45,628 (e)	45,705 (e)	45,611 (e)	45,443 (e)	44,098 (e)	43,278 (e)
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers				2,000			2,000	2,000	2,000	2,000
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms				41,840	40,793 (e)	41,393 (e)	42,180 (e)	43,279 (e)	42,402 (e)	42,017 (e)
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms				1,053						
	Ind. 3.7 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary				218,082						
	Ind. 3.8 – Lower Secondary Students			585,115	541,147	564,142 (e)	572,946 (e)	597,396 (e)	620,442 (e)	654,305 (e)	682,231 (e)
	Ind. 3.9 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers				27,067	21,702 (e)	21,909 (e)	22,707 (e)	23,439 (e)	24,718 (e)	25,773 (e)
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary New Teachers				1,500			1,500	1,500	1,500	1,500
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms				11,979	10,368 (e)	10,556 (e)	11,035 (e)	11,490 (e)	12,115 (e)	12,630 (e)
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms				308						
	Ind. 3.13 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)										
	Ind. 3.14 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)										
	Ind. 3.15 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance										
Domestic Financing	Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending										
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education (l)										
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending					16.4	18.2	19.7	21.2		
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education (l)					71.0					

External Aid to Education (in USD million)*

Indicator	Values		Targets			
	2010	2011	2010	2011	2012	2013
Ind. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education	66.19	23.67	65.09	83.75	75.71	53.06
ADB	*7.16*		*7.16*			
Belgium	*1.54*		*1.14*	*0.49*		
GPE	*13.40*	*13.40*	*13.40*	*30.00*	*19.90*	
EC	*9.20*	*17.0*	*4.30*	*15.40*	*15.40*	15.40
Japan	*8.27*		*8.27*	*4.83*	*2.51*	0.24
Sweden	*3.67*	*3.67*	*3.67*	*7.52*	*7.12*	6.33
UNESCO	*0.78*		*0.78*	*1.41*	*0.50*	0.24
UNICEF	*6.24*		*6.79*	*5.00*	*5.00*	5.00
United States	*2.70*	*2.70*	*2.70*			19.85
WFP	*9.33*		*13.00*	*16.10*	*19.97*	
World Bank	*3.90*	*3.90*	*3.90*	*3.00*	*5.30*	6.00
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education			29.25	33.80	24.90	5.00
ADB						
Belgium						
GPE			*13.40*	*28.80*	*19.90*	
EC						
Japan						
Sweden			*3.67*			
UNESCO						
UNICEF			*6.79*	*5.00*	*5.00*	*5.00*
United States			*1.50*			
WFP						
World Bank			*3.90*			

* This information was reported by the Local Education Group in USD in 2011.

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	Primary - grade 6 / lower secondary - grade 9
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	No
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	Planned 2011/12; 2005/06 and 2008/09 for grade 3 2006/07 for grade 6 2007/08 and 2009/10 for grade 9
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	EGRA in 2011 and 2012

Test	Grade	Year	Subject	Mean Score
National Assessment	Grade 3	To be tested in June 2012	N/A	N/A
National Assessment	Grade 9	2009/2010	Khmer	68.3
National Assessment	Grade 9	2009/2010	Math	43.8
National Assessment	Grade 3	2008/2009	Khmer	54.1
National Assessment	Grade 3	2008/2009	Math	48
National Assessment	Grade 9	2007/2008	Khmer	68
National Assessment	Grade 9	2007/2008	Math	41.2
National Assessment	Grade 6	2006/2007	Khmer	68.1
National Assessment	Grade 6	2006/2007	Math	58.9
National Assessment	Grade 3	2005/2006	Khmer	40.4
National Assessment	Grade 3	2005/2006	Math	37.5

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	UNESCO
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	UNICEF, ADB, EC, WFP, JICA, SIDA, World Bank, UNFPA, USAID
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	NGO Education Partnership
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	01-Mar-12
Ind. 6.5 – Date of next JSR	01-Mar-13

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	2009-2013
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	2006
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	N/A
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	N/A
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	2007
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	57.4
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	2008-2012
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	13-Jun-08
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	30-Jun-12
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	World Bank
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	Project
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	37.4

Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation – Annual disbursements (USD million)

2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
0.328	3.8	13.4	19.9	19.9

Aid Effectiveness Indicators

Indicator	Results 2010	Information for GPE's 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector (g)
Ind. 9.1 - Aid Alignment (%)	62%	62% of aid was recorded in government's budget estimates, which suggests low alignment since this is below the median across countries participating in this exercise (80%) and significantly lower than the average across sectors (88%). However, results also suggest that donor partners largely align their aid around the education plan.
Ind. 9.2 - Coordinated Technical Cooperation (%)	98%	The coordination of technical cooperation in the Cambodia education sector is exemplary. In 2010, near to all technical cooperation provided by participating donor partners was coordinated. The MoEYS approved a Medium Term Capacity Development Plan in 2010, and as of June 2011 donor partners provide technical cooperation through a Capacity Development Partnership Fund (CDPF).
Ind. 9.3a / 9.3b - Use of Public Financial Management / Procurement Country Systems (%)	4% / 2%	The overall use of public and financial management (PFM) and procurement systems in Cambodia is low (21% and 24%, according to the Paris Survey 2011) but in the education sector it is extremely low. Only 4% of education aid in 2010 used PFM systems (and none was disbursed using the national audit system), and 2% was disbursed through national procurement systems.
Ind. 9.4 - Number of Parallel Implementation Units	4	Four parallel implementation units were reported by participating development partners as having been in place in 2010. This is double the median found in this exercise, but a small proportion of the 66 found by the Paris Survey across Cambodia.
Ind. 9.5 - Aid Provided through Program Based Approaches (%)	57%	57% of education aid was provided through programmed-based approaches in 2010. A Sector Wide Approach (SWAp) is well established in Cambodia, and the entire sector works towards the Education Sector Plan through a series of mechanisms including the Joint Technical Working Group, the Education Sector Working Group and the ESP. While this score is higher than both the GPE median (40%) and Cambodian national average for all sectors in 2010 (35%), it still indicates that 43% of education aid was not provided through a PBA.

Notes:

Except for the Global Partnership funding information, data provided in these Results forms were collected from national and other publicly available sources, and validated by the Local Education Group (LEG) in each country. LEGs are typically led by the Ministry of Education and include development partners and other education stakeholders. Data were not processed or analyzed by the Global Partnership for Education. It is reported as it was presented in the original sources, or as it was communicated to us through the Coordinating Agency or Lead Donor of the LEG.

The data derived from national sources may differ from international sources because of divergences in definitions, methods of calculation, or in some cases due to different underlying data. For these reasons, the data based on national sources in these Results Forms should not be used for making comparisons between countries, but rather for assessing the progress of individual countries.

(a) Net Admission Rate

(b) Based on Net Admission Rate

(c) Percentage of 6- to 11-year-old children that are not in primary school. It excludes pre-primary level and children older than 11 years

(d) It refers to the enrollment of 5-year-old children

(e) Projections

(f) Basic education includes primary school (6 to 11 years old) and lower secondary (12 to 14 years old)

(g) Information on this exercise, including the specific country profile with details on these results, can be found in this site: *http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2*. Results were compared with the median of all countries participating in this exercise for the education sector, with the results for all sectors in the country as presented in the 2011 OECD Survey on Monitoring the Paris Declaration, and with aid effectiveness targets for all sectors established by countries themselves to be achieved by 2010.

Sources of information:

Global Partnership for Education (2012). *2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector.* Country Profile Information based on information submitted by the Ministry of Education and Development Partners, Global Partnership for Education: Washington, D.C., United States.

Global Partnership for Education (2012). Disbursements and Projections for GPE Funding. Global Partnership for Education: Washington, D.C., United Sates.

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Cameroon

Area	Indicator	Values					Targets					
		2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%)	83.13%										
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)	17.50%	20.70%	25.3%	27.2%							27.0%
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)	102%	112%	115%	125%							
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR	0.88	0.88	0.87								
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER)											
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR	64.3%	71.5%	72.6%	73.0%							88%
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR	0.85	0.83	0.84 (a)	0.89							1.00
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education		48%		49%							
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)				22.1% / 7.9% (b)							35%
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary	550,000	602,665	657,190	706,179							
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students	3.12	3.20	3.35	3.51							
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers	70,230	69,544	61,847	77,098							37,200
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers	13,300	11,000	7,100	37,200							
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms				72,485 (c)							
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms											
	Ind. 3.7 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary		166,925	179,733	193,214							
	Ind. 3.8 – Lower Secondary Students	722,569	781,662	720,795	1,006,658	1,131,185						
	Ind. 3.9 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers											
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary New Teachers											
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms											
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms											
	Ind. 3.13 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)				0.07							
	Ind. 3.14 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)				0.08							
	Ind. 3.15 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance											
Domestic Financing	Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending	19.45%	17.04%	19.16%	17.89%							
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education (e)	36.99%	32.55%	34.20%	34.16%							
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending	19.45%	17.04%	19.16%	17.89%	14.00%	19%	20%				18%
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education (e)	35.46%	30.84%	29.92%	34.38%	39.30%	41.70%	43.40%	49.9% (i)	49.90%		

External Aid to Education (in USD million)*

Indicator	Values			Targets			
	2009	2010	2011	2010	2011	2012	2013
Ind. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education	13.56	13.82	11.93	12.58	53.72	29.65	12.38
AfDB		*2.00*		*3.00*	*6.00*	*5.00*	
World Bank		*0.27*		*0.48*	*30.20*	*3.90*	
France (AFD and Embassy)		*9.01*		*6.36*	*3.50*	*18.88*	*12.08*
JICA (j)	*13.56*		*11.93*		*11.93*		
UNESCO		*0.81*		*1.00*	*0.20*	*0.30*	*0.30*
UNICEF		*1.73*		*1.73*	*1.89*	*1.57*	
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education	13.56	11.08	11.93	7.91	16.08	20.45	12.08
AfDB				*0.00*			
World Bank							
France (AFD and Embassy)		*8.59*		*5.22*	*2.27*	*18.88*	*12.08*
JICA (j)	*13.56*		*11.93*		*11.93*		
UNESCO		*0.75*		*0.95*			
UNICEF		*1.73*		*1.73*	*1.89*	*1.57*	

***** This information was reported by the Local Education Group in USD in 2011.

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	PASEC 1996 and 2005
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	

Test	Grade	Year	Subject	Mean Score
PASEC	Unknown	1996	French	56
PASEC	Unknown	1996	Math	50
PASEC	Unknown	2005	French	46
PASEC	Unknown	2005	Math	46

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	UNESCO and UNICEF
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	AfDB, World Bank, French Embassy, AFD and JICA
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	RECAMEF, Knowledge for Children, AGBETSI, Counterpart, PLAN, SIL, VSO
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	Apr. 2011 (a review to evaluate the Partnership for cooperation was organized in May 2012, and a day was devoted to the education sector)
Ind. 6.5 – Date of next JSR	TBD

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	2006-2015
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	2006
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	N/A
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	N/A
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	2006
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	47.3 (implementation in 2 grants : 22.5 millions in 2007, and currently 24.8)
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	2007-2011
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	11/11/2010
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	31/12/2011
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	World Bank
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	Budgetary Support
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	38

Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation – Annual disbursements (USD million)

2007	2008	2011	2012
11.3	11.2	15.5	9.3

Aid Effectiveness

Indicator	Results 2010	Information for GPE's 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector (h)
Ind. 9.1 - Aid Alignment (%)	–	It was not possible to analyze the alignment of aid to education. However, 34% of the total aid disbursed to education was devoted to activities supporting the implementation of the Education Sector Plan.
Ind. 9.2 - Coordinated Technical Cooperation (%)	58%	The coordination of the technical cooperation was higher in the education sector than in the rest of sectors (all together) in 2010. Over half of the technical cooperation in the education sector was aligned to the priorities of the country; however, this result is lower than the median of reporting countries.
Ind. 9.3a / 9.3b - Use of Public Financial Management / Procurement Country Systems (%)	26% / 39%	The use of PFM and procurement country systems was higher in the education sector than in the rest of sectors (all together) in 2010. However, only the World Bank and AFD used these systems. 26% of aid to education used the PFM systems and 39% the procurement systems. These results are in line with the median of reporting countries.
Ind. 9.4 - Number of Parallel Implementation Units	3	3 PIUs were accounted in the education sector in 2010, over a total of 20 indicated for all sectors. This result is the same than the median of countries that participated in this exercise.
Ind. 9.5 - Aid Provided through Program Based Approaches (%)	20%	The use of PBAs in the education sector still represents a challenge for the aid effectiveness in the country. Overall, 20% of total aid disbursed to education in 2010 was provided through Program Based Approaches; however, only AFD used these approaches. This result is lower than the utilization of PBAs for all sectors together (28%) and than the median of reporting countries (41%).

Notes:

Except for the Global Partnership funding information, data provided in these Results forms were collected from national and other publicly available sources, and validated by the Local Education Group (LEG) in each country. LEGs are typically led by the Ministry of Education and include development partners and other education stakeholders. Data were not processed or analyzed by the Global Partnership for Education. It is reported as it was presented in the original sources, or as it was communicated to us through the Coordinating Agency or Lead Donor of the LEG.

The data derived from national sources may differ from international sources because of divergences in definitions, methods of calculation, or in some cases due to different underlying data. For these reasons, the data based on national sources in these Results Forms should not be used for making comparisons between countries, but rather for assessing the progress of individual countries.

(a) Estimated according to the total PCR and female PCR.

(b) 22.1% refers to French and 7.9% to English.

(c) 48,772 classrooms from public schools.

(d) This refers to the general secondary education (not only lower education).

(e) Estimated using a ratio of 13.1 students per textbook.

(f) Estimated using a ratio of 11.2 students per textbook.

(g) This refers to the expenditures for the primary education.

(h) The age of the population in basic education is from 6 to 11 years old.

(i) Estimated according the 2012 and 2013 budgetary projections for the education sector.

(j) Commitments, indicated in JPY (exchange rate: JPY81 = USD1)

(k) Information on this exercise, including the specific country profile with details on these results, can be found in this site: *http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2*. Results were compared with the median of all countries participating in this exercise for the education sector, with the results for all sectors in the country as presented in the 2011 OECD Survey on Monitoring the Paris Declaration, and with aid effectiveness targets for all sectors established by countries themselves to be achieved by 2010.

Sources of information:

Global Partnership for Education (2012). *2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector*. Country Profile Information based on information submitted by the Ministry of Education and Development Partners, Global Partnership for Education: Washington, D.C., United States.

Global Partnership for Education (2012). Disbursements and Projections for GPE Funding. Global Partnership for Education: Washington, D.C., United Sates.

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UIS (2009). Youth Literacy Rates (15-24 years old). UIS: Montreal, Canada.

Central African Republic

Area	Indicator	Values					Targets					
		2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%)				65.17%							
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)		4%	4.4%	3.6%	5.4%	13.5%					17.2%
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)		87%	90.2%	89.0%	90.3%	90.5%	92% (a)	94% (a)	96% (a)	98% (a)	100%
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR	0.80	0.81	0.78	0.85	0.84	0.89	0.9 (a)	0.92 (a)	0.94 (a)	0.96 (a)	1
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER)					66.0%						
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR		27%	35.9%	33.8%	39.7%	53.2%	57.88% (a)	62.56% (a)	67.24% (a)	71.92% (a)	76.6%
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR		0.64			0.64	0.85	0.88 (a)	0.91 (a)	0.95 (a)	1 (a)	1
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education					59.0%						
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)					16.9%						
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary				113,513 (b)	115,803 (b)	35,070 (b)					56,238 (b)
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students		527,346 (c)	524,239 (c)	500,741 (c)	561,109 (c)	622,223 (c)					75,1079 (c)
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers		4,620 (c)	5,046 (c)	5,908 (c)	6,317 (c)	7,203(c)					10,583 (c)
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers			1,454	2,204	2,954	752					1,062
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms		4,792	6,690	7,023	7,494						
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms			1898	333	471						
	Ind. 3.7 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary					34,156						
	Ind. 3.8 – Lower Secondary Students					97,512 (b)	117,837 (b)					186,469 (b)
	Ind. 3.9 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers					854 (b)	1,659					2,846
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary New Teachers						298					383
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms											
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms											
	Ind. 3.13 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)				0.15	0.71						
	Ind. 3.14 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)				0.17	0.73						
	Ind. 3.15 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance											
Domestic Financing	Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending			9.5%	11.5%	12.2%						
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education (l)											
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending			12.3%			14.3%					
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education (l)			49%			51%					

External Aid to Education (in USD million)*

Indicator	Values			Targets			
	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Ind. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education	2.9	9.0	13.2	7.7	5.0	6.6	6.6
AfDB							
World Bank	*2.9*	*9.0*	*13.2*	*7.7*	*5.0*	*6.6*	*6.6*
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education	2.9	9.0	13.2	7.7	5.0	6.6	6.6
AfDB							
World Bank	*2.9*	*9.0*	*13.2*	*7.7*	*5.0*	*6.6*	*6.6*

* This information was reported by the Local Education Group in USD in 2011.

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	UNESCO
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	AFD, World Bank, WFP, European Commission, UNICEF, UNFPA, China and JICA
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	Unions, local and international NGOs and private sector
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	14-16 May 2012
Ind. 6.5 – Date of next JSR	1-Sept.-13

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	N/A
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	PASEC 1994, and expected for 2014-2016
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	Certificate of general education (Brevet) and BAC
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	N/A

Test	Year	Success Rate (%)
Certificate of general education (Brevet)	2011	71.21
BAC	2011	20.05

Aid Effectiveness Indicators

Indicator	Information on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector (e)
Ind. 9.1 - Aid Alignment (%)	N/A
Ind. 9.2 - Coordinated Technical Cooperation (%)	
Ind. 9.3a / 9.3b - Use of Public Financial Management / Procurement Country Systems (%)	Since 2012, the PAPSE uses the procurement country systems of the Ministry of Education, and the AFD plans to do the same.
Ind. 9.4 - Number of Parallel Implementation Units	Currently, the projects and funding are being implemented by the Permanente Technical Secretariat of the Ministry of Education (MEPSA).
Ind. 9.5 - Aid Provided through Program Based Approaches (%)	N/A

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	2008-2020
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	2008
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	N/A
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	N/A
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	01-Dec.-08
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	37.8
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	2009-2013
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	6-Apr.-09
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	2012, extended until 30-Jun. 2013
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	World Bank
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	Project
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	25.12

Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation – Annual disbursements (USD million)

2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
2.9	9	13.2 (d)	7.7	5

Notes:

Except for the Global Partnership funding information, data provided in these Results forms were collected from national and other publicly available sources, and validated by the Local Education Group (LEG) in each country. LEGs are typically led by the Ministry of Education and include development partners and other education stakeholders. Data were not processed or analyzed by the Global Partnership for Education. It is reported as it was presented in the original sources, or as it was communicated to us through the Coordinating Agency or Lead Donor of the LEG.

The data derived from national sources may differ from international sources because of divergences in definitions, methods of calculation, or in some cases due to different underlying data. For these reasons, the data based on national sources in these Results Forms should not be used for making comparisons between countries, but rather for assessing the progress of individual countries.

(a) Estimated based on targets for 2010 and 2015.

(b) This includes public and private schools.

(c) This only includes public schools.

(d) This amount includes a part from the last allocation.

(e) The Central African Republic did not participate in the 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector, but the Local Education Group indicated this information. Further details on the exercise can be found in this site: http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2.

Sources of information:

Government of the Central African Republic (2007). RESEN Model, National Strategy of the Education Sector 2008-2020. June 5, 2007, Bangui, Central African Republic.

Government of the Central African Republic (2008). Request for Funding to the Fast Track Initiative Catalytic Fund. Ref. No. CFC/Oslo/2008-03, December 13, 2008, Bangui, Central African Republic.

World Bank (2008). Project Appraisal Document, Catalytic Fund Program Document on a Grant to the Central African Republic for an Education for All - Fast Track Initiative Education Sector Development Project. October 31, 2008, World Bank: Washington D.C., United-States.

Global Partnership for Education (2012). Disbursements and Projections for GPE Funding. Global Partnership for Education: Washington, D.C., United Sates.

UIS (2012). Youth Literacy Rates (15-24 years old). UIS: Montreal, Canada.

Côte d'Ivoire

Area	Indicator	Values			Targets					
		2009	2010	2011	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%)		67.02%							
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)	12.00%	13% (a)	13% (a)		15.00%	17.00%	18.00%	19.00%	20.00%
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)	69.10%	72.60%	72.60%		76.10%	74.00%	75.00%	77.00%	79.00%
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR	1.03	0.98	0.98		0.97	0.98	0.99	0.99	1.00
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER)									
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR	47.30%	50.40%	50.40%	50.40%	53.50%	56.50%	59.60%	62.60%	65.70%
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR									
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education				73.60%	72.80%	71.90%	71.00%	70.20%	69.30%
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)				34%	35%	36.80%	38.17%	39.47%	40.71%
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary		457,681	380,711	415,298	448,294	482,895	519,169	557,185	597,014
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students (millions)	2.51	2.75	2.67	2.35	2.44	2.52	2.73	2.94	3.16
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers	46,115	48,429 (b)	50,929	48,429		53,537	56,037	58,537	61,037
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers		6,042	2,500	3,210	3,705	5,382	5,443	4,474	6,606
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms		63,810	58,182						
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms				1,453	1,301	2,041	2,085	2,133	4,769
	Ind. 3.7 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary		172,290	161,477	162,950	176,586	190,632	205,092	219,970	235,270
	Ind. 3.8 – Lower Secondary Students		690,918	627,594			712,452	759,101	811,436	864,951
	Ind. 3.9 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers	6,495			7,472	8,036	9,985.47	10,630	11,362	12,118
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary New Teachers	977			564	285	863.38	944.84	1,050	1,096
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms	6,607	(c)	(c)	6,640	6,682	7,693	8,482	9,382	10,348
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms	33			42	36	703	789	899	965
	Ind. 3.13 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)	0.50	0.60	0.80			1	1	1	1
	Ind. 3.14 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)	0.50	0.60	0.80			1	1	1	1
	Ind. 3.15 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance									
Domestic Financing	Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending	19%	20%	23.1%	22.5%	22.0%	22.4%	22.9%	23.5%	24.2%
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education (d)		59.70%	59.2%	58.0%	58.0%	60.0%	61.0%	62.0%	63.0%
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending		24.5%	24.3%	25.0%	25.0%	24.5%	24.7%	24.8%	25.0%
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education (d)		59.2%	59.1%	58.0%	58.4%	60.0%	61.0%	62.0%	63.0%

External Aid to Education (in USD million)*

Indicator	Values	Targets			
	2010	2010	2011	2012	2013
Ind. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education		48.1	23.5	19.0	6.8
AfDB		*14.2*			
BADEA		*2.4*			
FSD		*4.4*	*6.1*		
IsDB		*2.0*	*8.4*	*3.0*	
KFW					
UNICEF		*4.3*	*3.5*	*4.3*	*4.3*
USAID				*1.5*	*2.5*
World Bank		*20.8*	*5.5*	*10.2*	
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education		33.2	13.7	17.0	3.9
AfDB		*8.4*			
BADEA		-			
FSD		-	-		
IsDB		*0.1*	*5.4*	*3.0*	
KFW					
UNICEF		*4.0*	*3.2*	*3.9*	*3.9*
USAID					
World Bank		*20.7*	*5.1*	*10.1*	

* This information was reported by the Local Education Group in USD in 2012.

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	Primary and lower secondary
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	PASEC 1996 and 2008
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	2010 and 2011 for primary and lower secondary
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	UNICEF
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	UNESCO, World Bank, France, Germany, UNDP, European Commission, WFP, UNFPA and Norway
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	
Ind. 6.5 – Date of next JSR	

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	2012-2014
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	2011
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	N/A
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	N/A
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	2011
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	41.4
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	2012-2015
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	In progress
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	30-sept.-15
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	World Bank
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	Project
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	0

Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation – Annual disbursements (USD million)

2012	2013	2014	2015
7	13	13	8.4

Test	Class	Year	Subject	Mean	Minimal Competence (%)	Optimal Competence (%)
National Assessment	Primary (CEPE)	2010	French, Math and Sciences and others	68.90	40.44	82.38
National Assessment	Lower secondary (BEPC)	2010	French, Math, Physics, English and Lottery for second language and others	30.31	9.45	36.54
National Assessment	Primary (CEPE)	2011	French, Math and Sciences and others	58.22	28.73	80.44
National Assessment	Lower secondary (BEPC)	2011	French, Math, Physics, English and Lottery for second language and others	17.09	6.89	27.89
End of cycle test	Primary			N/A	N/A	N/A
End of cycle test	Lower secondary			N/A	N/A	N/A
PASEC	CP to CM	1996		45.3	N/A	N/A
PASEC	CP2 and CM1	2008	French and Math	29.2	N/A	N/A

Notes:

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(a) It indicates projections, according to the source of information.

(b) It indicates the number of teachers who teach in one single classroom.

(c) This figure was deleted because it represented pedagogical groups instead of classrooms.

(d) Basic education includes pre-primary (4 to 5 years old), primary (6 to 11 years old) and lower secondary (12 to 15 years old).

Sources of information:

Global Partnership for Education (2012). Disbursements and Projections for GPE Funding. Global Partnership for Education: Washington, D.C., United Sates.

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Djibouti

Area	Indicator	Values					Targets					
		2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%)			N/A								
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)											
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)		76.3%	73.6%	76.8%	76%		80.10%				100%
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR			0.50	0.63	0.97	0.68					1
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER)											
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR			51%	57%	72%		65%				100%
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR			0.98 (a)	0.96	1.00	0.98					1
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education											
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)											
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary											
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students			59,708		63,612			61,200			
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers				1,731	1,821						
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers											
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms				1,122	1,166						
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms											
	Ind. 3.7 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary					8,099						
	Ind. 3.8 – Lower Secondary Students					35,598						
	Ind. 3.9 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers				1,127	1,102						
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary New Teachers											
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms					468						
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms					36						
	Ind. 3.13 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)					0.33						
	Ind. 3.14 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)					1						
	Ind. 3.15 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance					N/A						
Domestic Financing	Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending					13% (b)						
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education					(c)						
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending			23%		15%						
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education					41%						

External Aid to Education (in USD million)*

Indicator	Values						Targets
	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Ind. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education	39.08						11
AFD	*10.7*						*8*
AfDB	*6.27*						*0*
FSD	*5.8*						*0*
IDA	*10*						*3*
IMOA							
IsDB		*6.31*					
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education					4		3.8
AFD							
AfDB							
FSD							
IDA							
IMOA					*4*		*3.8*
IsDB							

* This information was reported by the Local Education Group in USD in 2012.

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	Analysis in progress
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	N/A
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	N/A
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	2010

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	France
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	World Bank, USAID, WFP UNICEF
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	01-May-08
Ind. 6.5 – Date of next JSR	01-May-12

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	2011-2016
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	2006
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	2006
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	8
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	2010
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	4
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	2010-2012
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	30-Oct.-10
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	30-Sept.-12
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	World Bank
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	Project
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	0.655

Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation – Annual disbursements (USD million)	
2011	**2012**
0.6	3.4

Notes:

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(a) Estimated according to the total PCR and female PCR.

(b) A decline in the education budget can come from the exclusion in the budget figures of the higher education.

(c) Data was deleted because it was too low to represent the expenses on basic education.

Sources of information:

Government of Djibouti (2010). Summary Documentation, Financing request to the Fast Track Initiative Catalytic Fund. CFC/Washington/2010-01, March 8, 2010, Djibouti, Djibouti.

Government of Djibouti, Ministry of Education. Planning and Information Department Data. Djibouti, Djibouti.

Global Partnership for Education (2012). Disbursements and Projections for GPE Funding. Global Partnership for Education: Washington, D.C., United Sates.

Ethiopia

Area	Indicator	Values					Targets					
		2005	2007	2009	2010	2011	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%)	45%	55%									
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)			4.2	4.8							20.0
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)			162.5	142.9							95.1
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR			0.9	0.9							1.0
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER)			17.0	17.9		7.2					9.9
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR			43.6	47.8		62.8					100.0
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR			0.84 (a)								1.0
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education			78.7								98.0
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)			42.6								98.0
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary			(b)	(b)	(b)						(b)
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students (millions)	15.34		15,549,524	15,792,103	16,718,111						18,273,830
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers	253,629		268,693	292,130	308,286						391,228 (d)
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers			15,064	23,437	16,156						24,835 (d)
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms			218,793	238,833							360,788 (d)
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms											20,327 (d)
	Ind. 3.7 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary											(b)
	Ind. 3.8 – Lower Secondary Students (millions)	1.30		1,383,946	1,452,850	1,461,918						2,886,768
	Ind. 3.9 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers			38,357 (c)	46,060 (c)	52,731 (c)						82,273
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary New Teachers											8,158
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms				24,632 (c)							
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms											
	Ind. 3.13 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)			1.5 (e)					6 (f)			
	Ind. 3.14 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)											
	Ind. 3.15 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance	2012 (g)						Regularly				
Domestic Financing	Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending		20.2					15.0				15%
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education		66.6					50.0				50%
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending		14.9									
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education											

External Aid to Education (in USD million)*

Indicator	Values			Targets					
	2007/08	2008/09	2009/10	2009/10	2010/11	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15
Ind. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education (h)	155.72	88.58	317.09	484.97	419.85	483.73	281.99	186.33	200.63
ADB				*20.64*	*10.00*	*10.00*	*10.00*		
Belgium (VLIR UOS)	*2.86*	*2.77*	*2.81*		*2.50*	*2.40*	*2.15*	*0.84*	*0.74*
DFID	*91.10*	*46.06*	*136.57*	*121.70*	*123.27*	*100.07*	*119.72*	*147.23*	*168.80*
DVV international		*0.24*	*0.25*	*0.36*	*0.33*	*0.55*	*0.00*	*0.40*	*0.47*
EC				*53.72*	*47.83*	*47.83*	*47.83*		
Finland				*5.68*	*5.45*	*5.98*	*5.58*		
GIZ/BMZ	*4.89*	*4.46*	*4.38*	*4.38*	*5.05*	*5.18*			
GPE Catalytic Fund				*36.50*	*33.50*	*98.00*			
Italy	*19.50*		*10.87*	*17.94*	*11.22*	*5.11*	*0.93*	*0.93*	
Japan Government	*9.28*			*3.25*	*3.54*	*1.18*	*1.18*		
JICA				*2.65*	*3.34*	*18.27*	*3.59*	*0.81*	
KfW	*2.65*	*2.37*	*4.30*		*0.53*	*4.52*	*7.97*	*3.99*	*1.59*
Netherlands	*5.96*	*19.91*	*11.84*	*11.44*	*9.98*	*2.92*	*9.52*		
SIDA				*3.44*	*1.44*	*1.44*	*1.44*		
UNICEF	*13.51*	*12.77*	*25.19*	*25.26*	*17.83*	*17.86*			
USAID				*15.28*	*21.85*	*32.98*	*32.79*	*13.10*	*10.00*
WFP	*5.97*		*0.99*	*16.23*	*12.50*	*28.02*	*28.02*	*19.02*	*19.02*
World Bank			*119.89*	*146.52*	*109.71*	*101.42*	*11.25*		
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education (i)	143.08	78.27	305.14	471.88	399.07	445.15	244.15	164.94	182.66
ADB				*20.64*					
Belgium (VLIR UOS)									
DFID	*90.43*	*45.84*	*136.44*	*121.56*	*121.52*	*99.25*	*104.10*	*131.60*	*153.17*
DVV international		*0.24*	*0.25*	*0.36*	*0.33*	*0.55*		*0.40*	*0.47*
EC				*53.72*	*47.83*	*47.83*	*47.83*		
Finland				*5.68*	*5.45*	*5.98*	*5.58*		
GIZ/BMZ									
GPE Catalytic Fund				*36.50*	*33.50*	*98.00*			
Italy	*18.12*		*10.87*	*10.87*	*11.22*	*5.11*			
Japan Government	*9.28*			*3.25*	*3.54*	*1.18*	*1.18*		
JICA				*2.00*	*2.63*	*3.33*	*2.88*	*0.81*	
KfW									
Netherlands	*5.76*	*19.42*	*11.52*	*10.83*	*9.98*	*2.66*	*9.52*		
SIDA				*3.44*	*1.44*	*1.44*	*1.44*		
UNICEF	*13.51*	*12.77*	*25.19*	*25.26*	*17.83*	*17.86*	*0.00*		
USAID				*15.03*	*21.60*	*32.53*	*32.34*	*13.10*	*10.00*
WFP	*5.97*		*0.99*	*16.23*	*12.50*	*28.02*	*28.02*	*19.02*	*19.02*
World Bank			*119.89*	*146.52*	*109.71*	*101.42*	*11.25*		

* This information was reported by the Local Education Group in USD in 2012.

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	Finland
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	World Bank; DFID; Netherlands; Italian Cooperation; USAID; JICA; GIZ; Belgium Cooperation; DVV; UNESCO; UNICEF; WFP; UNDP; EC.
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	01-Oct.-10
Ind. 6.5 – Date of next JSR	26-Mar.-12

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	2010-2015
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	2004
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	2007
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	70
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	2010
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	98
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	2010-2013
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	23-Jul-10
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	30-Jun-13
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	World Bank
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	Pool funding
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	83.3

Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation - Annual disbursements (USD million)

2010	2011	2012	2013
26.7 (j)	83.6	18.20	13.20

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	Primary - grade 8 / Lower secondary - grade 10
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	No
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	2006 and 2009
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	EGRA 2010

Test	Grade	Year	Subject	% Students with Results above a Score (k)
National Assessment	Grade 10	2009/10	English	17.80%
National Assessment	Grade 10	2009/10	Math	14.70%
National Assessment	Grade 10	2009/10	Biology	24.80%
National Assessment	Grade 10	2009/10	Chemistry	17.10%
National Assessment	Grade 10	2009/10	Physics	10.10%
National Assessment	Grade 10	2009/10	Average	13.80%
National Assessment	Grade 12	2009/10	English	25.90%
National Assessment	Grade 12	2009/10	Math	57.70%
National Assessment	Grade 12	2009/10	Biology	60.70%
National Assessment	Grade 12	2009/10	Chemistry	44.40%
National Assessment	Grade 12	2009/10	Physics	16.70%
National Assessment	Grade 12	2009/10	Average	34.90%

Aid Effectiveness Indicators

Indicator	Results 2010	Information for GPE's 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector (l)
Ind. 9.1 - Aid Alignment (%)	90%	90% of external aid to education was on budget in 2010. Discrepancies occur because the development partners report on a different fiscal period than the one used by the government.
Ind. 9.2 - Coordinated Technical Cooperation (%)	91%	Coordination of technical cooperation has improved: 91% of technical cooperation was provided in a coordinated context in 2010. The ESDP IV includes components to strengthen Government capacities and existing education programs funded through multiple development partners also help improving capacities.
Ind. 9.3a / 9.3b - Use of Public Financial Management / Procurement Country Systems (%)	80% / 38%	In 2010, 80% of aid to education used the country PFM systems, and 38% of aid to education used the country procurement systems. Results for both indicators improved between 2007 and 2010, but scope for improvement is there. Performance varies among development partners and Government encourages its development partners to strengthen and increase use of country systems.
Ind. 9.4 - Number of Parallel Implementation Units	6 units	There are parallel implementation structures in place although development partners are encouraged to integrate their work in the existing structures. Through the multi-donor funded programs in the sector there are also efforts to align approaches.
Ind. 9.5 - Aid Provided through Program Based Approaches (%)	80%	80% of the education aid scheduled by the development partners was recorded by Government as actually having been disbursed in 2009/10. This level of predictability is above the median result for other GPE countries and reaches the overall predictability level of aid as reported by the OECD.

Notes:

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The data derived from national sources may differ from international sources because of divergences in definitions, methods of calculation, or in some cases due to different underlying data. For these reasons, the data based on national sources in these Results Forms should not be used for making comparisons between countries, but rather for assessing the progress of individual countries.

(a)	This was calculated using total PCR (48.4%) and female PCR (40.5%)
(b)	Data dropped because it was expressed in %
(c)	It refers to grades 9-12, not only lower secondary
(d)	It only includes Government schools
(e)	Total primary textbook-pupil ratio, not given by subject
(f)	Average target ratio calculated by the Global Partnership, based on targets reported to be achieved by 2011/12 for all subjects and maintained onwards: Grades 1-2 = 4:1; Grades 3-4 = 5:1; Grades 5-6 = 7:1; Grades 7-8 = 8:1
(g)	Carried out in February 2012, as part of a GEQIP Comprehensive Evaluation
(h)	Total education includes all education levels indicated by development partners: primary, general, TVET, secondary, higher, ABE, sector-wide and non specified
(i)	Primary level only includes funds indicated for "primary", "primary and TVET" and "general" education levels.
(j)	It includes funds from previous allocation
(k)	Percentage of students with scores above 50%
(l)	Information on this exercise, including the specific country profile with details on these results, can be found in this site: *http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2*. Results were compared with the median of all countries participating in this exercise for the education sector, with the results for all sectors in the country as presented in the 2011 OECD Survey on Monitoring the Paris Declaration, and with aid effectiveness targets for all sectors established by countries themselves to be achieved by 2010.

Sources of information:

The Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, Ministry of Education (2005). Education Sector Development Program III (ESDP III) 2005/06 - 2010/11. Program Action Plan (PAP). Final Draft, August 2005, Addis Ababa.

Ethiopia's Government (2007). Country Information Form, Request for Funding to the Fast Track Initiative Catalytic Fund. September 2007, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

Ethiopia's Government, Ministry of Education (2011). Education Statistics Annual Abstract 2003 EC. 2010-2011, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

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Global Partnership for Education (2012). *2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector*. Country Profile Information based on information submitted by the Ministry of Education and Development Partners, Global Partnership for Education: Washington, D.C., United States.

Global Partnership for Education (2012). Disbursements and Projections for GPE Funding. Global Partnership for Education: Washington, D.C., United Sates.

UIS (2007; 2009). Youth Literacy Rates (15-24 years old). UIS: Montreal, Canada.

Georgia

Area	Indicator	Values			Targets					
		2009	2010	2011	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%)	99.81%	99.80%							
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)					60%				
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)	103%	101%	106%						
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR	100%	97%	97%						
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER)					3%				
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR	103.55% (b)	105.48% (b)	95.47% (b)		100%				
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR	98%	98%	99%						
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education	100%	99%	99%						
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)	98%	95%	97%						
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary	46,667	45,540	51,545						
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students	298,935	289,137	285,539	(a)	(a)				
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers	33,511	35,443		(a)	(a)				
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers									
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms									
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms									
	Ind. 3.7 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary	55,592	54,649	52,506						
	Ind. 3.8 – Lower Secondary Students	167,370	166,586	161,254						
	Ind. 3.9 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers	22,108								
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary New Teachers									
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms									
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms									
	Ind. 3.13 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)									
	Ind. 3.14 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)									
	Ind. 3.15 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance									
Domestic Financing	Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending		8.53%	7.7%	8.60%	8.17%	9.92%	8.92%	9.37%	9.09%
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education (l)		68%	71.38%	69.00%	71.86%	71.82%	71.97%	71.89%	72.00%
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending									
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education (l)									

External Aid to Education (in USD million)*

Indicator	Values	Targets			
	2010	2010	2011	2012	2013
Ind. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education	26.93	26.93	15.87	15.45	4.80
EC	*8.74*	*8.74*	*11.78*	*11.94*	*2.80*
UNICEF	*0.52*	*0.52*	*2.14*	*2.14*	
USAID	*12.63*	*12.63*	*1.95*	*1.37*	*2.00*
World Bank	*5.04*	*5.04*			
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education	12.4	12.40	1.95	1.37	2.00
EC	*0*	*0.00*	*0.00*	*0.00*	*0.00*
UNICEF	*0.52*	*0.52*			
USAID	*11.88*	*11.88*	*1.95*	*1.37*	*2.00*
World Bank					

***** This information was reported by the Local Education Group in USD in 2011.

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	PIRLS; TIMSS and PISA
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	2011/12 in English Language for grade 1
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	Classroom diagnostic assessment in grades 1-6

Test	Grade	Year	Subject	Minimum-Competency / % students in lowest level	Mean Score / % students in medium level	Proficiency / % students in higher level	% students in highest level
PIRLS	Missing	2006	Reading	/	471	/	/
TIMSS	Grade 4	2007	Math	/	438	/	/
TIMSS	Grade 8	2007	Math	/	418	/	/
TIMSS	Grade 4	2007	Science	/	410	/	/
TIMSS	Grade 8	2007	Science	/	421	/	/
PISA	Missing	2009	Reading	/	374	/	/
PISA	Missing	2009	Math	/	379	/	/
PISA	Missing	2009	Science	/	373	/	/
National Assessment	Grade 1	2011/12	English	23.82	74.65	100	N/A
National Assessment	Grade 9	2009/10	Math	26% (c)	29% (d)	26% (e)	22% (f)
National Assessment	Grade 9	2008/09	Language	33% (g)	23% (h)	28% (i)	16% (j)

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	UNICEF
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	World Bank, USAID, EC
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	2007
Ind. 6.5 – Date of next JSR	To be determined

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	2007-2011
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	2007
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	N/A
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	
Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation - Annual disbursements (USD million)	

Aid Effectiveness Indicators

Indicator	Results 2010	Information for GPE's 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector (k)
Ind. 9.1 - Aid Alignment (%)	49%	About half of the aid flows are on budget as recorded by the MES. This is well below the median for GPE countries. It has been reported by donor partners that among the challenges impeding an improved performance in this area are gaps in funding figures reported by development partners to Government, as well as the tendency to report on program activities, rather than the costs of these programs.
Ind. 9.2 - Coordinated Technical Cooperation (%)	30%	Only about 30% of technical assistance to the education sector is provided in the context of a coordinated approach or program. It is reported that technical cooperation is coordinated between the MES, the European Commission, and the German and French public institutions in higher education, particularly around the Bologna Process.
Ind. 9.3a / 9.3b - Use of Public Financial Management / Procurement Country Systems (%)	63% / 51%	The use of country public financial management (PFM) systems for the education sector stood at 63%, and the use of procurement systems was 51%. The use of PFM systems is in line with the median for GPE countries, but is low. The use of procurement systems is better, supported by reforms that took place in 2010.
Ind. 9.4 - Number of Parallel Implementation Units	1	There was just one project implementation unit in operation for the education sector. This unit is operated by the European Commission, and is in line with the coordination promoted by the Bologna Process.
Ind. 9.5 - Aid Provided through Program Based Approaches (%)	44%	The alignment of education aid to program-based approaches (PBAs), while ahead of the performance of the GPE countries, is below 50%. Only 44% of the aid disbursed in 2010 by participating development partners used the PBA system (general or sector budget support or pooled fund arrangement).

Notes:

Except for the Global Partnership funding information, data provided in these Results forms were collected from national and other publicly available sources, and validated by the Local Education Group (LEG) in each country. LEGs are typically led by the Ministry of Education and include development partners and other education stakeholders. Data were not processed or analyzed by the Global Partnership for Education. It is reported as it was presented in the original sources, or as it was communicated to us through the Coordinating Agency or Lead Donor of the LEG.

The data derived from national sources may differ from international sources because of divergences in definitions, methods of calculation, or in some cases due to different underlying data. For these reasons, the data based on national sources in these Results Forms should not be used for making comparisons between countries, but rather for assessing the progress of individual countries.

(a) Dropped because it referred to primary and secondary levels

(b) This refers to general education. Completion rate of general education is measured as the total number of students enrolled in the last grade of this level (regardless of age), minus the number of students repeating the last grade of this level, divided by the total population of the entrance age of the last grade of this level.

(c) Results: score < 216,38

(d) Results in interval: 216,38 ≤ score < 251,332

(e) Results in interval: 251,332 ≤ score < 284,953

(f) Results in interval: score > 284,953

(g) Results in interval: score < 228,282

(h) Results in interval: 228,282 ≤ score < 259,288

(i) Results in interval: 259,288 ≤ score < 299,581

(j) Results: score > 299,581

(k) Information on this exercise, including the specific country profile with details on these results, can be found in this site: *http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2*. Results were compared with the median of all countries participating in this exercise for the education sector, with the results for all sectors in the country as presented in the 2011 OECD Survey on Monitoring the Paris Declaration, and with aid effectiveness targets for all sectors established by countries themselves to be achieved by 2010.

(l) The basic education encompasses grades VII-IX (age range 13-15).

Sources of information:

Georgia's Government, Ministry of Education and Science (2007). *Consolidated Education Strategy and Action Plan 2007-2011.* Tbilisi, Georgia.

Georgia's Government, Ministry of Education and Science (Year). National Statistics Office. Tbilisi, Georgia.

Global Partnership for Education (2012). *2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector.* Country Profile Information based on information submitted by the Ministry of Education and Development Partners, Global Partnership for Education: Washington, D.C., United States.

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UIS (2011; 2012). Youth Literacy Rates (15-24 years old). UIS: Montreal, Canada.

Ghana

Area	Indicator	Values					Targets					
		2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%)			80.0	80.8							
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)	83.3	89.7	92.9	97.3	98.4	91.4	92.2	92.9			94.5
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)			102.9	101.3	99.6	99.1	99.1	99.2			99.5
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR			0.97	0.96	0.97	1.0	1.0	1.0			1.0
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER)			11.5	16.4	22.5						10.0
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR		85.5	86.3	87.1	91.6	87.9	91.9	96.0			99.5
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR			0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0					1.0
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education				94.6	92.4	100.3	100.2	100.1			100.0
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)		67.7	75.0	66.0	66.9	73.3	79.1	85.2			97.2
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary (a)	590,950	739,824	729,391	738,101	742,846						
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students	2,929,536	3,616,023	3,710,647	3,809,258	3,962,779						
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers	89,479	112,443	114,421	131,057	124,359	96,600	101,40	106,400			117,400
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers											
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms											
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms											
	Ind. 3.7 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary (b)	380,973	453,147	465,758	489,812	499,729						
	Ind. 3.8 – Lower Secondary Students	1,010,246	1,224,010	1,285,577	1,301,940	1,335,400						
	Ind. 3.9 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers	56,080	73,656	75,409	93,741	83,339	48,700	53,100	57,700			68,000
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary New Teachers											
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms											
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms											
	Ind. 3.13 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)						2.1	2.5	3.0			3.5
	Ind. 3.14 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)						2.1	2.5	3.0			3.5
	Ind. 3.15 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance											
Domestic Financing	Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending			21.6	23.2		25					20
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education (c)			46.20	42.3			54	57			
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending											
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education (c)											

External Aid to Education (in USD million)*

Indicator	Values	Targets			
	2010	2010	2011	2012	2013
Ind. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education	113.01	89.52	91.10	99.82	103.61
DFID	*38.10*	*27.00*	*32.00*	*47.70*	*52.56*
GPE	*0.00*	*5.60*			
JICA	*5.54*	*5.21*	*3.91*	*1.27*	*0.20*
UNICEF	*4.34*	*6.68*	*4.29*	*4.50*	*4.50*
USAID	*15.99*	*25.00*	*28.85*	*28.85*	*28.85*
WFP	*6.03*	*6.03*	*6.52*	*3.50*	*3.50*
World Bank	*43.02*	*14.00*	*15.54*	*14.00*	*14.00*
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education	31.52	80.31	51.02	33.35	33.35
DFID		*27.00*	-	-	-
GPE	*0.00*	*5.60*			-
JICA			-	-	-
UNICEF	*4.34*	*6.68*	*4.29*	*4.50*	*4.50*
USAID	*15.99*	*25.00*	*28.85*	*28.85*	*28.85*
WFP	*6.03*	*6.03*	*6.52*	-	-
World Bank	*5.17*	*10.00*	*11.36*	-	-

***** This information was reported by the Local Education Group in USD in 2011.

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	Lower secondary - grade 9
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	TIMSS: 2003, 2007 and 2011 (in progress)
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	2005 and 2007
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	EGRA 2010

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	DFID, UNICEF
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	JICA, EC, France, Netherlands, USAID, World Bank, WFP
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	1-Aug-10
Ind. 6. 5 – Date of next JSR	Jun-13

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	2010-20
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	2004
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	2005
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	8 in 2005 and 11 in 2007 (d)
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	2012
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	75.5
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	World Bank
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	Project
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	
Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation - Annual disbursements (USD million)	

Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation - Annual disbursements (USD million)

2010	2010	2010	2010
3	3	3	3

Test	Grade	Year	Subject	% pupils above mean	% pupils above minimum-competency (e)	% pupils above proficient levels (f)	Mean Score	Letters per min	Words per min	Additions (% correct)	Multiplications (% correct)	Zero-score
National Assessment (g)	P3	2005	English P3	38.1	50.5	16.4	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
National Assessment (g)	P3	2007	English P3	37.6	50.1	15	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
National Assessment (g)	P3	2009	English P3		57.6	20	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
National Assessment (g)	P3	2011	English P3	42.9	66.3	24.2	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
National Assessment (g)	P6	2005	English P6	43.1	63.9	23.6	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
National Assessment (g)	P6	2007	English P6	44.2	69.7	26.1	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
National Assessment (g)	P6	2009	English P6		76.9	35.6	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
National Assessment (g)	P6	2011	English P6	48.6	78.9	35.3	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
National Assessment (g)	P3	2005	Math P3	36.6	47.2	18.6	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
National Assessment (g)	P3	2007	Math P3	35	42.6	14.6	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
National Assessment (g)	P3	2009	Math P3		61.2	25.2	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
National Assessment (g)	P3	2011	Math P3	37.8	52.6	18.2	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
National Assessment (g)	P6	2005	Math P6	34.4	42.7	9.8	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
National Assessment (g)	P6	2007	Math P6	35.7	46.2	10.8	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
National Assessment (g)	P6	2009	Math P6		61.9	13.8	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
National Assessment (g)	P6	2011	Math P6	38.7	56.9	16.1	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
TIMSS	8th	2003	Math	N/A	N/A	N/A	276	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
TIMSS	8th	2007	Math	N/A	N/A	N/A	209	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
TIMSS	8th	2003	Science	N/A	N/A	N/A	255	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
TIMSS	8th	2007	Science	N/A	N/A	N/A	303	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Making the Grade	P3	2009	Literacy (English)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	50	35	N/A	N/A	22
Making the Grade	P5	2009	Literacy (English)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	70	67	N/A	N/A	6
Making the Grade	P3	2009	Numeracy	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	68	30	17
Making the Grade	P5	2009	Numeracy	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	81	57	5

Aid Effectiveness Indicators

Indicator	Results 2010	Information for GPE's 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector (h)
Ind. 9.1 - Aid Alignment (%)	81%	81% of education aid was recorded on the Government's budget; overall it was 93% as reported by the 2011 OECD Survey. Country ownership is high and consultations on the development of national priorities are robust. A Performance Assessment Framework (PAF) has been developed for the education sector as the basis for annual discussions between Government and development partners on allocations and disbursements in the education sector.
Ind. 9.2 - Coordinated Technical Cooperation (%)	52%	About half of the technical cooperation among the development partners in the education sector was coordinated. Reporting partners noted that there is recognition among stakeholders of the urgent need for capacity building with respect to development planning at the sector and district levels for project implementation at the local level.
Ind. 9.3a / 9.3b - Use of Public Financial Management / Procurement Country Systems (%)	43% / 43%	About half of all education aid used PFM and procurement systems. There has been mixed progress in encouraging the use of country public financial management (PFM) and procurement systems by development partners. This is despite new financial management information systems and reforms to the PFM systems. A wide divergence in the use of PFM and procurement systems exists among development partners.
Ind. 9.4 - Number of Parallel Implementation Units	4	There were four parallel implementation units (PIUs) in operation in the education sector. Overall, Ghana has seen a significant reduction in the number of PIUs since its first OECD Survey in 2006. Only two of the development partners responding to the questionnaire reported using them.
Ind. 9.5 - Aid Provided through Program Based Approaches (%)	66%	About 66% of education aid was disbursed in support of a program-based approach (PBA). In the OECD Survey, stakeholders attribute improvements in this indicator to a new sector-wide approach developed for education in 2008. An education PBA or a program-based joint funding mechanism is not in place but under discussion.

Notes:

Except for the Global Partnership funding information, data provided in these Results forms were collected from national and other publicly available sources, and validated by the Local Education Group (LEG) in each country. LEGs are typically led by the Ministry of Education and include development partners and other education stakeholders. Data were not processed or analyzed by the Global Partnership for Education. It is reported as it was presented in the original sources, or as it was communicated to us through the Coordinating Agency or Lead Donor of the LEG.

The data derived from national sources may differ from international sources because of divergences in definitions, methods of calculation, or in some cases due to different underlying data. For these reasons, the data based on national sources in these Results Forms should not be used for making comparisons between countries, but rather for assessing the progress of individual countries.

(a) It includes P1 enrollment for public and private primary schools

(b) It includes JHS1 enrollment for public and private junior secondary schools

(c) The age for the population in basic education is 4-15 years: Kindergarten (4-5), primary (6-11), JHS (12-14)

(d) An additional grant of USD$14.2 million was approved in 2009, but it was cancelled because the conditions required by the World Bank were not met

(e) % of pupils achieving 35% of results or more in the test

(f) % of pupils achieving 55% of results or more in the test

(g) National Education Assessment (NEA), using multiple choice items with 4 options

(h) Information on this exercise, including the specific country profile with details on these results, can be found in this site: *http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2*. Results were compared with the median of all countries participating in this exercise for the education sector, with the results for all sectors in the country as presented in the 2011 OECD Survey on Monitoring the Paris Declaration, and with aid effectiveness targets for all sectors established by countries themselves to be achieved by 2010.

Sources of information:

Ghana's Government (2007). Country Information Form, Request for Funding to the Fast Track Initiative Catalytic Fund. Accra, Ghana.

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UIS (2011; 2012). Youth Literacy Rates (15-24 years old). UIS: Montreal, Canada.

Guinea-Bissau

Area	Indicator	Values				Targets					
		2009	2010	2011	2012	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%) (female)		39.80%								
	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%) (total)	71%	72.07%								
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)	5.00%				6.10%	7.10%	8.10%	9.20%	10.20%	10.20%
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)	138%	150%				149%	143%	138%	133%	127%
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR	0.93%	97% (a)								96.7% (b)
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER)	33%									
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR	59%	62%				65%	68%	72%	76%	80%
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR		79.6% (c)								88.6% (d)
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education	89%	86%			88%	87%	85%	84%	84%	84%
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)	66%	71%			68%	69%	72%	73%	75%	76%
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary										
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students	273,45	278,668			290,000	295,000	300,000	306,000	311,000	352,295
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers	3,874				4,163	4,469	4,791	5,129	5,485	6,989
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers					386	410	433	458	484	561
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms	2,575				2,805	3,053	3,320	3,605	3,911	4,276
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms					302	302	302	302	302	302
	Ind. 3.7 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary	20,768				22,500	24,243	25,991	27,753	29,584	31,390
	Ind. 3.8 – Lower Secondary Students		58,897								81,891
	Ind. 3.9 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers	1,488				1,624	1,761	1,900	2,047	2,196	2,346
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary New Teachers						50	50	50		
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms										55 (e)
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms							75	75		
	Ind. 3.13 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)		0.33					0.5	0.5		1
	Ind. 3.14 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)		0.33					0.5	0.5		1
	Ind. 3.15 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance										
Domestic Financing	Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending	11%	13%			12%	13.2	14.5	15.7	17	17%
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education	70%	55%								59%
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending										
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education										

External Aid to Education (in USD million)*

Indicator	Values	Targets			
	2010	2010	2011	2012	2013
d. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education	14.66	6.58	12.90	12.11	11.56
ADPP (from European Union)			*0.11*	*0.10*	*0.10*
ADPP (Humana People to People)			*0.10*	*0.00*	*0.00*
ADPP (Others)			*0.16*	*0.23*	*0.23*
Effective Intervention (f)			*0.91*	*1.07*	*0.82*
European Union	*2.04*	*2.04 (g)*	*4.77*	*4.77*	*4.77*
France (AFD and French Embassy)	*0.41 (h)*	*0.41 (h)*	*0.25*	*0.23*	*0.21*
Portuguese Cooperation	*10.01 (i)*		*4.25*	*4.22*	*3.94*
UNICEF (excluding Japan funds)	*2.2 (j)*	*4.13 (j)*	*0.86*	*1.50*	*1.50*
Japan (via UNICEF)			*1.49*	*0.00*	*0.00*
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education	0	2.04	6.68	5.96	5.62
ADPP (from European Union)			*0.11*	*0.10*	*0.10*
ADPP (Humana People to People)			*0.10*	*0.00*	*0.00*
ADPP (Others)			*0.16*	*0.23*	*0.23*
Effective Intervention (f)			*0.91*	*1.07*	*0.82*
European Union		*2.04*	*1.32*	*1.37*	*1.37*
France (AFD and French Embassy)	*0 (h)*	*0 (h)*	*0.25*	*0.23*	*0.21*
Portuguese Cooperation			*1.97*	*1.97*	*1.90*
UNICEF (excluding Japan funds)			*0.86*	*1.00*	*1.00*
Japan (via UNICEF)			*1.00*	*0.00*	*0.00*

* This information was reported by the Local Education Group in USD in 2011.

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	Lower secondary - grades 9 and 12
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	PASEC planned for 2014
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	2012 in some schools by UNICEF
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	No

Aid Effectiveness Indicators

Indicator	Results 2010	Information for GPE's 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector
Ind. 9.1 - Aid Alignment (%)	(k)	(k)
Ind. 9.2 - Coordinated Technical Cooperation (%)		
Ind. 9.3a / 9.3b - Use of Public Financial Management / Procurement Country Systems (%)		
Ind. 9.4 - Number of Parallel Implementation Units		
Ind. 9.5 - Aid Provided through Program Based Approaches (%)		

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	UNICEF
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	UNICEF, UNDP, UNESCO, World Bank, BAD
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	
Ind. 6.5 – Date of next JSR	

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	2011/12-2013/14
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	2010
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	N/A
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	N/A
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	2011
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	12
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	2012-2015
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	In progress
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	In progress
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	World Bank
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	Project
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	N/A

Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation – Annual disbursements (USD million)		
2013	**2014**	**2015**
1.00	4.00	7.00

Notes:

Except for the Global Partnership funding information, data provided in these Results forms were collected from national and other publicly available sources, and validated by the Local Education Group (LEG) in each country. LEGs are typically led by the Ministry of Education and include development partners and other education stakeholders. Data were not processed or analyzed by the Global Partnership for Education. It is reported as it was presented in the original sources, or as it was communicated to us through the Coordinating Agency or Lead Donor of the LEG.

The data derived from national sources may differ from international sources because of divergences in definitions, methods of calculation, or in some cases due to different underlying data. For these reasons, the data based on national sources in these Results Forms should not be used for making comparisons between countries, but rather for assessing the progress of individual countries.

(a) Based on female and male GIR (147.7%/151.7%=.973).

(b) Based on female and male GIR (125%/129.2%=.967).

(c) Based on female and male PCR (54.8%/68.8%=.796).

(d) Based on female and male PCR (65.8%/74.2%= .886).

(e) It includes lower and higher secondary levels.

(f) Projected forecast.

(g) Indicated for basic education.

(h) Indicated only by French Embassy.

(i) Exchange rate used: EUR1 = USD1.3827.

(j) It includes funds from UNICEF and Japan (via UNICEF)

(k) The country participated in the GPE 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector; however, the quality of data provided was not enough to be able to produce a country profile analyzing the aid effectiveness situation in the country. Data provided will be only used for the global report, to be soon published in this site: *http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2*.

Sources of information:

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Guinea

Area	Indicator	Values			Targets					
		2009	2010	2011	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%)		63.40							
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)	8.00	7.50	0.09	21.20	22.30	23.40	24.40	25.40	26.20
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)	82.00	82.35	83.21	82.60	84.40	86.10	87.90	89.60	91.30
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR	0.91	0.86	0.88	0.92	0.93	94.30	0.95	0.96	0.97
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER)	35.0	33.6	30.8						
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR	58.83	56.63	58.09	58.60	61.80	64.90	68.00	71.20	74.30
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR	0.69	0.66	0.74	0.76	0.79	0.82	0.85	0.87	0.90
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education	58.09	57.11	58.74	42.00	45.00	47.00	49.00	51.00	54.00
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)	36.48	37.75	32.91	34.50	35.70	37.00	38.20	39.40	40.70
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary	277,934	286,834	302,444	273,650	286,939	300,747	315,092	329,992	345,467
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students	1.38	1.45	1.53	1.48	1.56	1.64	1.72	1.81	1.89
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers (b)	27,812	28,863	30,068	24,082	25,748	27,500	29,342	31,278	33,311
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers (b)	1,236	(a)	3,095	2,267	2,388	2,525	2,667	2,816	2,971
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms	21,946	22,928	23,779	24,082	25,748	27,500	29,342	31,278	33,311
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms				1,592	1,666	1,752	1,842	1,936	20,033
	Ind. 3.7 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary	97,143	111,826	119,492	61,243	69,758	79,093	89,294	100,413	112,504
	Ind. 3.8 – Lower Secondary Students	405,087	419,367	446,151	331,677	360,459	391,098	423,668	458,343	494,900
	Ind. 3.9 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers (c)	7,352	7,630	7,948	4,976	5,656	6,430	7,310	8,314	9,460
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary New Teachers (c)	663	397	1,258	601	780	887	1,009	1,150	1,313
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms	3,352	3,417	3,627	3,185	3,622	4,119	4,685	5,331	6,068
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms				385	437	497	566	645	738
	Ind. 3.13 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)	0.94	0.91	0.81						
	Ind. 3.14 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)	1.08	0.95	0.79						
	Ind. 3.15 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance	Non								
Domestic Financing	Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending (d)	16.98%	15.22%	18.98%						
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education (d) (e)	62.7%	57.4%	50.8%						
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending (d)	18.21%	17.44%	20.26%						
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education (d) (e)	61.48%	61.27%	51.07%	62%	63.68%	65.21%	66.86%	68.45%	69.95%

External Aid to Education (in USD million)*

Indicator	Values	Targets			
	2010	2010	2011	2012	2013
Ind. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education	10.86	39.84	64.29	32.82	
AFD	*3.49*	*5.13*	*5.50*	*5.50*	
AfDB					
GIZ	*1.51*	*11.11*	*1.49*	*0.53*	
GPE	*1.39*		*11.85*	*50.76 (f)*	
KfW	*0*	*0*	*23.79*	*23.79*	*23.79*
UNICEF	*4.47*	*5.60*	*19.67*		
World Bank	*0.00*	*18.00*	*2.00*	*3.00*	
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education	7.37	7.51	31.52		
AFD					
AfDB					
GIZ	*1.51*	*1.91*			
GPE	*1.39*		*11.85*		
KfW	*0.00*	*0.00*			
UNICEF	*4.47*	*5.60*	*19.67*		
World Bank	*0.00*		*0.00*		

* This information was reported by the Local Education Group in USD in 2011.

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	Originally from 2008 to 2010, but extended until 2012
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	PEPT: 2002; EFA: 2007 (reviewed in 2011)
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	2001
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	70
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	2008
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	117 million, and adjusted in 2010 to 64 million. Additional funding of 10 million for the PEPT.
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	2008-2010; and adjusted to 2010-2013
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	18-Aug.-2008
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	15-Jan.-2013
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	World Bank (40 millions) and UNICEF (24 millions)
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	Project
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	35.9

Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation – Annual disbursements (USD million)

2010	2011	2012	2013
24	11.9	18	10.1

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	AFD
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	UNICEF, World Bank, GIZ, KfW, FKD, FSD, AfDB, IsDB, JICA, Plan Guinea, Aide & Action
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	FSPE, SLECG, FEGUIPAE, Plan Guinea, Aide et Action
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	Dec. 2011
Ind. 6.5 – Date of next JSR	May – Jun. 2012

Aid Effectiveness

Indicator	Results 2010	Information for GPE's 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector (g)
Ind. 9.1 - Aid Alignment (%)	99%	The World Bank and the KfW suspended their financing in 2010 because of a political crisis. However, almost all of the government budgetary provisions for the education sector were disbursed by donors.
Ind. 9.2 - Coordinated Technical Cooperation (%)	60%	60% of the technical cooperation disbursed to education was coordinated with the national strategies in 2010. Some efforts have been displayed in this regard, as illustrated by the development of a Strategy to Strengthen Capacities in the Education Sector by the government being supported by some donors in 2008 (and reviewed in 2011). This result is in line with the median of the reporting countries.
Ind. 9.3a / 9.3b - Use of Public Financial Management / Procurement Country Systems (%)	0% / 0%	No donor used the PFM or procurement country systems in 2010. They indicated that the absence of good governance prevent them of using these systems, and that if reforms are put in place, the progress is not optimal.
Ind. 9.4 - Number of Parallel Implementation Units	3	Three PIUs were accounted in the education sector in 2010, including the one set up for the pool fund. This result is in line with the median from reporting countries.
Ind. 9.5 - Aid Provided through Program Based Approaches (%)	46%	46% of the total disbursed aid to education was provided through PBAs, a figure slightly higher than the median of reporting countries. This is the result from the existence of a pool fund in the sector, an aid modality resulting addressing the reluctance of some donors to provide direct budget support. A PBA in the sector is getting shape, as indicated by donors, given that conditions for such kind of approach have been met, except for the use of the country systems.

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	Primary – 6th year of studies / Lower secondary – 10th year of studies
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	PASEC 1999 and 2005
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	2009, 2010 and 2011
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	EGRA 2011/12 and other in 4eme

Test	Class	Year	Subject	Mean	Minimal Competence	Optimal Competence	Maximal Competence	Success Rate (%)	Success Rate at the Beginning of the Year (%)	Success Rate at the End of the Year (%)
PASEC	CP2	1999	French	21.71	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
PASEC	CP2	1999	Math	25.45	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
PASEC	CP2	1999	French and Math	48.84	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
PASEC	CM1	1999	French	21.17	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
PASEC	CM1	1999	Math	13.13	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
PASEC	CM1	1999	French and Math	41.1	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
PASEC	CP2	2005	French and Math	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	37.8	49.6
PASEC	CM1	2005	French and Math	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	37.8	37.5
End of Cycle Assessment - Primary (CEPE)	CM2 (6th year)	2009	N/A	38.62	0.02	5.00	88.04	55.7	N/A	N/A
End of Cycle Assessment – Lower Secondary (BEPC)	10th year	2009	N/A	55.14	0.05	10.00	169.32	44.1	N/A	N/A
End of Cycle Assessment – Higher Secondary (BAC)	Terminale	2009	N/A	71.65	0.88	10.00	164.65	30.2	N/A	N/A
End of Cycle Assessment - Primary (CEPE)	CM2 (6th year)	2010	N/A	42.71	0.03	5.00	93.33	62.1	N/A	N/A
End of Cycle Assessment – Lower Secondary (BEPC)	10th year	2010	N/A	59.12	0.09	10.00	163.64	36.3	N/A	N/A
End of Cycle Assessment – Higher Secondary (BAC)	Terminale	2010	N/A	8.08	0.06	10.00	172.86	38.3	N/A	N/A
End of Cycle Assessment - Primary (CEPE)	CM2 (6th year)	2011	N/A	37.13	0.03	5.00	86.67	32.5	N/A	N/A
End of Cycle Assessment – Lower Secondary (BEPC)	10th year	2011	N/A	61.77	0.14	10.00	174.55	21.2	N/A	N/A
End of Cycle Assessment – Higher Secondary (BAC)	Terminale	2011	N/A	80.24	0.03	10.00	165.61	21, 2	N/A	N/A

Notes:

Except for the Global Partnership funding information, data provided in these Results forms were collected from national and other publicly available sources, and validated by the Local Education Group (LEG) in each country. LEGs are typically led by the Ministry of Education and include development partners and other education stakeholders. Data were not processed or analyzed by the Global Partnership for Education. It is reported as it was presented in the original sources, or as it was communicated to us through the Coordinating Agency or Lead Donor of the LEG.

The data derived from national sources may differ from international sources because of divergences in definitions, methods of calculation, or in some cases due to different underlying data. For these reasons, the data based on national sources in these Results Forms should not be used for making comparisons between countries, but rather for assessing the progress of individual countries.

(a) This figure was deleted because it was only composed of 2 digits.

(b) The Ministry of Education provided the figure of the total teachers in the public sector. The distribution of them between education levels (primary, lower secondary and higher secondary) was provided according to the SSP.

(c) This includes teachers from the primary and secondary (no division between lower secondary and higher secondary is provided).

(d) These indicators include the primary and lower secondary. The targets are no longer relevant, and they will be reviewed. The figures were calculated using the government execution's budgetary figures. The distribution of the MEPU-EC budget between primary, lower and higher secondary was done based on the number of actual students.

(e) The *Etats généraux de l'éducation* (October 2008) and the *Salon de l'éducation* (September 2011) recommended that basic education covers students in the age from 6 to 15 years old.

(f) This represents 64 million dollars – 11.85 million dollars disbursed in 2011 by the World Bank and 1.39 million dollars by UNICEF in 2010. This amount can be disbursed in 2012 or 2013.

(g) Information on this exercise, including the specific country profile with details on these results, can be found in this site: *http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2.* Results were compared with the median of all countries participating in this exercise for the education sector, with the results for all sectors in the country as presented in the 2011 OECD Survey on Monitoring the Paris Declaration, and with aid effectiveness targets for all sectors established by countries themselves to be achieved by 2010.

Sources of information:

Global Partnership for Education (2012). *2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector.* Country Profile Information based on information submitted by the Ministry of Education and Development Partners, Global Partnership for Education: Washington, D.C., United States.

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Kyrgyz Republic

Area	Indicator	Values			Targets					
		2009	2010	2011	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%)	99.7								
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)			13.0						
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)									
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR			0.98						
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER)									
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR			95.9						
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR									
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education									
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)			71.9 (a)						
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary			111,834						
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students			412,773						
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers			15,829						
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers									
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms									
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms									
	Ind. 3.7 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary									
	Ind. 3.8 – Lower Secondary Students			481,359 (a)						
	Ind. 3.9 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers			40,235 (a)						
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary New Teachers									
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms			2,204 (b)						
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms									
	Ind. 3.13 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)									
	Ind. 3.14 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)									
	Ind. 3.15 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance		2010							
Domestic Financing	Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending		18.6							
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education (c)		61.0							
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending									
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education (c)									

External Aid to Education (in USD million)*

Indicator	Values			Targets			
	2010	2011	2012	2010	2011	2012	2013
Ind. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education	13.52	5.50	6.80		8.06	9.64	10.64
EC	*2.80*				*4.20*	*5.00*	*6.00*
GIZ	*1.43*				*0.86*	*1.14*	*1.14*
UNICEF	*1.49*	*2.40*	*2.60*			*0.50*	*0.50*
World Bank	*7.80*	*3.10*	*4.20*		*3.00*	*3.00*	*3.00*
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education		3.10	4.20		5.40	0.60	3.50
EC							
GIZ							
UNICEF					*2.40*	*0.50*	*0.50*
World Bank		*3.10*	*4.20*		*3.00*	*0.10*	*3.00*

* This information was reported by the Local Education Group in USD in 2011.

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	Lower secondary - grade 9 / No at Primary
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	PISA in 2006 and 2009 (d)
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	The National Assessment of Student achievement 2007 and 2009 - grade 4 and 8
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	

Test	Grade (d)	Year	Subject	Mean Score
PISA	8-9 grade	2009	Reading (overall)	314
PISA	8-9 grade	2009	Reading (access and retrieve)	299
PISA	8-9 grade	2009	Reading (integrate and interpret)	327
PISA	8-9 grade	2009	Reading (reflect and evaluate)	300
PISA	8-9 grade	2009	Reading (continuous texts)	319
PISA	8-9 grade	2009	Reading (non-continuous texts)	293
PISA	8-9 grade	2009	Math	331
PISA	8-9 grade	2009	Science	330

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	UNICEF
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	ADB, World Bank, USAID, GIZ, EC, JICA
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	Open Society, Save the Children, Aga Khan Foundation
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	01-Jun-11
Ind. 6.5 – Date of next JSR	

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	2012-2020
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	2006
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	N/A
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	N/A
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	2006
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	15
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	2007-12
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	22-May-07
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	31-Aug-12
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	World Bank
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	Project
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	11.2

Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation - Annual disbursements (USD million)

2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
0.5	6.3	1.8	0.2	2.4	3.8

Aid Effectiveness Indicators

Indicator	Results 2010	Information for GPE's 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector (e)
Ind. 9.1 - Aid Alignment (%)	–	Complete information on the alignment of aid flows to national priorities was not available at publication time. However, all four education development partners participating in this exercise reported aligning their aid disbursements to national education priorities.
Ind. 9.2 - Coordinated Technical Cooperation (%)	60%	The performance of the education development partners with respect to coordinated technical cooperation (60%) is at the same level for the median of GPE countries participating in this exercise. However, the education sector performs below the overall performance of donor partners on the 2011 OECD Survey (81%). The 2010 Paris targets suggest a level of 50% alignment of technical assistance.
Ind. 9.3a / 9.3b - Use of Public Financial Management / Procurement Country Systems (%)	0% / 0%	Donor partners do not use country public financial management (PFM) and procurement systems for aid to the education sector. While the World Bank issued its Fiduciary Capacity Assessment Report in 2008, it has been reported that the perceived high level of corruption and declining transparency and accountability in PFM institutions are reasons for which development partners have not utilized these country systems.
Ind. 9.4 - Number of Parallel Implementation Units	2	There were two education parallel implementation units in operation by the donor partners in Kyrgyzstan. Given concerns about the quality of state financial institutions, assistance is provided using parallel structures.
Ind. 9.5 - Aid Provided through Program Based Approaches (%)	50%	Development partners provided half of their education aid through program-based approaches. This is above the 2011 OECD Survey result for the country and shows that the education sector is ahead of the game also compared to other countries reporting in the monitoring exercise.

Notes:

Except for the Global Partnership funding information, data provided in these Results forms were collected from national and other publicly available sources, and validated by the Local Education Group (LEG) in each country. LEGs are typically led by the Ministry of Education and include development partners and other education stakeholders. Data were not processed or analyzed by the Global Partnership for Education. It is reported as it was presented in the original sources, or as it was communicated to us through the Coordinating Agency or Lead Donor of the LEG.

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(a) It includes all secondary grades (Grade 5-11), not only lower secondary school

(b) It also includes primary school

(c) Basic education includes pupils aged 7 to 17 years

(d) Pupils who were 15 years old participated in the PISA, some of them were at grade 8 and some at grade 9

(e) Information on this exercise, including the specific country profile with details on these results, can be found in this site: *http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2*. Results were compared with the median of all countries participating in this exercise for the education sector, with the results for all sectors in the country as presented in the 2011 OECD Survey on Monitoring the Paris Declaration, and with aid effectiveness targets for all sectors established by countries themselves to be achieved by 2010.

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Lao People's Democratic Republic

Area	Indicator	Values					Targets					
		2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%)	84.0										
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)		19.7	22.1	24.5	28.6						
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)		126.1	126.0	120.0	121.9		126.8				
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR		0.9	1.0	1.0	0.9		1.0				
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER)		8.4	7.3	5.9	4.8						
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR		76.6	79.0	80.0	82.4		77.0				
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR		1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0		1.1				
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education		80.4	80.8	81.5	83.3						
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)		87.4	85.7	87.7	88.2						
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary		190,073	188,732	177,513	178,863						
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students		908,880	916,341	900,123	883,938		935,031				
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers		29,060	31,782	33,576	34,453 (a)						
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers		(b)	2,722	1,794	877						
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms		30,107	31,648	31,057	31,957						
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms		338	1,541	(b)	900						
	Ind. 3.7 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary		101,262	103,475	107,198	115,119						
	Ind. 3.8 – Lower Secondary Students		264,579 (c)	335,388	345,283	361,875						
	Ind. 3.9 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers											
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary New Teachers											
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms		6,003	8,103	8,560	9,217						
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms			2,100	457	657						
	Ind. 3.13 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)											
	Ind. 3.14 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)											
	Ind. 3.15 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance											
Domestic Financing	Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending		15.7	11.0	11.4	13.1		12.0				
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education (d)							38.9	37.0	0.3	35.8	0.4
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending		16.2	10.5	10.8	11.4						
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education (d)											

External Aid to Education (in USD million)*

Indicator	Values				Targets			
	2008	2009	2010	2011	2011	2012	2013	2014
Ind. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education	5.18	12.51	56.71	43.38	64.96	78.91	110.79	38.20
ADB	*5.18*	*12.51*	*13.54*	*10.21*	*13.54*	*10.21*	*12.78*	*16.5*
AusAID			*11.85*	*15.68*	*11.85*	*15.68*	*19.60*	
European Commission			*1.08*	*0.32*	*0.95*			
Germany (GIZ and KfW)			*7.17*		*4.10*	*4.40*	*3.38*	
GPE			*2.00*	*4.60*		*6.70*	*18.10*	
INGOs					*9.75*	*14.84*	*11.33*	
JICA			*10.53*		*14.69*	*14.69*	*14.69*	
UNESCO			*0.22*	*1.05*	*0.66*	*1.05*	*0.30*	
UNICEF			*4.20*	*1.50*	*3.30*	*1.60*	*2.50*	
WFP			*4.87*	*4.93*	*4.87*	*4.93*	*9.41*	
World Bank			*1.25*	*5.09*	*1.25*	*4.80*	*6.90*	
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education	5.14	11.20	29.12	32.58	32.29	44.30	59.28	2.05
ADB	*5.14*	*11.20*	*10.67*	*6.66*	*10.67*	*6.66*	*2.43*	*2.05*
AusAID			*5.99*	*9.50*	*5.99*	*9.50*	*12.58*	
European Commission								
Germany (GIZ and KfW)								
GPE			*2.00*	*4.60*		*6.70*	*18.10*	
INGOs					*6.03*	*9.81*	*7.12*	
JICA								
UNESCO			*0.22*	*0.30*	*0.26*	*0.30*	*0.24*	
UNICEF			*4.20*	*1.50*	*3.30*	*1.60*	*2.50*	
WFP			*4.87*	*4.93*	*4.87*	*4.93*	*9.41*	
World Bank			*1.18*	*5.09*	*1.18*	*4.80*	*6.90*	

* This information was reported by the Local Education Group in USD in 2011.

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	Primary - grade 5 / Lower secondary - grade 9
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	PASEC in 2011/12
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	Assessment of Student Learning Outcomes (ASLO)
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	EGRA planned in 2012/13

Test	Grade	Year	Subject	Mean Score	Minimum Competency (%)	Proficiency (%)
National Assessment	Grade 5	2006	Language	500	78.40	17.00
National Assessment	Grade 5	2006	Math	500	33.60	1.00
National Assessment	Grade 5	2006	World Around Us	500	42.00	42.10
National Assessment	Grade 5	2009	Language	509	77.60	19.13
National Assessment	Grade 5	2009	Math	485	27.08	0.16
National Assessment	Grade 5	2009	World Around Us	498	44.20	43.30

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	Australia, UNICEF
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	ADB, BTC, China, European Commission , France, Germany, Japan, JICA, KOICA, Korea, Luxembourg, Poland, SIDA, Singapore, Thailand, UNESCO, UNICEF, US Embassy, Vietnam, WFP, World Bank.
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	Acting as rotating iNGO Focal Point - Save the Children/Plan International/Catholic Relief Services/ Action for Lao Children
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	01-Apr-11
Ind. 6.5 – Date of next JSR	12-Mar-12

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	2009-2015
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	2009
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	N/A
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	N/A
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	2010
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	30
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	2010-2013
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	12-Aug-10
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	31-Aug-13
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	World Bank
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	Project
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	6.6

Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation – Annual disbursements (USD million)			
2010	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**
2.00	4.6	18.10	5.30

Aid Effectiveness Indicators

Indicator	Results 2010	Information for GPE's 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector (e)
Ind. 9.1 - Aid Alignment (%)	100%	The submitted data shows that the nine reporting development partners disbursed to a great extend their education aid 'on budget'. However, there are difficulties with reporting of commitments and actual disbursements related to the discrepancy between Government's fiscal year and some development partners reporting on calendar year.
Ind. 9.2 - Coordinated Technical Cooperation (%)	76%	Approximately two-thirds of technical assistance was coordinated among development partners, although they may have different interpretations of this term. There was no capacity development plan in place although the finalization of the Education Sector Development Framework (ESDF) helped to clarify Government's priorities for the sector including capacity needs.
Ind. 9.3a / 9.3b - Use of Public Financial Management / Procurement Country Systems (%)	28% / 22%	The use of country public financial management (PFM) and procurement systems is low. Although capacity development and reform measures have been implemented, development partners respond to the 'high risk' environment with continuing to provide large parts of their support through projects and maintaining additional safeguards. The overall results from the 2011 OECD Survey reflect similar low findings. It was reported that development partners' PFM requirements need to be clearly identified so that Government can implement further strengthening measures to meet these needs.
Ind. 9.4 - Number of Parallel Implementation Units	0	It was reported that there were no parallel implementation units (PIUs) in place but, it was also reported that semi-integrated PIUs are used by some development partners for the implementation of their projects.
Ind. 9.5 - Aid Provided through Program Based Approaches (%)	17%	Australia, the World Bank and the Global Partnership for Education jointly work together in one program pooling their funds (USD 65.5 million 2010-13). It is not regarded as a program-based approach because numerous variables are missing to develop such. The overall national environment does not seem to enable PBAs looking at the low OECD result. It seems necessary that development partners find ways to decrease the use of project funding towards more harmonized and aligned approaches. Subsequently, country PFM and procurement systems need to be strengthened so that more development partners engage in these programs.

Notes:

Except for the Global Partnership funding information, data provided in these Results forms were collected from national and other publicly available sources, and validated by the Local Education Group (LEG) in each country. LEGs are typically led by the Ministry of Education and include development partners and other education stakeholders. Data were not processed or analyzed by the Global Partnership for Education. It is reported as it was presented in the original sources, or as it was communicated to us through the Coordinating Agency or Lead Donor of the LEG.

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(a) This refers to the number of contracted teachers

(b) Dropped because number was negative

(c) This information is not comparable with further data since in 2009/10, an extra year was added to lower secondary

(d) The age of the population in basic and primary education is from 6 to 10 years old (grades 1 to 5).

(e) Information on this exercise, including the specific country profile with details on these results, can be found in this site: *http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2*. Results were compared with the median of all countries participating in this exercise for the education sector, with the results for all sectors in the country as presented in the 2011 OECD Survey on Monitoring the Paris Declaration, and with aid effectiveness targets for all sectors established by countries themselves to be achieved by 2010.

Sources of information:

Global Partnership for Education (2012). *2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector.* Country Profile Information based on information submitted by Development Partners, Global Partnership for Education: Washington, D.C., United States.

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Liberia

Area	Indicator	Values			Targets					
		2009	2010	2011	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%)	76.0	76.50							
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)	135.0%			128.0%	122.0%	116.0%	109.0%	103.0%	97.0%
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)	111%			109%	107%	106.0%	104%	102%	100.0%
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR	0.93			0.95	0.95	0.97	0.97	0.99	1.00
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER)	60			54	49	43	38	33	27
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR	65%			68%	71%	75%	78%	81%	84%
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR	0.87			0.88	0.91	0.91	0.93	0.95	0.95
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education	72%			72%	72%	73%	73%	73%	73%
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)	38%			40%	42%	45%	48%	50%	53%
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary									
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students	605,236		674,534	570,000	586,687	634,000	621,606	639,805	658,000
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers	22,120		25,137	10,791	11,443	12,073	12,698	13,330	13,980
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers									
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms	18,148		21,687						
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms							418		
	Ind. 3.7 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary									
	Ind. 3.8 – Lower Secondary Students	117,507		138,029	120,150	129,905	140,173	150,977	162,341	174,288
	Ind. 3.9 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers	8,574		9,919	2,260	2,394	2,540	2,697	2,867	3,050
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary New Teachers									
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms	2,971		3,673						
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms									
	Ind. 3.13 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)	16 (a)		3 (b)						
	Ind. 3.14 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)	15 (c)		3 (d)						
	Ind. 3.15 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance									
Domestic Financing	Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending									
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education (e)									
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending	12%			14%	15%	16%	16%	17%	18%
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education (e)	40%			41%	42%	43%	44%	45%	45%

External Aid to Education (in USD million)*

Indicator	Values	Targets				
	2010	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Ind. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education	30.46	0.60	10.00	25.00	5.00	5.00
UNICEF	*8.51*					
USAID	*21.61*					
World Bank	*0.34*	*0.60*	*10.00*	*25.00*	*5.00*	*5.00*
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education	8.51	0.60	10.00	25.00	5.00	5.00
UNICEF	*8.51*					
USAID						
World Bank		*0.60*	*10.00*	*25.00*	*5.00*	*5.00*

* This information was reported by the Local Education Group in USD in 2011.

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	Grades 9 and 12 - Primary School Leaving examination
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	Grade 9 and 12 - West Africa Examination Council (WAEC)
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	Early Grade Mathematics Assessment (EGMA)
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	Early Grade Reading Assessment (EGRA)

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	UNICEF
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	EC, UNESCO, USAID, World Bank, WFP
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	OSI/Soros Foundations Network
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	2009
Ind. 6.5 – Date of next JSR	August 7 - 9, 2012

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	2010-2020
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	2007, 2009
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	N/A
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	N/A
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	2010
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	40
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	2010-2013
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	9/29/10
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	6/30/13
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	World Bank
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	Project
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	6

Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation – Annual disbursements (USD million)

2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
6	5	12.00	12.00	5.00

Aid Effectiveness Indicators

Indicator	Results 2010	Information for GPE's 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector (f)
Ind. 9.1 - Aid Alignment (%)	–	It was not possible to determine the percentage of aid registered 'on budget' by the Ministry of Education because they did not submit data on its budget estimates per education donor partner.
Ind. 9.2 - Coordinated Technical Cooperation (%)	99%	Strong efforts to coordinate technical cooperation were reported, thus accounting for the high score for the education donor partners in this indicator, at almost 100%. Technical cooperation of development partners in the country overall, at 77%, is also strong (2011 OECD Survey).
Ind. 9.3a / 9.3b - Use of Public Financial Management / Procurement Country Systems (%)	0% / 0%	Weak institutional capacity issues explain the non-use of the country's public financial management (PFM) and procurement systems. The education development partners and Government are well aware of the challenges facing Government's financial and procurement systems. In the education sector, the Project Financial Management Unit (PFMU) was established at the Ministry of Finance to strengthen financial capacity. The PFMU administered funding for the LPERP program and is used to manage funding from the GPE Catalytic Fund.
Ind. 9.4 - Number of Parallel Implementation Units	1	In 2010, there was just one parallel implementation unit (PIU) in use in Liberia's education sector. The PFMU is considered to be a PIU although it is embedded in the Ministry of Finance. Overall, there are just four PIUs in operation in Liberia in total (2011 OECD Survey).
Ind. 9.5 - Aid Provided through Program Based Approaches (%)	6%	In 2010, virtually none of the education aid provided to Liberia comes in a program-based approach form, in part due to PFM and procurement challenges. The notable exception was the funding through the Education Pooled Fund for the LPERP. Again, the result for the development partners in the education sector is mirrored by development partners in Liberia overall, as just 12% of aid uses these approaches.

Notes:

Except for the Global Partnership funding information, data provided in these Results forms were collected from national and other publicly available sources, and validated by the Local Education Group (LEG) in each country. LEGs are typically led by the Ministry of Education and include development partners and other education stakeholders. Data were not processed or analyzed by the Global Partnership for Education. It is reported as it was presented in the original sources, or as it was communicated to us through the Coordinating Agency or Lead Donor of the LEG.

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(a) Out of a total of 36,722 manuals

(b) Out of a total of 202,310 manuals

(c) Out of a total of 39,683 manuals

(d) Out of a total of 213,466 manuals

(e) The age for the population in basic education is from 5 to 17 years old (ECE - 3-5 years; primary 6-11 years; junior high 12-14 years; senior high 15-17 years)

(f) Information on this exercise, including the specific country profile with details on these results, can be found in this site: *http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2*. Results were compared with the median of all countries participating in this exercise for the education sector, with the results for all sectors in the country as presented in the 2011 OECD Survey on Monitoring the Paris Declaration, and with aid effectiveness targets for all sectors established by countries themselves to be achieved by 2010.

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Madagascar

Area	Indicator	Values			Targets					
		2009	2010	2011	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%)	64.9								
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)	9.54 (a)	9.9	10.4			20 (b)			
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)	182.8	177.9	173.1						
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR	1.0	1.0	1.0						
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER) (g)	11.1	11.7	8 (c)	10 (d)		6 (c)	4 (c)	3 (c)	1 (e)
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR (g)	76.5	74.3	72.16 (f)	74 (h; i)		82 (h; j)	87 (h; k)	91 (h; l)	94 (h; m)
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR		1.0	1.0	1.0 (n)					1.0 (n)
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education	56.0	64.2	67.3						83.0
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)	38.0	55.5	46.8						
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary	1,108,642	1,109,523	1,110,709	1,052,256	1,026,062	999,114 (h)	971,443 (h)	943,013 (h)	913,781 (h)
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students (millions)	4,323,981	4,329,577	4,305,069	4,713,000	4,719,000	4,958,000 (h)	5,071,000 (h)	5,156,000 (h)	5,221,000 (h)
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers	69,613	73,636	80,428	72,463	79,656	85250 (h)	88,834 (h)	92,091 (h)	95,170 (h)
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers	4,652 (o)	4,023	4,822	6,000	6,000	6,000	6,000	6,000	6,000
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms	63,178	69,547	74,778	60,535	65,448	69,302 (h)	71,928 (h)	74,263 (h)	76,586 (h)
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms	697 (p)	N/A	N/A	3,000	3,000	3,000 (h)	3,000 (h)	3,000 (h)	3,000 (h)
	Ind. 3.7 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary	246,261	327,982	316,189						
	Ind. 3.8 – Lower Secondary Students	816,537	920,464	1,049,991		527,506	431,026 (h)	494,074 (h)	572,657 (h)	728,626
	Ind. 3.9 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers	16,582 (q)	18,066	19,610	13,684	10,797	10,317 (h)	10,317 (h)	10,509 (h)	13,546 (h)
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary New Teachers	3,092	1,484	1,544		2,700	2,700			
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms	9,058 (r)	9,367 (r)	11,473 (r)						
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms	1,129	309	2,106 (s)	176	300	300	546 (h)	546 (h)	546 (h)
	Ind. 3.13 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)									
	Ind. 3.14 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)		6,369	5,231						
	Ind. 3.15 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance									
Domestic Financing	Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending	21.4	18.3	20.3		19.8				
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education (u)	72.1	60.8	64.8						
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending	17.1	22.7	18.7 (h)		14.66 (t)	16.2	16.4		
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education (u)	56.4	53.0			51.05 (t)	53.0	53.0		

External Aid to Education (in USD million)*

Indicator	Values	Targets			
	2010	2010	2011	2012	2013
Ind. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education (v)	38.84	28.62	37.41	40.80	7.78
European Commission	*0.30*				
France (AFD and Embassy)	*6.07*	*6.07*	*2.17*	*2.17*	*1.87*
GPE	*15.00*	*15.00*	*18.60*	*26.98*	
ILO	*4.06*	*0.00*	*0.00*	*0.00*	*0.00*
JICA	*0.03*				
Norway	*1.74*		*7.25*	*6.25*	*4.58*
UNESCO	*0.06*				
UNICEF	*7.55*	*7.55*	*9.39*	*5.40*	*1.33*
WB (GPE)	*2.15*				
WFP	*1.88*	*0.00*	*0.00*	*0.00*	*0.00*
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education	0.60	22.55	0	0	0
European Commission					
France (AFD and Embassy)					
GPE		*15.00*			
ILO	*0.60*		*0*	*0*	*0*
JICA					
Norway					
UNESCO					
UNICEF		*7.55*			
WB (GPE)					
WFP			*0*	*0*	*0*

* This information was reported by the Local Education Group in USD in 2011.

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	PASEC: 1998 and 2005
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	Monitoring Learning Achievement (MLA) : 1997 - 4ème , primary (CM1) 2003 - 8ème, secondary
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	EGRA

Test	Class	Year	Subject	Mean Score
PASEC	CM2	1998	French	42.6
PASEC	CM2	1998	Math	59.1
PASEC	CM2	2005	French	31.4
PASEC	CM2	2005	Math	51.2

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	World Bank
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	UNICEF, AFD, ILO, Norway, JICA, AfDB, BADEA, OPEP, WFP
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	May - 2011
Ind. 6.5 – Date of next JSR	

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	2010-2012
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	2005; 2008
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	2005
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	60
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	2008
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	64.1 (implementation through 3 grants: 15 in 2010; 22.018 in 2011 and 27.082 in 2012)
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	2009-2014
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	5-Nov.-09
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	30-Jun.-13
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	UNICEF
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	Project
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	37

Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation – Annual disbursements (USD million)

2010	2011	2012
15	22.01	27.08

Aid Effectiveness Indicators

Indicator	Results 2010	Information for GPE's 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector (l)
Ind. 9.1 - Aid Alignment (%)	21%	The aid alignment in the education sector was low in 2010, and was also lower than the alignment for the rest of sectors (all together). The political situation prevented the direct disbursement of aid to the government's budget by most of donors. 80% of disbursed aid was not accounted in the budgetary previsions.
Ind. 9.2 - Coordinated Technical Cooperation (%)	31%	Only 31% of the technical cooperation for the education sector was coordinated with the national priorities 2010 (30%), while 83% of the technical cooperation was reported to be coordinated for the rest of the sectors (all together).
Ind. 9.3a / 9.3b - Use of Public Financial Management / Procurement Country Systems (%)	20% / 20%	Only 20% of the aid disbursed to education used the PFM and procurement country systems in 2010. This result was lower than the median performance of reporting countries, but higher than the result reported for the rest of the sectors in the country (all together).
Ind. 9.4 - Number of Parallel Implementation Units	7	Donors used 7 PIUs in 2010 for the education sector, indicating the reluctance from donors to use the country systems.
Ind. 9.5 - Aid Provided through Program Based Approaches (%)	29%	29% of disbursed aid to education in 2010 was provided through PBAs. This figure was higher than the use of these approaches in the rest of the sectors (all together).

Notes:

Except for the Global Partnership funding information, data provided in these Results forms were collected from national and other publicly available sources, and validated by the Local Education Group (LEG) in each country. LEGs are typically led by the Ministry of Education and include development partners and other education stakeholders. Data were not processed or analyzed by the Global Partnership for Education. It is reported as it was presented in the original sources, or as it was communicated to us through the Coordinating Agency or Lead Donor of the LEG.

The data derived from national sources may differ from international sources because of divergences in definitions, methods of calculation, or in some cases due to different underlying data. For these reasons, the data based on national sources in these Results Forms should not be used for making comparisons between countries, but rather for assessing the progress of individual countries.

(a) Calculated based on population data from the 2010 household survey.

(b) Objective of the Madagascar Action Plan (MAP).

(c) Estimated based on the net enrollment rate for 6 to 10 years old pupils.

(d) The figure differs according to the grade: 10% (grades 1-5) and 51% (grades 6-7).

(e) The figure differs according to the grade: 1% (grades 1-5) and 32% (grades 6-7).

(f) This refers to grades 1 to 5.

(g) These indicators show two different series of values before and after 2011, because in this year the country restructured its education system from 5-4-3 years of study to 7-3-2.

(h) It indicates projections.

(i) The figure differs according to the grade: 75% (grades 1-5) and 40% (grades 6-7).

(j) The figure differs according to the grade: 82% (grades 1-5) and 51% (grades 6-7).

(k) The figure differs according to the grade: 87% (grades 1-5) and 57% (grades 6-7).

(l) The figure differs according to the grade: 91% (grades 1-5) and 61% (grades 6-7).

(m) The figure differs according to the grade: 94% (grades 1-5) and 65% (grades 6-7).

(n) Estimated according to the total PCR and female PCR up to grade 5.

(o) This includes FRAM-recruited teachers.

(p) This indicates the new classrooms built by the State.

(q) This indicates the number of teachers in public schools, including the reform teachers (semi-specialized teachers recruited to teach grades of 6ème and 7ème of primary school, in the context of a reform to the structure of primary education).

(r) This indicates the number of classrooms in public schools.

(s) This indicates the difference between the classrooms in year t and t-1.

(t) The source of information indicates that this figure can change because it was submitted at the beginning of 2011.

(u) The age of the population in basic education is from 6 to 10 years old.

(v) The amounts indicated refer to the donor that executed the funding (and not to the donor that provided the funds), especially in the case of Norway that transferred most of its funding to the United Nations agencies.

(w) Information on this exercise, including the specific country profile with details on these results, can be found in this site: *http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2*. Results were compared with the median of all countries participating in this exercise for the education sector, with the results for all sectors in the country as presented in the 2011 OECD Survey on Monitoring the Paris Declaration, and with aid effectiveness targets for all sectors established by countries themselves to be achieved by 2010.

Sources of information:

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Malawi

Area	Indicator	Values			Targets					
		2009	2010	2011	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%)		87.07%							
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)				33.0%	45.0%	55.0%	65.0%		
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)	205%	206%	205%	142%		136.4%	138%		
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR	1%	1.02%	1.04%	1.03	1.00%	1.00%	1.03		
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER)	17						12		
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR	59%	59%	61%	40%			55%		
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR									
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education	40%	34.76%	32.44%	39%	38%	37%	36%	35%	35%
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)									
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary	676,086	699,032	661,224			629,553			
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students	3,671,481	3,868,643	4,034,220	3,697,000	3,985,845	3,738,709	4,159,702	4,225,415	4,329,832
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers	48,963	48,170	53,031	45,792 (a)	46,763 (a)	58,750 (a)	51,473 (a)	53,173 (a)	56,791 (a)
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers		8,263		8,000	8,778				
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms	37,706	38,289	38,387	40,289	42,289	46,096	60,710	60,354	59,998
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms		544		1,430	1,500	2,197	2,197	2,197	2,197
	Ind. 3.7 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary	67,680 (b)	67,271	65,541						
	Ind. 3.8 – Lower Secondary Students	142,226 (c)	137,061	138,764			316,019			
	Ind. 3.9 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers	11,397	10,951	11,300	11,261	11,385	11,519 (d)	12,719 (d)	13,978 (d)	15,321 (d)
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary New Teachers				330	330	330	330	330	330
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms	5,258	5,019	5,229	4,034	4,299	4,597	5,003	5,410	5,813
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms		32		160	84				
	Ind. 3.13 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)	4.614	1.606	2.095	1	1	1	1	1	1
	Ind. 3.14 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)	3.1016 (e)	1.5276 (e)	2.1602 (e)	1	1	1	1	1	1
	Ind. 3.15 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance									
Domestic Financing	Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending									
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education (g)									
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending (f)	18.6%	24.0%	25.6%	20%	20%	20%	20%	20%	20%
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education (f) (g)		55.8%	59.8%	50%	55%	60%	60%	60%	60%

External Aid to Education (in USD million)*

Indicator	Values	Targets				
	2010	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Ind. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education	107.85 (h)	98.66	115.26	128.83	82.74	72.74
AfDB	*7.43*	*4.01*	*3.13*	*5.00*	*4.00*	*4.00*
CIDA	*2.05*	*1.00*	*1.00*	*1.00*	*1.00*	*1.00*
DFID	*21.12*	*27.84*	*25.52*	*24.32*	*24.32*	*24.32*
GIZ	*2.05*	*5.94*	*30.00*	*45.00*	*0.00*	*0.00*
GPE	*15.00*	*15.00*	*3.64*	*3.09*	*3.09*	*3.09*
JICA	*4.91*	*6.21*	*5.94*	*0.09*	*0.00*	*0.00*
KFW	*7.24*	*7.48*	*7.48*	*5.78*	*5.78*	*5.78*
UNICEF	*7.61*	*7.18*	*7.18*	*7.18*	*7.18*	*7.18*
USAID	*13.04*	*10.00*	*10.00*	*10.00*	*10.00*	*10.00*
WFP	*11.56*	*8.00*	*12.37*	*12.37*	*12.37*	*12.37*
World Bank	*9.56*	*6.00*	*9.00*	*15.00*	*15.00*	*5.00*
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education		5.44	17.80	22.80	18.80	
AfDB						
CIDA						
DFID		*5.44*				
GIZ						
GPE						
JICA						
KFW						
UNICEF			*3.80*	*3.80*	*3.80*	
USAID			*8.00*	*10.00*		
WFP						
World Bank			*6.00*	*9.00*	*15.00*	

* This information was reported by the Local Education Group in USD in 2011.

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	Primary - grade 8 (2009 and 2011) / Lower secondary - Form 2 (2009, 2010 and 2011)
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	SACMEQ - 2000 and 2007
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	No progress in plans to develop two standard assessments in 2010/11
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	EGRA in 2010

Test	Grade	Year	Subject	Mean Score
SACMEQ	Standard 6	2000	Reading	429 (i)
SACMEQ	Standard 6	2000	Math	433 (i)
SACMEQ	Standards 3,5,7	2007	Reading	433 (i)
SACMEQ	Standards 3,5,7	2007	Math	447 (i)

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	USAID
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	ADB, GIZ, DFID, JICA, CIDA, UNICEF, JICA, World Bank
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	Save the Children, Development Aid from People to People (DAPP)
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	01-nov-11
Ind. 6.5 – Date of next JSR	Late Nov / early Dec 2012

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	2008-2017
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	2009
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	N/A
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	N/A
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	2010
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	90
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	2010-2013
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	22-nov-10
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	30-jun-15
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	World Bank
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	Sector budget support
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	15

Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation – Annual disbursements (USD million)

2011	2012	2013	2014
15	43.2	23.00	8.80

Aid Effectiveness Indicators

Indicator	Results 2010	Information for GPE's 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector (j)
Ind. 9.1 - Aid Alignment (%)	47%	Approximately 47% of aid flows by the reporting development partners are aligned with national education priorities. However, information for this indicator was narrow since the MoEST only provided information for three out of the nine development partners. The result therefore needs to be looked at with caution. All education aid is disbursed in support of the implementation of the ESIP. It is expected that in 2011 alignment on government budget will increase because of the SWAp and the JFA. The 2011 OECD Survey finds that 79% of all aid to Malawi was on budget.
Ind. 9.2 - Coordinated Technical Cooperation (%)	40%	About 40% of technical cooperation is provided in a coordinated manner by the reporting development partners, compared to a 50% score overall measured by the 2011 OECD Survey.
Ind. 9.3a / 9.3b - Use of Public Financial Management / Procurement Country Systems (%)	13% / 7%	Only 13% of aid disbursed in the education sector used national public financial management systems and only 7% national procurement systems. This is low compared to the 2011 OECD Survey results for this indicator (66%). It was reported that the use of country systems would increase in 2011 with the use of the pooled fund through the JFA and the implementation of capacity strengthening strategies through the SWAp Secretariat structure and the new Capacity Development Strategy.
Ind. 9.4 - Number of Parallel Implementation Units	3	Three parallel project implementation units (PIUs) were in use in the education sector. It was reported that efforts were made throughout 2009 and 2010 to integrate existing units and avoid the set up of new ones. The launch of the SWAp indicates the broad commitment by MoEST and development partners to work together, and the JFA stipulates a roadmap towards the increased use of both national PFM and procurement systems. A number of structures equivalent to PIUs are still functioning, but these are considered part of the SWAp, in support of the NESP.
Ind. 9.5 - Aid Provided through Program Based Approaches (%)	78%	78% of aid is provided through a program-based approach, and this is an indicator against which Malawi may yield lessons for other partner countries. This is a result above the performance measured by the 2011 OECD Survey of 51%.

Notes:

Except for the Global Partnership funding information, data provided in these Results forms were collected from national and other publicly available sources, and validated by the Local Education Group (LEG) in each country. LEGs are typically led by the Ministry of Education and include development partners and other education stakeholders. Data were not processed or analyzed by the Global Partnership for Education. It is reported as it was presented in the original sources, or as it was communicated to us through the Coordinating Agency or Lead Donor of the LEG.

The data derived from national sources may differ from international sources because of divergences in definitions, methods of calculation, or in some cases due to different underlying data. For these reasons, the data based on national sources in these Results Forms should not be used for making comparisons between countries, but rather for assessing the progress of individual countries.

(a) It excludes private schools

(b) It refers to enrollment to Form 1

(c) It refers to Form 1 and 2

(d) It includes government supported teachers and those in the open secondary

(e) It only includes English textbooks

(f) It refers to fiscal years

(g) Primary education refers to Grades 1-8 (excluding lower secondary). It will become Basic education once early childhood development is funded by Government (currently only by donor partners)

(h) It does not include General Budget Support

(i) Not clear to which grade these scores refer to. Last SACMEQ was conducted in standards 3, 5 and 7. SACMEQ data is collected every five years since 1998. The first SACMEQ tested learners on English; the second on English and Math; the third on English, Math, and HIV/AIDs. The focus is and has remained pupil gain scores at standard six.

(j) Information on this exercise, including the specific country profile with details on these results, can be found in this site: *http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2*. Results were compared with the median of all countries participating in this exercise for the education sector, with the results for all sectors in the country as presented in the 2011 OECD Survey on Monitoring the Paris Declaration, and with aid effectiveness targets for all sectors established by countries themselves to be achieved by 2010.

Sources of information:

Global Partnership for Education (2012). *2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector*. Country Profile Information based on information submitted by the Ministry of Education and Development Partners, Global Partnership for Education: Washington, D.C., United States.

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M&E Indicator Framework

UIS (2012). Youth Literacy Rates (15-24 years old). UIS: Montreal, Canada.

Mauritania

Area	Indicator	Values					Targets					
		2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%)				68.31%							
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)			6%			10%	10%	11%	11%	12%	13%
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)			106%	103.9%	105%	104%	103%	102%	101%	100%	100%
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR			105%	105%	107%	100%					
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER)			27%		27.3%						
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR			69%	65%	73%		68%	71.54% (a)	74.61% (a)	77.62% (a)	81.35% (a)
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR			108%	105%	105%						
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education			37%	42%	53%	49%	50%	50.14% (a)	50.75% (a)	51.36% (a)	51.96% (a)
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)			18%	19%	21%	18%	19%	21%	23%	24%	26%
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary											
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students			512,998	531,383	535,976						
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers			13,131		13,640						
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers								319.25	319.25	319.25	319.25
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms			12,247		13,280						
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms											1,688
	Ind. 3.7 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary			17,930	23,672	32,358						
	Ind. 3.8 – Lower Secondary Students			70,492	80,888	91,341						
	Ind. 3.9 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers											
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary New Teachers								225	225	225	225
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms											
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms								87.5	87.5	87.5	87.5
	Ind. 3.13 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)											
	Ind. 3.14 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)											
	Ind. 3.15 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance											
Domestic Financing	Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending			14.9%	14.5%	13.9%						
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education			77.0%	75.6%	80.3%						
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending			20.9%	22%	19%						
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education			44%	51.2%	60.79% (a)			37% (a)	37% (a)	38% (a)	44% (a)

External Aid to Education (in USD million)*

Indicator	Values		Targets			
	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Ind. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education	13.21	11.34				
AFD	*4.21*	*0.99*				
IsDB	*2.90*	*4.40*				
Spain	*1.00*	*1.65*				
UNESCO		*0.07*				
UNICEF	*5.10*	*4.15*				
WFP		*0.08*				
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education	8.92	4.90	13.30	14.72	9.78	1.56
AFD	*3.82*	*0.60*	*2.81*	*4.69*	*1.88*	
IsDB			*2.08*	*3.12*	*2.60*	*1.56*
Spain			*3.01*	*1.81*		
UNESCO		*0.07*	*0.40*			
UNICEF	*5.10*	*4.15*	*1.80*	*1.80*	*1.80*	
WFP		*0.08*	*3.20*	*3.30*	*3.50*	

* This information was reported by the Local Education Group in USD in 2012.

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	6eme in primary / 4eme in lower secondary
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	PASEC 2004
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	

Test	Class	Year	Subject	Mean Score (b)
PASEC	5eme	2004	French	19
PASEC	5eme	2004	Math	21

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	AFD
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	World Bank, Spain, WFP, UNICEF
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	Jun. 2007
Ind. 6.5 – Date of next JSR	

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	2012-2014
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	2002; 2011
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	2003
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	9
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	2007
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	14
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	2008-2012
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	8-Apr-12
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	31-Mar-12
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	World Bank
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	Project
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	13.94

Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation – Annual disbursements (USD million)			
2009	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**
4.2	3.7	4.4	1.7

Notes:

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(a) This indicates projections.

(b) Mean score over 100

Sources of information:

DSCP

Global Partnership for Education (2012). Disbursements and Projections for GPE Funding. Global Partnership for Education: Washington, D.C., United Sates.

Islamic Republic of Mauritania (2011). National Program for the Education Sector Development 2011-2020 (PNDSE II). Triennial Action Plan (2012-2014). Draft Document, May 2011, Nouakchott, Mauritania.

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Moldova

Area	Indicator	Values			Targets					
		2009	2010	2011	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%)		99.5							
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)	75.5	77.1	77.1					78.0	77.6
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)									
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR	91.5	97.7	97.5					98.3	
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER) (a)	12.4	12.2							
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR	92.0								99.0
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR	1.0								1.0
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education									
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)									
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary	34,921	35,434							
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students	141,200	138,436							
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers		36,998 (b)	37,405 (b)						
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers									
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms									
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms									
	Ind. 3.7 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary									
	Ind. 3.8 – Lower Secondary Students	207,500	193,271 (c)							
	Ind. 3.9 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers		36,998 (b)	37,405 (b)						
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary New Teachers									
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms									
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms									
	Ind. 3.13 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)									
	Ind. 3.14 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)									
	Ind. 3.15 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance									
Domestic Financing	Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending	24.1						26.5	26.5	
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education (d)	52.2						52.6	52.6	
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending									
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education (d)									

External Aid to Education (in USD million)*

Indicator	Values	Targets			
	2010	2010	2011	2012	2013
Ind. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education	3.45	3.61	1.40	3.00	2.70
UNICEF	*0.81*	*0.81*	*1.40*	*0.80*	*0.50*
World Bank	*2.64*	*2.80*		*2.20*	*2.20*
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education	0.81	3.61	1.40	3.00	2.70
UNICEF	*0.81*	*0.81*	*1.40*	*0.80*	*0.50*
World Bank		*2.80*		*2.20*	*2.20*

* This information was reported by the Local Education Group in USD in 2011.

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	UNICEF
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	UNICEF, WB
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	Step by Step, ProDidactica
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	2010
Ind. 6.5 – Date of next JSR	Probably 2013

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	In primary and lower secondary
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	PIRLS: 1999 and 2003 TIMSS: 1999 and 2003
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	2009, 2010 and 2011
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	

Test	Grade	Year	Subject	Mean Score	Mean Competency (%)	Minimum Competency (%)	Proficiency (%)
National Assessment	Grade 4	2009			41.95	17.09	38.98
National Assessment	Grade 9	2009			49.97	33.98	14.02
National Assessment	Grade 4	2010			42.03	17.30	38.75
National Assessment	Grade 9	2010			52.52	34.49	12.31
National Assessment	Grade 4	2011			42.51	17.63	38.02
National Assessment	Grade 9	2011			48.3	44.89	5.94
PIRLS	Grade 4	1999	Reading	492			
PIRLS	Grade 4	2003	Reading	500			
TIMSS		1999	Math	469			
TIMSS		1999	Science	459			
TIMSS		2003	Math	460			
TIMSS		2003	Science	472			

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	2011-2015
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	2005; 2010
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	2005
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	8.8
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	2012
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	4.4
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	2012-2014
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	14-Feb-12
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	In progress
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	World Bank
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	Project
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	N/A

Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation - Annual disbursements (USD million)

2012	2013	2014
1.22	3.16	0.18

Aid Effectiveness Indicators

Indicator	Results 2010	Information for GPE's 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector (e)
Ind. 9.1 - Aid Alignment (%)	97%	Moldova has near perfect alignment of aid flows to national priorities for the education sector (97%). With the OECD data for Moldova in 2011 showing that 92% of aid is aligned with national priorities in other sectors beyond education, it is clear that Moldova performs very strongly with respect to matching donor aid to its development agenda.
Ind. 9.2 - Coordinated Technical Cooperation (%)	96%	Coordinated technical cooperation occurs regularly in Moldova's education sector, with 96% of the technical activities carried out by the World Bank and UNICEF coordinated. This easily outpaces the median for GPE countries and Moldova's overall performance in the OECD Survey.
Ind. 9.3a / 9.3b - Use of Public Financial Management / Procurement Country Systems (%)	20% / 23%	Both the use of country public financial management (PFM) systems and procurement systems by the development partners in the education sector is very low, at 20% and 23%, respectively. The performance of Moldova's education sector in this area is well behind that of other sectors in the country.
Ind. 9.4 - Number of Parallel Implementation Units	0	No project implementation unit was reported for the education sector in Moldova.
Ind. 9.5 - Aid Provided through Program Based Approaches (%)	15%	Only a small portion of the education funding provided by the development partners uses program-based approach. In 2010, only 15% of education aid utilized PBAs.

Notes:

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(a) It refers to primary education

(b) It includes total teachers in general schools, which includes both primary and secondary education levels

(c) It includes 193,146 pupils in day schools and 125 in evening schools

(d) Basic education covers primary and lower secondary education (7- to 16-year-old children)

(e) Information on this exercise, including the specific country profile with details on these results, can be found in this site: *http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2*. Results were compared with the median of all countries participating in this exercise for the education sector, with the results for all sectors in the country as presented in the 2011 OECD Survey on Monitoring the Paris Declaration, and with aid effectiveness targets for all sectors established by countries themselves to be achieved by 2010.

Sources of information:

Global Partnership for Education (2012). *2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector*. Country Profile Information based on information submitted by the Ministry of Education and Development Partners, Global Partnership for Education: Washington, D.C., United States.

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World Bank (2011). Project Appraisal Document, Proposed Grant to the Republic of Moldova for the Education for All - Fast Track Initiative Project. July 27, 2011, World Bank: Washington, D.C., United States.

Mozambique

Area	Indicator	Values						Targets					
		2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%)				71.8								30
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)				4.0								
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)	156.9	168.2	166.8	170.6	165.8	166.8						
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR		0.95	0.97	0.95	0.96	0.96						
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER)		13.6	9.7	8.4	7.4	9.2						
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR	46.1	58.1	53.2	53.8	50.8						54.0	
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR	0.84	0.87	0.90	0.92	0.93						0.94	
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education		68.0	67.3	72.2	72.3	70.8						
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)									49.4	50.4	51.3	
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary	897,541	1,097,834	1,125,259	1,191,511	1,193,215	1,226,530						
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students	4,009,095	4,978,871	5,147,741	5,354,392	5,313,241	5,409,430						
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers (a)	58,970	76,345	82,812	90,304	94,790	97,717						
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers (b)			9,400	9,800	8,500	6,463		8,500	8,500	9,000	9,500	
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms (c)	36,794	44,103	46,266	49,900								
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms (d)			2,163	3,634								
	Ind. 3.7 – Primary Total Schools (e)	8,271	9,600	10,013	10,651	10,987	11,331						
	Ind. 3.8 – Primary New Schools (f)			413	638	336	344						
	Ind. 3.9 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary (g)	135,714	211,613	241,511	250,614	258,898	245,172						
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary Students	350,681	588,621	670,791	733,593	761,589	758,383						
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers	6,566	10,238	11,425	12,958	13,837	14,646						
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Teachers					852	837						
	Ind. 3.13 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms												
	Ind. 3.14 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms												
	Ind. 3.15 - Lower Secondary Total Schools	253	406	437	514	561	582						
	Ind. 3.16 - Lower Secondary New Schools			31	77	47	21						
	Ind. 3.17 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)							1	1	1	1	1	
	Ind. 3.18 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)							1	1	1	1	1	
	Ind. 3.19 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance						(h)						
Domestic Financing	Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending (i)	20.4	23.5	21.5	21.0				21	21	21	21	
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education (j)		61.1	59.6	56.4	54.9			50	50	50	50	
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending												
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education												

External Aid to Education (in USD million)*

Indicator	Values	Targets				
	2010	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Ind. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education (k)	168.34	168.34	124.83	163.31	142.17	130.33
Canada	*29.95*	*29.95*	*29.45*	*27.74*	*36.14*	*13.22*
DANIDA (m)						
DFID	*20.95*	*20.95*	*7.15*	*7.69*	*8.78*	*8.78*
Finland	*11.36*	*11.36*	*9.50*	*9.30*	*9.30*	*9.30*
Flanders			*1.33*	*1.33*	*1.33*	*1.33*
Germany (GIZ and KfW)	*32.73*	*32.73*	*24.05*	*27.77*	*3.99*	*0.00*
GPE	*37.58*	*37.58*	*15.00*	*35.00*	*0.03*	*10.00*
Ireland	*10.47*	*10.47*	*6.07*	*7.37*	*9.03*	*8.90*
Italy	*2.18*	*2.18*	*2.98*	*1.33*	*4.77*	*0.00*
Japan	*3.94*	*3.94*	*8.89*	*0.05*		
Netherlands (m)						
Portugal (l)						
Spain	*4.52*	*4.52*	*6.92*	*6.94*		
UNICEF	*6.80*	*6.80*	*6.50*	*5.90*	*6.90*	*6.90*
USAID	*0.00*	*0.00*	*0.00*	*5.90*	*5.90*	*12.90*
World Bank	7.86	7.86	7.00	27.00	56.00	59.00
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education		168.34	124.83	163.31	142.17	130.33

* This information was reported by the Local Education Group in donor currencies in 2012.

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	Primary - grade 7 / Lower secondary - grade 10
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	SACMEQ: 2000 and 2007
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	Grades 2, 3 in 2008, 2010

Test	Grade	Year	Subject	Mean Score
SACMEQ	6 grade	2000	Reading	516.7
SACMEQ	6 grade	2000	Math	530
SACMEQ	6 grade	2007	Reading	476
SACMEQ	6 grade	2007	Math	483.8

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	DFID
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	World Bank, African Development Bank, Canada, the Flanders Cooperation, Denmark, DFID, Spanish Cooperation, FAO, Finland, FNUAP, Ireland, Iceland, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, Portugal, WFO, UNESCO, UNICEF, USAID
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	represented through METP
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	27-Mar-12
Ind. 6.5 – Date of next JSR	Mar-13

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	2012-2016
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	2003; 2006; 2012
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	2007
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	79
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	2010
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	90
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	2011-2014
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	18-Jul-11
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	31-Jul-14
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	World Bank
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	Pool fund
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	N/A

Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation - Annual disbursements (USD million)

2011	2012	2013	2014
0	35	35	20

Notes:

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(a) It includes, EP1, EP2, public, private and community teachers.

(b) It includes EP1, E2s and public teachers.

(c) It includes EP1, EP2, public, private and community classrooms.

(d) It includes all types of classrooms (public, private and community.

(e) It includes EP1, public, private and community schools.

(f) It includes EP1, public, private and community schools.

(g) It includes day and night classes, public, private and community schools.

(h) It exist a case study conducted by Aga Khan, at very small scale.

(i) It refers to the execution budget.

(j) These are estimated values.

(k) This information was provided by the Local Education Group in May 10th, 2012. It excludes information on the GBS contribution by donor. It also excludes the aid from Portugal, Netherlands and Danida.

(l) Portugal is an important donor in the education sector, however, the specific amounts disbursed and committed were not certified, and then they were excluded from this data.

(m) The Ministry of Education indicated that this donor contributed to the education sector, but data on the specific amount was not provided.

Sources of information:

Global Partnership for Education (2012). *2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector*. Country Profile Information based on information submitted by the Ministry of Education and Development Partners, Global Partnership for Education: Washington, D.C., United States.

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Niger

Area	Indicator	Values					Targets					
		2005	2008	2009	2010	2011	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%)	37%										
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)			2.3%	4.5%	5.6%		3.5	4.2	5.0%	6.0%	7.1%
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)			90.3%	98.6%	99.7%		94.2%	100%	100%	100%	100%
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR (a)			1.32	1.28	1.26		1.21	1.18	1.09	1	1
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER)											
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR			47.9	49.3	51.2		62	68	75	81	87
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR (a)			1.53	1.38	1.40		1.20	1.12	1.09	1.04	1
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education											
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)											
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary			410,422	481,12	469,788		463,333	508,218	524,909	542,313	560,210
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students			1.54	1.76	1.90		2.0	2.24	2.41	2.58	2.75
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers (c)			39,996	42,929			46,809	51,887	55,368	59,006	62,80
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers											
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms											
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms											
	Ind. 3.7 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary											
	Ind. 3.8 – Lower Secondary Students											
	Ind. 3.9 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers											
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary New Teachers											
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms											
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms											
	Ind. 3.13 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)											
	Ind. 3.14 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)											
	Ind. 3.15 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance											
Domestic Financing Area	Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending		16.2%									
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education (b)		69%									
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending		27.5%									
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education (b)		78%									
	Ind. 4.5 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending Excluding Debt Service		27.9%					21.60%				

External Aid to Education (in USD million)*

Indicator	Values	Targets			
	2010	2010	2011	2012	2013
Ind. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education	18.94	23.33	35.63	16.60	22.54
AFD	*0.35*	*2.77*	*8.10*	*0.00*	*0.00*
Belgium	*0.06*	*2.77*	*1.38*	*0.00*	*0.00*
France					
Japan	*2.10*	*2.10*	*0.31*	*0.00*	*0.00*
KfW	*0.00*	*5.70*	*8.10*	*0.00*	*0.00*
WFP	*5.88 (d)*		*5.88*	*5.88*	*5.88*
DFID					
Switzerland	*3.60*	*3.60*	*3.75*	*4.36*	*5.92*
Luxembourg				*1.06*	*6.40*
UNICEF	*6.95*	*6.40*	*8.11*	*5.30*	*4.34*
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education	12.54	16.41	28.52	9.95	15.01
AFD	*0.35*	*2.77*	*8.10*	*0.00*	*0.00*
Belgium	*0.06*	*2.77*	*1.38*	*0.00*	*0.00*
France					
Japan	*1.58*	*1.58*	*0.17*	*0.00*	*0.00*
KfW		*5.70*	*8.10*	*0.00*	*0.00*
WFP			*0.00*	*0.00*	*0.00*
DFID					
Switzerland	*3.60*	*3.60*	*2.65*	*3.59*	*4.27*
Luxembourg				*1.06*	*6.40*
UNICEF	*6.95*		*8.11*	*5.30*	*4.34*

* This information was reported by the Local Education Group in USD in 2011.

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	UNICEF
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	AFD, Belgium, GIZ, DFID, Denmark, Luxembourg, Switzerland, WFP, European Commission and JICA
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	Oxfam, Handicap International, Aide et Action, Plan, Concern Worldwide and CRS
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	Jul. 2011
Ind. 6.5 – Date of next JSR	

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	2011-2013
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	2002
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	N/A
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	N/A
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	2003
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	21 (implementation through 3 grants: 5 in 2004; 8 in 2005; and 8 in 2009)
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	2003-2012
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	10/15/09
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	5/31/12
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	World Bank
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	Project
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	19.28

Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation – Annual disbursements (USD million)

2004-05	2008	2010	2011	2012
9	4	3.8	1.5	7

Aid Effectiveness Indicators

Indicator	Results 2010	Information for GPE's 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector (e)
Ind. 9.1 - Aid Alignment (%)	–	The Ministry of Education did not report on the amounts of budgetary previsions for aid going to total education, but on primary education, what prevented to do an analysis of the aid alignment. Of the total aid to education disbursed in 2010, half went to the public sector, which prevented an analysis of the aid alignment, and 71% was devoted to activities supporting the implementation of the Education Sector Plan.
Ind. 9.2 - Coordinated Technical Cooperation (%)	16%	The coordination of technical cooperation in the education sector in 2010 was low, with 16% of aid reported as coordinated. However, a program to strengthen the capacities to implement the Education Sector Plan was being developed.
Ind. 9.3a / 9.3b - Use of Public Financial Management / Procurement Country Systems (%)	0% / 34%	No donor used the PFM country systems in the education sector in 2010. 34% of aid used the procurement country systems, the same figure than the median for the reporting countries.
Ind. 9.4 - Number of Parallel Implementation Units	11	A high number of PIUs was reported in the education sector in 2010, eleven.
Ind. 9.5 - Aid Provided through Program Based Approaches (%)	49%	The use of PBAs in the education sector in 2010 was above the median of reporting countries. A pool fund was in place since 2008, but disbursements in 2010 were suspended because of a political crisis.

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	Primary - CM2 / Lower Secondary – 3eme
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	PASEC 2004/05
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	End of 1st Cycle Certificate 2010/11
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	CP, CE2, CM 2007

Test	Class	Year	Subject	Mean/100	Optimal Competence (%)	Minimal Competence (%)	Under Minimal Competence (%)	Success Rate (%)
Learning Assessment	CP	2005	French	52.6	19.8	34.2	46.0	N/A
Learning Assessment	CE2	2005	French	42.7	9.2	29.7	61.1	N/A
Learning Assessment	CM2	2005	French	39.5	6.4	25.8	67.8	N/A
Learning Assessment	CP	2005	Math	45.5	15.6	25.5	58.9	N/A
Learning Assessment	CE2	2005	Math	43.2	8.1	32.8	59.1	N/A
Learning Assessment	CM2	2005	Math	38.0	5.0	23.8	71.2	N/A
Learning Assessment	CP	2007	French	37.1	5.3	23.4	71.3	N/A
Learning Assessment	CE2	2007	French	32.1	4.4	22.1	73.4	N/A
Learning Assessment	CM2	2007	French	27.6	2.0	16.0	82.0	N/A
Learning Assessment	CP	2007	Math	32.7	5.0	20.0	75.0	N/A
Learning Assessment	CE2	2007	Math	26.2	2.5	14.1	83.4	N/A
Learning Assessment	CM2	2007	Math	28.2	1.9	15.0	83.1	N/A
Learning Assessment	CP	2010	French	45.2	17.4	31.2	51.4	N/A
Learning Assessment	CE2	2010	French	42.6	8.5	24.4	67.3	N/A
Learning Assessment	CM2	2010	French	33.6	1.9	25.4	72.7	N/A
Learning Assessment	CP	2010	Math	61.5	33.4	32.9	33.7	N/A
Learning Assessment	CE2	2010	Math	39.0	3.7	27.5	68.8	N/A
Learning Assessment	CM2	2010	Math	34.0	2.3	25.3	72.4	N/A
National Test	End of 1st Cycle Certificate	2010	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	63.5

Notes:

Except for the Global Partnership funding information, data provided in these Results forms were collected from national and other publicly available sources, and validated by the Local Education Group (LEG) in each country. LEGs are typically led by the Ministry of Education and include development partners and other education stakeholders. Data were not processed or analyzed by the Global Partnership for Education. It is reported as it was presented in the original sources, or as it was communicated to us through the Coordinating Agency or Lead Donor of the LEG.

The data derived from national sources may differ from international sources because of divergences in definitions, methods of calculation, or in some cases due to different underlying data. For these reasons, the data based on national sources in these Results Forms should not be used for making comparisons between countries, but rather for assessing the progress of individual countries.

(a) Calculated based on the total and female GIR rates.

(b) The basic education includes pre-primary (4 to 6 years old), primary (7 to 12 years old) and lower secondary (13 to 16 years old).

(c) This includes contractual and non-contractual teachers.

(d) This was indicated for the fiscal year 2009/10.

(e) Information on this exercise, including the specific country profile with details on these results, can be found in this site: *http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2*. Results were compared with the median of all countries participating in this exercise for the education sector, with the results for all sectors in the country as presented in the 2011 OECD Survey on Monitoring the Paris Declaration, and with aid effectiveness targets for all sectors established by countries themselves to be achieved by 2010.

Sources of information:

Global Partnership for Education (2012). *2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector*. Country Profile Information based on information submitted by Development Partners, Global Partnership for Education: Washington, D.C., United States.

Global Partnership for Education (2012). Disbursements and Projections for GPE Funding. Global Partnership for Education: Washington, D.C., United Sates.

Local Education Group (2011). 2011 Aide-memoire of Joint Sector Review of Education Sector Plan. July, 13-15 2011, Niamey, Niger.

National Evaluation of Traditional Schools. December 2011.

UIS (2007). Youth Literacy Rates (15-24 years old). UIS: Montreal, Canada.

Rwanda

Area	Indicator	Values			Targets					
		2009	2010	2011	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%)	77.2	77.5							
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)	15.9 (a)	9.9	11.6			15 (b)			20 (b)
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)	208.0	194.5	195.0	120.0	114.0				
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR	1.0	1.0	1.0						
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER)	7.1	5.0	4.0			5.0			2.0
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR	74.5	75.6	78.9	56.0		82.0			90.0
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR	1.1 (c)	1.12 (c)	1.1	0.96 (c)		1.0 (c)			1.00 (c)
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education	95.0	93.8		95.0		92.0			95.0
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)	91.9 (d)					94.0			96.0
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary	527,199	548,769	574,279						
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students	2,264,675	2,299,326	2,341,146			2,249,600			2,193,400
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers	35,665	35,352	40,299						
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers		2,146							
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms	31,453	27,184	28,817						
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms									
	Ind. 3.7 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary	114,161	126,274	137,763						
	Ind. 3.8 – Lower Secondary Students	223,135	298,799	341,742						
	Ind. 3.9 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers									
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary New Teachers									
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms									
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms									
	Ind. 3.13 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)									
	Ind. 3.14 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)									
	Ind. 3.15 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance									
Domestic Financing	Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending	18.7	17.0				17.6			18.0
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education (e)	60.3					66.7			65.7
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending									
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education (e)									

External Aid to Education (in USD million)*

Indicator	Values		Targets			
	2010	2011	2010	2011	2012	2013
Ind. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education	75.01	69.59	60.23	69.86	69.21	67.85
DFID	*26.17*	*37.92*	*26.17*	*27.26*	*28.51*	*30.55*
GPE	*30.00*	*20*	*20.00*	*20.00*	*24.00*	*26.00*
UNICEF	*10.54*		*9.26*	*2.40*	*3.00*	*3.00*
USAID	*1.50*	*7.97*	*1.70*	*7.20*	*7.20*	*5.00*
WB	*3.10*		*3.10*	*13.00*	*6.50*	*3.30*
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education	34.60	7.97	21.70	27.20	31.20	31.00
DFID (f)						
GPE (g)	*30.00*		*20.00*	*20.00*	*24.00*	*26.00*
UNICEF						
USAID	*1.50*	*7.97*	*1.70*	*7.20*	*7.20*	*5.00*
WB	*3.10*					

* This information was reported by the Local Education Group in USD in 2011.

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	Primary - grade P6 Lower secondary - grade S3 Upper secondary - grade S6
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	No
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	Learning Assessment in Rwanda Schools (LARS) 2011
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	EGRA 2011

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	DFID and UNICEF
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	AfDB, BTC, EC, GIZ, JICA, KOICA, Netherlands, USAID, World Bank and WFP
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	Rwanda Education NGO Coordination Platform (RENCP), Concern Worldwide, One UN, Plan International, Voluntary Service Overseas (VSO) and the Flemish Association for Development Cooperation and Technical Assistance (VVOB), Wellspring Foundation, British Council, Save the Children,
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	1-Apr-11
Ind. 6.5 – Date of next JSR	Sep-12

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	2010-2015
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	2006; 2009
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	2006 and 2009
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	70 and 35
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	2010
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	70
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	2011-2014
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	Nov-10
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	30-Sep-14
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	DFID
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	Sector Budget Support
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	20

Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation - Annual disbursements (USD million)

2011	2012	2013	2014
20	24	6	

Aid Effectiveness Indicators

Indicator	Results 2010	Information for GPE's 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector (h)
Ind. 9.1 - Aid Alignment (%)	90%	The correlation between what development partners disbursed and the estimated budget projection as recorded by the Government was 90%. Yet while the overall score indicates that actual disbursements were higher than estimates in the education budget, indications here are that actual disbursements were actually lower than expected.
Ind. 9.2 - Coordinated Technical Cooperation (%)	87%	87% of aid flows for technical cooperation was implemented through coordinated programs that were in line with national and sector development strategies. This ratio exceeds both the median value of GPE countries that participated in this exercise (60%) and Paris Declaration target (50%).
Ind. 9.3a / 9.3b - Use of Public Financial Management / Procurement Country Systems (%)	78% / 88%	Development partners indicate a fairly high level of confidence in Rwanda's country systems. 78% of education aid from participating development partners was through national public financial management systems, and 88% through national procurement systems. There is significant variance among development partners. The higher scores were for the development partners that provided the larger volumes of education aid, and thus the significance of their use of country systems should be emphasized, but this does not detract from the obvious challenges to ensuring that country systems are used by all development partners.
Ind. 9.4 - Number of Parallel Implementation Units	1	In 2010, only one of the development partners who participated in this exercise, the World Bank, used a parallel implementation unit in delivering aid for education.
Ind. 9.5 - Aid Provided through Program Based Approaches (%)	77%	77% of aid to education in 2010 was disbursed through a program-based approach. Compared to the results from the GPE's 2008 Survey, the use of PBAs has increased in Rwanda's education sector. The 2008 survey explained that the education sector had made significant progress in the use of common arrangements and procedures to the point that the education was considered the most advanced sector for such type of support.

Notes:

Except for the Global Partnership funding information, data provided in these Results forms were collected from national and other publicly available sources, and validated by the Local Education Group (LEG) in each country. LEGs are typically led by the Ministry of Education and include development partners and other education stakeholders. Data were not processed or analyzed by the Global Partnership for Education. It is reported as it was presented in the original sources, or as it was communicated to us through the Coordinating Agency or Lead Donor of the LEG.

The data derived from national sources may differ from international sources because of divergences in definitions, methods of calculation, or in some cases due to different underlying data. For these reasons, the data based on national sources in these Results Forms should not be used for making comparisons between countries, but rather for assessing the progress of individual countries.

(a) Estimate of pre-primary school-age children who attended pre-primary school

(b) Unclear if this indicates GER or NER

(c) Calculated from total PCR and girls' PCR (78% in 2009; 80% in 2010; 55% in 2010 goal; 82% in 2012 goal; and 90% in 2015)

(d) % of students enrolled in first year of lower secondary that completed the final year (year 3)

(e) Basic education has been defined as pre-primary, primary and lower secondary school levels: comprised of 3- to 15-year-old children.

(f) The DFID grant funds an ESSP that covers all sub sectors, so no break down was possible to indicate aid to basic education.

(g) The GPE grant funds an ESSP that covers all sub sectors, however, the objectives of the partnership focuses on basic education, so all the GPE funding was also indicated for basic education.

(h) Information on this exercise, including the specific country profile with details on these results, can be found in this site: *http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2*. Results were compared with the median of all countries participating in this exercise for the education sector, with the results for all sectors in the country as presented in the 2011 OECD Survey on Monitoring the Paris Declaration, and with aid effectiveness targets for all sectors established by countries themselves to be achieved by 2010.

Sources of information:

Education Sector Working Group (2010). Joint Review of the Education Sector Summary Report. April 20th, 2010. Kigali, Rwanda.

Global Partnership for Education (2012). *2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector*. Country Profile Information based on information submitted by the Ministry of Education and Development Partners, Global Partnership for Education: Washington, D.C., United States.

Global Partnership for Education (2012). Disbursements and Projections for GPE Funding. Global Partnership for Education: Washington, D.C., United Sates.

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Republic of Rwanda (2008). Summary Documentation, Request for Funding to the Fast Track Initiative Catalytic Fund. Ref. No. CFC/Oslo/2008-03, December 13, 2008, Kigali, Rwanda.

Republic of Rwanda, Ministry of Education (2012). Education Statistics 2011. January 2012, Kigali, Rwanda.

Republic of Rwanda. Education Sector Strategic Plan 2010-2015. Kigali, Rwanda.

UIS (2011; 2012). Youth Literacy Rates (15-24 years old). UIS: Montreal, Canada.

Senegal

Area	Indicator	Values			Targets					
		2009	2010	2011	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%)	65%								
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)	9.1%	9.8%	10.7%	10%	11%	12%	13%	14%	15%
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)	118%	123.6%	113.0%	110.3%	110%	110%	110%	110%	110%
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR	1.10	1.10	1.15	1.02 (a)	1.00 (a)	0.99	0.98	0.97	0.96
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER)									
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR	59.6%	59.1%	66.5%	66.2%	71%	75%	80%	85%	90%
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR (b)	1.02	1.06	1.13	0.95 (b)	0.96 (b)	0.97	0.98	0.98	1
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education	59.5%	68.8%	91%	66%	68%	69%	71%	73%	75%
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)									
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary	343,625	359,295	373,241	359,160	380,037	399,841	423,168	435,571	460,590
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students (millions)	1.65	(c)	1.72	1.81	1.90	2.30	2.10	2.20	2.31
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers	47,685	50,369	52,394	39,960	37,456	39,463	41,569	43,768	46,035
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers	2,354	2,684	2,025	2,561	614	674	740	812	891
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms	27,991	29,301	38,405	39,141	41,474	43,908	46,486	49,205	52,044
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms		1,370 (d)	1,737 (e)	1,900 (g)	2,010 (g)	2,434	2,578	2,719	2,839
	Ind. 3.7 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary	123,303	147,024 (f)	191,153	153,606	163,066	171,997	185,056	189,556	204,434
	Ind. 3.8 – Lower Secondary Students	472,661	531,805	617,911	511,662	561,277	609,481	654,067	689,714	730,003
	Ind. 3.9 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers				12,219	13,449	14,710	15,928	16,957	18,120
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary New Teachers				1,202	1,278	1,359	1,366	1,226	1,401
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms				5,138	5,791	6,482	7,180	7,814	8,536
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms									
	Ind. 3.13 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)		0.63 (l)	1.7 (m)						
	Ind. 3.14 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)		0.7 (l)	0.66 (m)						
	Ind. 3.15 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance									
Domestic Financing	Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending	21.5	24.6	31.81%	28%	27.4%	27.1%	26.8%	26.4%	26.0%
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education (h)									
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending	42.4%	43.6%	45.8%	40%	40%	40%	40%	40%	40%
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education (h)	55%			57% (i)	58.03%	58.5%	47.9%	59.7%	60.8%

External Aid to Education (in USD million)*

Indicator	Values	Targets			
	2010	2010	2011	2012	2013
Ind. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education	74.05	76.13	36.36	68.61	14.71
CIDA	*35.67*	*35.67*	*0.00*	*0.00*	*0.00*
France (AFD and Embassy)	*16.22 (j)*	*23.62*	*12.75*		
GPE			*5.40*	*54.90*	*0.00*
Italy	*3.84*	*3.84*	*1.71*	*1.71*	*1.71*
UNICEF	*4.32*		*4.50*	*0.00*	*0.00*
USAID	*14.00*	*13.00*	*12.00*	*12.00*	*13.00*
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education	65.08	22.45	15.54	12.00	13.00
CIDA	*35.21*		*0.00*	*0.00*	*0.00*
France (AFD and Embassy)	*8.75*	*6.61*	*3.54*		*0.00*
GPE					*0.00*
Italy	*3.84*	*3.84*			
UNICEF	*4.28*		*0.00*	*0.00*	*0.00*
USAID	*13.00*	*12.00*	*12.00*	*12.00*	*13.00*

* This information was reported by the Local Education Group in USD in 2011.

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	Primary – 2nd year (6ème) / Lower Secondary – 3d year (4ème)
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	PASEC 1996 and 2007
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	SNERS V for CP and CE2 in 2010
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	EGRA 2009

Test	Class	Year	Subject	Minimal Competence (%)	Optimal Competence (%)	Mean Score
National Assessment (SNERS)	CE2	2010	Math	39.10	4.80	N/A
National Assessment (SNERS)	CE2	2010	French	47.20	15.40	N/A
PASEC		1996	French	N/A	N/A	36.90
PASEC		1996	Math	N/A	N/A	40.70
PASEC	CM1	2007	French	N/A	N/A	38.30
PASEC	CM1	2007	Math	N/A	N/A	41.80

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	USAID
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	UNDP, World Bank, CIDA, UNICEF, UNESCO, European Commission, AFD, WFP, JICA, KFW, Luxembourg and Italy
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	Aide et Action, Plan international, Counterpart International, FAWE and Save the Children
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	01-Apr.-11
Ind. 6.5 – Date of next JSR	01-Apr.-12

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	2008-2011
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	2006
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	N/A
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	N/A
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	2007
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	81.5
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	2009-2012
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	29-Jul.-09
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	31-Dec.-12
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	World Bank
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	Project
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	30.65

Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation - Annual disbursements (USD million)

2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
9.3	11.9	9.5	42.8	8

Aid Effectiveness Indicators

Indicator	Results 2010	Information for GPE's 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector (k)
Ind. 9.1 - Aid Alignment (%)	63%	63% of the aid to education in 2010 was accounted for in the budgetary previsions of government, while 67% was accounted for the rest of the sectors (all together). This figure is also lower than the median of reporting countries.
Ind. 9.2 - Coordinated Technical Cooperation (%)	39%	The coordination of the technical cooperation in the education sector in 2010 was low. Only 39% of it was coordinated with the priorities of the country, while 80% of the technical cooperation was coordinated for the rest of the sectors (all together). The median of reporting countries was also higher than this figure (60%).
Ind. 9.3a / 9.3b - Use of Public Financial Management / Procurement Country Systems (%)	50% / 60%	The country systems are largely used in the education sector, compared to the use in the rest of sectors and the median of reporting countries. 50% of the aid to education used the PFM country systems in 2010, and 60% the procurement country systems.
Ind. 9.4 - Number of Parallel Implementation Units	2	Two PIUs were reported in the education sector in 2010, over a total of 11 reported for all sectors.
Ind. 9.5 - Aid Provided through Program Based Approaches (%)	46%	46% of aid to the education sector in 2010 was provided through PBAs. This figure is in line with the use of PBAs for the rest of sectors (all together) and with the median of reporting countries.

Notes:

Except for the Global Partnership funding information, data provided in these Results forms were collected from national and other publicly available sources, and validated by the Local Education Group (LEG) in each country. LEGs are typically led by the Ministry of Education and include development partners and other education stakeholders. Data were not processed or analyzed by the Global Partnership for Education. It is reported as it was presented in the original sources, or as it was communicated to us through the Coordinating Agency or Lead Donor of the LEG.

The data derived from national sources may differ from international sources because of divergences in definitions, methods of calculation, or in some cases due to different underlying data. For these reasons, the data based on national sources in these Results Forms should not be used for making comparisons between countries, but rather for assessing the progress of individual countries.

(a) Estimated based on the total and female GIR.

(b) Estimated based on the total and female PCR.

(c) This figure was deleted because it was half of the precedent and following year.

(d) These classrooms refer to projects from 2008, 2009 and 2010, financed with 2010 budget.

(e) These classrooms were built with funding from the Global Partnership for Education. BCI did not yet delivered the totality of the 720 classrooms programmed for 2011.

(f) Estimated based on the value of the precedent year – the value of the current year.

(g) Number of classrooms planned with funding from the Global Partnership for Education.

(h) The age of the population in basic education is from 7 to 12 years old for the 6 years of education (CI to CM2).

(i) This includes the primary and secondary education levels.

(j) Exchange rate used: EUR 1 = CAF 1.4169

(k) Information on this exercise, including the specific country profile with details on these results, can be found in this site: *http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2*. Results were compared with the median of all countries participating in this exercise for the education sector, with the results for all sectors in the country as presented in the 2011 OECD Survey on Monitoring the Paris Declaration, and with aid effectiveness targets for all sectors established by countries themselves to be achieved by 2010.

Sources of information:

Global Partnership for Education (2012). *2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector*. Country Profile Information based on information submitted by the Ministry of Education and Development Partners, Global Partnership for Education: Washington, D.C., United States.

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RETF

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Sierra Leone

Area	Indicator	Values			Targets					
		2009	2010	2011	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%)	57.6	59.4							
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)		6.4							20.0
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)		122.0		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR		0.9		1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER)									
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR		76.0		79.0	84.0	88.0	92.0	96.0	100.0
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR		0.9		0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.0
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education		77.0		56.0	55.0	54.0	52.0	51.0	50.0
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)		49.0							
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary		217,655		339,000	346,500				
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students		1,194,503		1,354,183	1,369,183				
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers		24,241		18,322	19,452	20,659	21,949	23,332	24,816
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers									
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms									
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms									
	Ind. 3.7 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary		81,137							
	Ind. 3.8 – Lower Secondary Students		244,489							
	Ind. 3.9 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers		5,276							6,337
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary New Teachers									
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms									
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms									
	Ind. 3.13 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)									
	Ind. 3.14 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)									
	Ind. 3.15 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance									
Domestic Financing	Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending (b)		14.0							
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education (a) (b)		70.0							
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending (b)		20.6		19.4					
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education (a) (b)		67.3		68.2					

External Aid to Education (in USD million)*

Indicator	Values	Targets				
	2010	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Ind. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education	17.80	25.23	30.78	14.33	3.28	
DFID	*5.00*	*5.00*				
EU						
GIZ						
JICA	*0.08*	*0.26*	*0.58*	*0.60*	*0.28*	
SIDA	*2.85*	*2.85*	*2.85*	*1.43*		
UNICEF	*5.70*	*4.70*	*6.30*	*6.30*		
WB (GPE)	*0*	*6.00*	*5.00*	*6.00*	*3.00*	
WFP	*4.17 (b)*	*6.42 (b)*	*16.04*			
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education	9.87	19.97	30.19	13.73	3	
DFID						
EU						
GIZ						
JICA						
SIDA		*2.85*	*2.85*	*1.43*		
UNICEF	*5.70*	*4.70*	*6.30*	*6.30*		
WB (GPE)	*0.00*	*6.00*	*5.00*	*6.00*	*3.00*	
WFP	*4.17*	*6.42*	*16.04*			

* This information was reported by the Local Education Group in USD in 2011.

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	Primary - Grade 6 / Lower Secondary - Grade 9 (JSS3)
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	Planned in Math, Language and Arts
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	EGRA 2008 - Pilot

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	UNICEF
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	DFID, World Bank, SIDA, AfDB, EU, IDB, JICA, GTZ/I
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	International CSOs: IRC, Save the Children, Concern Worldwide, IBIS, Plan International, British Council, Action Aid, World Vision
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	May-11
Ind. 6.5 – Date of next JSR	Jun-12

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	2007-2015
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	2007
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	N/A
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	N/A
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	2007
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	13.9
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	2008-2012
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	9/12/2008
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	9/30/2012
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	World Bank
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	Project
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	9

Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation - Annual disbursements (USD million)

2009	2010	2011	2012
3.00	0.00	5.90	5.00

Aid Effectiveness Indicators

Indicator	Results 2010	Information for GPE's 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector (c)
Ind. 9.1 - Aid Alignment (%)	–	There is not enough information to determine whether aid flows are aligned to the national priorities developed for the education sector; data was not reported by the MEST for this indicator. DFID, SIDA, UNICEF, the World Bank and the WFP reported that all their aid was provided in support of the ESP implementation ('on plan').
Ind. 9.2 - Coordinated Technical Cooperation (%)	54%	Coordinated technical cooperation for the education sector in Sierra Leone, at 54% is below both the median for GPE countries participating in the aid effectiveness monitoring exercise and the 86% score recorded overall on the OECD Survey. Several of the development partners did not provide information for this indicator, however.
Ind. 9.3a / 9.3b - Use of Public Financial Management / Procurement Country Systems (%)	12% / 36%	The use of country public financial management (PFM) systems and procurement systems in Sierra Leone by development partners for education projects is very low. Only 12% of aid for the education sector utilized PFM systems in 2010, in comparison to 29% for GPE countries participating in the aid effectiveness exercise and 37% for Sierra Leone overall. The use of country procurement systems for education aid is with 36% also rather low.
Ind. 9.4 - Number of Parallel Implementation Units	0	There were no parallel implementation units (PIUs) in operation in the education sector during 2010. There are just three PIUs overall for Sierra Leone according to the 2011 OECD Survey.
Ind. 9.5 - Aid Provided through Program Based Approaches (%)	28%	Just 28% of education aid flows to the country were delivered in the context of a program-based approach in 2010. SIDA and the World Bank were among the development partners that reported delivering all their aid through the PBA mechanism. The main education PBA in operation in Sierra Leone is the Education Sector Support Fund (ESSF).

Notes:

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The data derived from national sources may differ from international sources because of divergences in definitions, methods of calculation, or in some cases due to different underlying data. For these reasons, the data based on national sources in these Results Forms should not be used for making comparisons between countries, but rather for assessing the progress of individual countries.

(a) The age of the population in basic education is from 6 to 14 years old

(b) Indicated in fiscal years

(c) Information on this exercise, including the specific country profile with details on these results, can be found in this site: *http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2*. Results were compared with the median of all countries participating in this exercise for the education sector, with the results for all sectors in the country as presented in the 2011 OECD Survey on Monitoring the Paris Declaration, and with aid effectiveness targets for all sectors established by countries themselves to be achieved by 2010.

Sources of information:

Global Partnership for Education (2012). 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector. Country Profile Information based on information submitted by Development Partners, Global Partnership for Education: Washington, D.C., United States.

Global Partnership for Education (2012). Disbursements and Projections for GPE Funding. Global Partnership for Education: Washington, D.C., United Sates.

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Tajikistan

Area	Indicator	Values			Targets					
		2009	2010	2011	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%)		99.86%							
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)	6.7%	7%	7.6%	N/A	N/A	11%	13%	15.6%	17%
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)	103%	97%	101%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR	0.92	0.92	0.92	1	1	1	1	1	1
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER)	0.05	0.09	0.06						
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR	99%	99%	N/A	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR	0.93	0.92	N/A	1	1	1	1	1	1
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education	99%	98%	N/A	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)	n/a	97.0%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary	167,451	161,132	165,435			167,196	172,266	171,376	181,786
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students	682,090	668,675	660,023			661,214	666,029	676,273	692,624
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers	29,091	29,272	28,799			29,000	29,212	29,661	30,378
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers									
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms	31,950	31,477	31,376						
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms									
	Ind. 3.7 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary									
	Ind. 3.8 – Lower Secondary Students	825,716	826,323	821,237						
	Ind. 3.9 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers	65,157	64,981	65,429						
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary New Teachers									
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms	35,531	35,736	35,729						
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms									
	Ind. 3.13 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)									
	Ind. 3.14 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)									
	Ind. 3.15 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance									
Domestic Financing	Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending	18.6%			15.7%	15.8%	15.5%	15.62%	15.8%	16%
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education (a)	67.5%			63.9%	62.9%	60.4%	65%	65%	65%
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending	13.8%			11.9%	16.7%	18.2%	19%	19%	19%
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education (a)	81.1%			74.7%	78.0%	75.8%	76.3%	77.3%	79.2%

External Aid to Education (in USD million)*

Indicator	Values	Targets			
	2010	2010	2011	2012	2013
Ind. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education	27.02	23.88	26.45	26.96	16.00
Aga Khan (CSO)	*0.62*	*0.65*	*0.51*	*0.50*	*0.45*
Open Society (CSO)	*0.80*	*0.80*	*1.60*	*1.60*	*1.70*
EU	*1.40*	*1.40*			
GIZ	*4.88*	*4.88*	*5.83*		
GPE (CF and EPDF)	*2.28 (b)*		*3.4*	*8*	*1*
UNICEF	*1.92*	*1.33*	*1.66*	*1.66*	*1.35*
USAID	*1.10 (c)*		*1.26*		
WFP	*10.08*	*10.13*	*10.50*	*10.50*	*10.50*
World Bank	*3.95*	*4.70*	*1.70*	*4.70*	*1.00*
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education	16.04	14.43	16.41	13.26	13.00
Aga Khan (CSO)	*0.62*	*0.65*	*0.51*	*0.50*	*0.45*
Open Society (CSO)	*0.40*	*0.40*	*0.60*	*0.60*	*0.70*
EU					
GIZ	*1.92*	*1.92*	*1.89*		
GPE (CF and EPDF)					
UNICEF	*1.92*	*1.33*	*1.66*	*1.66*	*1.35*
USAID	*1.10*		*1.26*		
WFP	*10.08*	*10.13*	*10.50*	*10.50*	*10.50*
World Bank					

* This information was reported by the Local Education Group in USD in 2012.

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	Primary – grade 4 Lower Secondary - 9th, and 10th next year
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	No
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	EGRA 2011 (grades 2-4; conducted by USAID with permission from the MoE)

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	UNICEF
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	World Bank, USAID, WFP, European Union, GIZ, DFID, ADB
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	Aga Khan, Open Society
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	
Ind. 6.5 – Date of next JSR	

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	2006-2015 (new ESP finalized for up to 2020, currently awaiting the Government approval)
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	2006; 2009
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	2005
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	18.25
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	2009
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	13.5
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	2010-2012
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	19/01/2010
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	30/09/2012
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	World Bank
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	Project
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	4.6

Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation - Annual disbursements (USD million)

2010	2011	2012	2013
2.1 (d)	3.4	8	1.00

Aid Effectiveness Indicators

Indicator	Results 2010	Information for GPE's 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector (e)
Ind. 9.1 - Aid Alignment (%)	–	An analysis on the level of aid on budget was not done because data was not reported for this indicator by the Ministry of Education.
Ind. 9.2 - Coordinated Technical Cooperation (%)	100%	All development partners except for USAID reported that all their aid is provided in support of NSED implementation. All aid that was disbursed for technical assistance was provided in a coordinated context and in accordance with capacity development priorities articulated by the Ministry of Education.
Ind. 9.3a / 9.3b - Use of Public Financial Management / Procurement Country Systems (%)	37% / 27%	While some of the alignment and harmonization indicators show strong donor performance, there are areas for improvement around all aid effectiveness areas. The seven development partners reported use of public financial management systems for 37% of their education aid and procurement systems for 27% of their education aid.
Ind. 9.4 - Number of Parallel Implementation Units	1	It was reported that one parallel project implementation unit exists.
Ind. 9.5 - Aid Provided through Program Based Approaches (%)	22%	Less than 20% of all education aid by the reporting donors was delivered in the context of a program-based approach.

Notes:

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The data derived from national sources may differ from international sources because of divergences in definitions, methods of calculation, or in some cases due to different underlying data. For these reasons, the data based on national sources in these Results Forms should not be used for making comparisons between countries, but rather for assessing the progress of individual countries.

(a) Basic education includes grades 1-11 (7- to 18-year-olds)

(b) It includes 2.1 USD millions from the Catalytic Fund and 180,000 USD from the Education Program Development Fund

(c) Indicated for the 2009/10 fiscal year

(d) It includes some funds from previous allocation

(e) Information on this exercise, including the specific country profile with details on these results, can be found in this site: *http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2*. Results were compared with the median of all countries participating in this exercise for the education sector, with the results for all sectors in the country as presented in the 2011 OECD Survey on Monitoring the Paris Declaration, and with aid effectiveness targets for all sectors established by countries themselves to be achieved by 2010.

Sources of information:

Global Partnership for Education (2012). *2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector*. Country Profile Information based on information submitted by the Ministry of Education and Development Partners, Global Partnership for Education: Washington, D.C., United States.

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MTAP

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Timor-Leste

Area	Indicator	Values				Targets					
		2009	2010	2011	2012	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%)		79.52%								
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)		9% (a)								50% (a)
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)	126.4%	144.7%	120.8%			121.0%				93%
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR	0.94 (b)	0.99 (c)	1.00			0.93 (d)				1.0 (e)
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER)	15.4%	9.9%	8.8%							
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR	80.2%	77.8%	76.9%			76.9%				118%
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR	1.06 (f)	1.07 (g)	1.06			1.07 (h)				1.0 (i)
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education	0.88	0.91	0.93							
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)	0.97	1.02	0.92							
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary	43,599	45,992	39,352							
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students	218,674	230,496	241,871			239,000				237,000
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers	7,329	7,574	7,739							
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers										
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms										
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms										
	Ind. 3.7 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary	22,031	20,038	20,878							
	Ind. 3.8 – Lower Secondary Students	60,610 (j)	60,618 (j)	62,708							
	Ind. 3.9 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers	2,297	2,398	2,499							
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary New Teachers										
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms				7,561						
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms										
	Ind. 3.13 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)										
	Ind. 3.14 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)										
	Ind. 3.15 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance										
Domestic Financing	Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending	9.2%	9.8%	10.9%			13%				
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education	75%	61%	43%	50%		51%				53%
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending	7%	6%	5%	6%						
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education	71%	56%	48%	49%						

External Aid to Education (in USD million)*

Indicator	Values	Targets					
	2010	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Ind. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education			43.87	30.20	24.58	6.94	6.16
AusAID & ChildFund Australia			*0.09*	*0.28*		*0.27*	
AusAID, WB			*2.50*	*2.50*	*1.79*		
Australia			*16.14*	*6.09*	*2.77*	*2.77*	*2.77*
IDA, WB			*5.00*				
Japan			*0.76*	*0.84*	*0.92*	*0.70*	*0.18*
Korea			*2.64*	*1.17*	*1.17*		
New Zealand			*2.27*	*2.84*	*2.86*	*2.86*	*2.86*
NZAID, ChildFund New Zealand & UNICEF			*0.09*				
Portugal			*10.40*	*13.56*	*12.70*		
Private Donors			*0.44*	*0.37*	*0.35*	*0.35*	*0.35*
UNICEF			*2.80*	*2.55*	*1.75*		
USA			*0.66*		*0.26*		
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education							
AusAID & ChildFund Australia							
AusAID, WB							
Australia							
IDA, WB							
Japan							
Korea							
New Zealand							
NZAID, ChildFund New Zealand & UNICEF							
Portugal							
Private Donors							
UNICEF							
USA							

* This information was reported by the Local Education Group in USD in 2011.

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	EGRA in 2010

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	UNICEF
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	AusAID, Brazil, Cuba, Korea, NZAid, Portugal, UNESCO, USAID, WFP, World bank
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	Care International, Plan International
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	01-Nov-10
Ind. 6.5 – Date of next JSR	

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	2011-2030
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	2005; 2011
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	2005 and 2008
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	8.188 and 4.861
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	2011
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	2.80
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	2012-2014
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	26-Jun-12
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	31-Sep-15
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	In progress
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	In progress
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	N/A

Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation - Annual disbursements (USD million)

2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
0.15	0.9	1.1	0.6	0.05

Notes:

Except for the Global Partnership funding information, data provided in these Results forms were collected from national and other publicly available sources, and validated by the Local Education Group (LEG) in each country. LEGs are typically led by the Ministry of Education and include development partners and other education stakeholders. Data were not processed or analyzed by the Global Partnership for Education. It is reported as it was presented in the original sources, or as it was communicated to us through the Coordinating Agency or Lead Donor of the LEG.

The data derived from national sources may differ from international sources because of divergences in definitions, methods of calculation, or in some cases due to different underlying data. For these reasons, the data based on national sources in these Results Forms should not be used for making comparisons between countries, but rather for assessing the progress of individual countries.

(a)	Projections
(b)	Calculated from total GIR (126.36%) and female GIR (122.7%)
(c)	Calculated from total GIR (144.71%) and female GIR (143.86%)
(d)	Calculated from total GIR (121.03%) and female GIR (116.81%)
(e)	Calculated from total GIR (93%) and female GIR (93%)
(f)	Calculated from total PCR (80.2%) and female PCR (80.59%)
(g)	Calculated from total PCR (77.81%) and female PCR (80.9%)
(h)	Calculated from total PCR (76.88%) and female PCR (79.35%)
(i)	Calculated from total PCR (118%) and female PCR (118%)
(j)	This refers to lower secondary (grades 7-9). The education system is in a 6-3-3 model: i.e. 6 years primary education, 3 years for lower secondary education, and 3 years for secondary education

Sources of information:

ChildFund. Information on Aid to Education by Donor.

Democratic Republic of Timor-Leste, Ministry of Education (2011). Country Information Form, Request for Funding to the Fast Track Initiative Catalytic Fund. 2011. Dili, Timor-Leste.

Democratic Republic of Timor-Leste, Ministry of Education (2011). National Education Strategic Plan 2011-2030. Dili, Timor-Leste.

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Global Partnership for Education (2012). Disbursements and Projections for GPE Funding. Global Partnership for Education: Washington, D.C., United Sates.

UIS (2012). Youth Literacy Rates (15-24 years old). UIS: Montreal, Canada.

Vietnam

Area	Indicator	Values					Targets					
		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%)		97%	96.93%								
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)						69.0%	69.0%	69.0%	69.0%	69.0%	69.0%
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)						99%	99%	99%	100%	100%	100%
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR											
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER)		8.1% (a)									
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR											
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR											
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education											
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)											
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary	1475,789	1,696,481	1,557,894	1,540,418							
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students (millions)	6.87	6.73	6.90	7.04	7.10	6.85	6.81	6.81	6.82	6.83	6.85
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers	344,853	349,695	355,165	365,772	366,045	326,148	313,092	302,331	292,186	282,879	274,008
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers											
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms	247,086	265,058	268,077	272,419	246,980	241,285	237,074	234,375	231,967	230,054	228,340
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms		7,000									
	Ind. 3.7 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary (millions)	1.1	1.30	1.32	1.45							
	Ind. 3.8 – Lower Secondary Students (millions)	5.85	5.46	5.16	4.94	4.92	4.94	4.92	4.91	5.00	5.10	5.13
	Ind. 3.9 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers	312,759	316,973	317,239	316,243	311,970	273,039	267,999	264,204	254,840	266,420	264,202
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary New Teachers											
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms	145,417	154,051	149,955	151,226	129,265	117,012	117,558	118,662	121,830	125,571	127,634
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms		4,000									
	Ind. 3.13 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)											
	Ind. 3.14 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)											
	Ind. 3.15 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance		2009 (b)						Study is planned (c)			
Domestic Financing	Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending						20%	20%	20%	20%	20%	20%
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education											
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending											
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education											

External Aid to Education (in USD million)*

Indicator	Values	Targets				
	2010	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Ind. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education	111.22	22.63	140.54	114.03	173.42	
Belgian Development Cooperation	*7.35*	*7.35*	*3.66*	*2.80*	*2.80*	
CIDA	*1.07*	*1.07*	*0.50*	*2.00*	*4.60*	
DFID	*0.77*	*9.58*	*1.54*	*6.18*	*6.02*	
JICA						
UNESCO	*0.58*	*0.58*	*0.61*			
UNICEF	*2.60*	*2.80*	*1.73*			
USAID	*1.25*	*1.25*	*2.50*	*3.05*		
World Bank	*97.61*		*130.00*	*100.00*	*160.00*	
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education	55.12	14.94	3.29	8.98	8.82	
Belgian Development Cooperation	*1.23*	*1.09*	*1.75*	*2.80*	*2.80*	
CIDA	*1.07*	*1.07*	*0.00*	*0.00*	*0.00*	
DFID	*7.30*	*9.58*	*1.54*	*6.18*	*6.02*	
JICA						
UNESCO						
UNICEF	*2.60*	*2.80*				
USAID	*0.40*	*0.40*				
World Bank	*42.53*					

* This information was reported by the Local Education Group in USD in 2011.

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	UNESCO
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	WB, ADB, Belgium, DFID, CIDA, UNESCO, MoET, UNICEF, IOM, ILO, USAID, EU Delegation
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	Oxfam Great Britain, Plan International, Handicap International, Save the Children UK, Action Aid, CRS, VVOB, Viet Nam Coalition for EFA
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	1-Jan-11
Ind. 6.5 – Date of next JSR	1-Nov-12

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	2003-2015
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	2003
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	N/A
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	N/A
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	In progress
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	84.6
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	2013-2016
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	World Bank
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	SIL
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	N/A

Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation - Annual disbursements (USD million)

2013	2014	2015	2016
11.6	31	34	8

Aid Effectiveness Indicators

Indicator	Results 2010	Information for GPE's 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector (d)
Ind. 9.1 - Aid Alignment (%)	86%	The development partners in Vietnam perform very well with respect to the alignment of aid flows to national priorities on both this exercise and the 2011 OECD Survey. For the education sector, 86% of aid flows were aligned to national priorities, indicating strong engagement between development partners and the MoET on national education priorities. The country's standing for this indicator is also ahead of the median performance for the GPE countries participating in this exercise.
Ind. 9.2 - Coordinated Technical Cooperation (%)	25%	Coordinated technical cooperation in the education sector is one of the areas of concern for Government and development partners in Vietnam. In 2010, just 25% of technical cooperation was coordinated, well below the 60% for GPE countries and the 59% mark for the country overall.
Ind. 9.3a / 9.3b - Use of Public Financial Management / Procurement Country Systems (%)	53% / 8%	The use of country public financial management systems by development partners at 53% is above the median for GPE countries and in line with the country's overall performance in the OECD Survey. However, the extremely low use of the country's procurement systems for the education sector is an area for real concern, especially as Vietnam scores 66% on the overall use of the country's procurement systems.
Ind. 9.4 - Number of Parallel Implementation Units	12	The education sector had twelve parallel implementation units (PIUs) in operation, well above the median of 2 PIUs that are the median for GPE countries and well above goals set for the number of PIUs with respect to aid effectiveness. The education sector's PIUs far outnumber the PIUs in other sectors: education accounts for two-thirds of Vietnam's PIUs.
Ind. 9.5 - Aid Provided through Program Based Approaches (%)	19%	The alignment of education aid to program-based approaches (PBAs) is low, standing at just 19% in 2010. Vietnam's OECD Survey performance (62%) overall outranks both the country's education sector and the median of GPE countries in the aid effectiveness monitoring exercise.

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	Lower Secondary - Grade 6
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	PISA and PASEC for the first time in 2012
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	NLSA (National Large Scale Assessment) in 2001, 2007 and 2011 (scores available in Sep-2012) with support of donors / parallel national assessments by Government are planned from 2014 onwards every four years
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	

Test	Grade	Year	Subject	% in Indicated Level	s.e.	Competence Description
National Large Scale Assessment	5 grade	2001	Reading - Level 1	4.6	0.17	Matches text at word or sentence level aided by pictures. Restricted to a limited range of vocabulary linked to pictures.
National Large Scale Assessment	5 grade	2001	Reading - Level 2	14.4	0.28	Locates text expressed in short repetitive sentences and can deal with text unaided by pictures. Type of text is limited to short sentences and phrases with repetitive patterns.
National Large Scale Assessment	5 grade	2001	Reading - Level 3	23.1	0.34	Reads and understands longer passages. Can search backwards or forwards through text for information. Understands paraphrasing. Expanding vocabulary enables understanding of sentences with some complex structure.
National Large Scale Assessment	5 grade	2001	Reading - Level 4	20.2	0.27	Links information from different parts of the text. Selects and connects text to derive and infer different possible meanings.
National Large Scale Assessment	5 grade	2001	Reading - Level 5	24.5	0.39	Links inferences and identifies an author's intention from information stated in different ways, in different text types and in documents where the message is not explicit.
National Large Scale Assessment	5 grade	2001	Reading - Level 6	13.1	0.41	Combines text with outside knowledge to infer various meanings, including hidden meanings. Identifies an author's purposes, attitudes, values, beliefs, motives, unstated assumptions and arguments.
National Large Scale Assessment	5 grade	2007	Reading - Level 1	2.66	0.11	Reads, writes and compares natural numbers, fractions and decimals. Uses single operations of +, -, x and : on simple whole numbers; works with simple measures such as time; recognizes simple 3D shapes.
National Large Scale Assessment	5 grade	2007	Reading - Level 2	10.62	0.21	Converts fractions with denominator of 10 to decimals. Calculates with whole numbers using one operation (x, -, + or ;) in a one step word problem; recognizes 2D and 3D shapes.
National Large Scale Assessment	5 grade	2007	Reading - Level 3	18.71	0.25	Identifies place value; determines the value of a simple number sentence; understands equivalent fractions; adds and subtracts simple fractions; carries out multiple operations in correct order; converts and estimates common and familiar measurement units in solving problems.
National Large Scale Assessment	5 grade	2007	Reading - Level 4	19.65	0.24	Reads, writes and compares larger numbers; solves problems involving calendars and currency, area and volume; uses charts and tables for estimation; solves inequalities; transformations with 3D figures; knowledge of angles in regular figures; understands simple transformations with 2D and 3D shapes.
National Large Scale Assessment	5 grade	2007	Reading - Level 5	30.25	0.3	Calculates with multiple and varied operations; recognizes rules and patterns in number sequences; calculates the perimeter and area of irregular shapes; measurement of irregular objects; recognized transformed figures after reflection; solves problems with multiple operations involving measurement units, percentage and averages.
National Large Scale Assessment	5 grade	2007	Reading - Level 6	18.1	0.36	Problem solving with periods of time, length, area and volume; embedded and dependent number patterns; develops formulas; recognizes 3D figures after rotation and reflection and embedded figures and right angles in irregular shapes; use data from graphs.
National Large Scale Assessment	5 grade	2001	Math - Level 1	0.2	0.02	Matches text at word or sentence level aided by pictures. Restricted to a limited range of vocabulary linked to pictures.
National Large Scale Assessment	5 grade	2001	Math - Level 2	3.5	0.13	Locates text expressed in short repetitive sentences and can deal with text unaided by pictures. Type of text is limited to short sentences and phrases with repetitive patterns.
National Large Scale Assessment	5 grade	2001	Math - Level 3	11.5	0.27	Reads and understands longer passages. Can search backwards or forwards through text for information. Understands paraphrasing. Expanding vocabulary enables understanding of sentences with some complex structure.
National Large Scale Assessment	5 grade	2001	Math - Level 4	28.5	0.37	Links information from different parts of the text. Selects and connects text to derive and infer different possible meanings.
National Large Scale Assessment	5 grade	2001	Math - Level 5	29.5	0.41	Links inferences and identifies an author's intention from information stated in different ways, in different text types and in documents where the message is not explicit.
National Large Scale Assessment	5 grade	2001	Math - Level 6	27	0.6	Combines text with outside knowledge to infer various meanings, including hidden meanings. Identifies an author's purposes, attitudes, values, beliefs, motives, unstated assumptions and arguments.
National Large Scale Assessment	5 grade	2007	Math - Level 1	0.9	0.07	Reads, writes and compares natural numbers, fractions and decimals. Uses single operations of +, -, x and : on simple whole numbers; works with simple measures such as time; recognizes simple 3D shapes.
National Large Scale Assessment	5 grade	2007	Math - Level 2	3.8	0.13	Converts fractions with denominator of 10 to decimals. Calculates with whole numbers using one operation (x, -, + or ;) in a one step word problem; recognizes 2D and 3D shapes.
National Large Scale Assessment	5 grade	2007	Math - Level 3	7.2	0.16	Identifies place value; determines the value of a simple number sentence; understands equivalent fractions; adds and subtracts simple fractions; carries out multiple operations in correct order; converts and estimates common and familiar measurement units in solving problems.
National Large Scale Assessment	5 grade	2007	Math - Level 4	18.9	0.25	Reads, writes and compares larger numbers; solves problems involving calendars and currency, area and volume; uses charts and tables for estimation; solves inequalities; transformations with 3D figures; knowledge of angles in regular figures; understands simple transformations with 2D and 3D shapes.
National Large Scale Assessment	5 grade	2007	Math - Level 5	23.9	0.28	Calculates with multiple and varied operations; recognizes rules and patterns in number sequences; calculates the perimeter and area of irregular shapes; measurement of irregular objects; recognized transformed figures after reflection; solves problems with multiple operations involving measurement units, percentage and averages.
National Large Scale Assessment	5 grade	2007	Math - Level 6	45.2	0.46	Problem solving with periods of time, length, area and volume; embedded and dependent number patterns; develops formulas; recognizes 3D figures after rotation and reflection and embedded figures and right angles in irregular shapes; use data from graphs.

Notes:

Except for the Global Partnership funding information, data provided in these Results forms were collected from national and other publicly available sources, and validated by the Local Education Group (LEG) in each country. LEGs are typically led by the Ministry of Education and include development partners and other education stakeholders. Data were not processed or analyzed by the Global Partnership for Education. It is reported as it was presented in the original sources, or as it was communicated to us through the Coordinating Agency or Lead Donor of the LEG.

The data derived from national sources may differ from international sources because of divergences in definitions, methods of calculation, or in some cases due to different underlying data. For these reasons, the data based on national sources in these Results Forms should not be used for making comparisons between countries, but rather for assessing the progress of individual countries.

(a) This refers to the out-of-school rate for primary education among children with no disability.

(b) A small case study within SEQAP (School Education Quality Assurance Program)

(c) Before the end of 2012 academic year, a Time on Task study is planned to be carried within SEQAP (School Education Quality Assurance Program)

(d) Information on this exercise, including the specific country profile with details on these results, can be found in this site: *http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2*. Results were compared with the median of all countries participating in this exercise for the education sector, with the results for all sectors in the country as presented in the 2011 OECD Survey on Monitoring the Paris Declaration, and with aid effectiveness targets for all sectors established by countries themselves to be achieved by 2010.

Sources of information:

Belgium, DFID, World Bank. High Quality EFA Report, vol. 2.

Global Partnership for Education (2012). *2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector.* Country Profile Information based on information submitted by the Ministry of Education and Development Partners, Global Partnership for Education: Washington, D.C., United States.

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Vietnam's General Statistics Office. Statistical Yearbook. Hanoi, Vietnam.

Vietnam's Government (2012). Vietnam EFA Action Plan 2003-2015, Review and Update 2012. January 13, 2012, Hanoi, Vietnam.

Vietnam's Ministry of Education (2012). Education Data. Hanoi, Vietnam.

Zambia

Area	Indicator	Values			Targets					
		2009	2010	2011	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Literacy Rate	Ind. 1.1 – Youth (15-24) Literacy Rate (%)	74.58%	74.40%							
Key Outcome Indicators	Ind. 2.1 – Gross Enrollment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education (%)									30.0
	Ind. 2.2 – Gross intake ratio-GIR (%)				119.8					100.0
	Ind. 2.3 – Gender Parity Index in GIR	1.0			1.02 (b)					1.0
	Ind. 2.4 – Rate of Out of School Children (%) (100%-NER)	5.0				4.0	3.0	2.0	1.0	0.0
	Ind. 2.5 – Primary Completion Rate-PCR	91.7			92.0	93.0	95.0	96.0	97.0	98.0
	Ind. 2.6 – Gender Parity Index in PCR									
	Ind. 2.7 – Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education	64.2								90.0
	Ind. 2.8 – Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)	52.0			49.1	55.0	59.0	63.0	65.0	67.0
Service Delivery	Ind. 3.1 – New Entrants to Primary									
	Ind. 3.2 – Primary Students				2,972,251	2,992,092	2,983,928	2,971,855	2,952,727	2,972,057
	Ind. 3. 3 – Primary Total Teachers				50,669	54,743	58,929	64,294	67,184	70,334
	Ind. 3. 4 – Primary New Teachers									
	Ind. 3.5 – Primary Total Classrooms									
	Ind. 3.6 – Primary New Classrooms					2,000 (c)	2,000 (c)	2,000 (c)	2,000 (c)	2,000 (c)
	Ind. 3.7 – New Entrants to Lower Secondary									
	Ind. 3.8 – Lower Secondary Students									
	Ind. 3.9 – Lower Secondary Total Teachers									
	Ind. 3.10 – Lower Secondary New Teachers									
	Ind. 3.11 – Lower Secondary Total Classrooms									
	Ind. 3.12 – Lower Secondary New Classrooms									
	Ind. 3.13 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Mathematics)									
	Ind. 3.14 – Textbook per Pupil Ratio in Primary Education (Language)									
	Ind. 3.15 – Last Study on Effective Learning Time/Teacher Attendance									
Domestic Financing	Ind. 4.1 – Public Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Spending									
	Ind. 4.2 – Public Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Spending for Education (a)									
	Ind. 4.3 – Public Recurrent Spending on Total Education as % of Total Public Recurrent Spending									
	Ind. 4.4 – Public Recurrent Spending on Basic Education as % of Public Recurrent Spending for Education (a)				68.00	69.90	71.10	72.10	73.20	74.20

External Aid to Education (in USD million)*

Indicator	Values	Targets			
	2010	2010	2011	2012	2013
Ind. 5.1 – Aid Disbursed for Total Education	55.41	60.37	61.78	53.30	55.18
Denmark	*4.90*	*4.90*	*6.00*	*6.00*	*6.00*
Ireland	*15.70*	*18.28*	*0.15*		
ILO	*0.11*	*0.25*	*11.92*	*11.92*	*11.92*
Japan	*0.56*	*0.56*			
Netherlands	*21.83*	*23.57*	*16.56*	*12.10*	*12.10*
UNICEF	*3.08 (d)*	*3.58*	*4.13*	*4.13*	*4.13*
United States	*9.23*	*9.23*	*23.03*	*19.15*	*21.03*
Ind. 5.2 – Aid Disbursed for Basic Education	4.69	3.58			
Denmark					
Ireland					
ILO	*0.09*				
Japan	*0.56*				
Netherlands	*0.96*				
UNICEF	*3.08*	*3.58*			
United States					

* This information was reported by the Local Education Group in USD in 2011.

Learning Outcomes

Ind. 8.1 – Administration of school leaving exams	Primary - Grade 7 / Lower Secondary - Grades 9 and 12
Ind. 8.2 – Participation in international tests	SACMEQ: 1995 and 2000
Ind. 8.3 – Realization of national assessments	National Assessment Learning Achievement by Examination Council of Zambia: 1999, 2001, 2003, 2006 and 2008.
Ind. 8.4 – Administration of oral reading fluency tests	EGRA piloted in 2011 in 3 selected provinces (out of 9) by ECZ with support from USAID. Not rolled out yet

Composition of the LEG and JSR Details

Ind. 6.1 – Coordinating Agency of LEG	Irish Aid and UNICEF
Ind. 6.2 – Other LEG Donors	DFID, Embassy of Japan, JICA, ILO, Denmark, Netherlands Embassy, USAID and UNESCO
Ind. 6.3 – CSO Partners	African Revival, FAWEZA, CAMFED, Child Fund, Development Aid from People to People (DAPP), Room to Read, Iconnect, Oxfam, Save the Children, Reformed Open Community Schools (ROCS), Restless Development Organization, Read Beyond Zambia, Sight Savers, SNV Netherlands Development Organization, Plan International, VVOB, ZANEC, Zambia Open Community Schools (ZOCS).
Ind. 6.4 – Date of last JSR	12-Jun-12
Ind. 6.5 – Date of next JSR	1-May-13

Global Partnership Funding

Ind. 7.1 – Current ESP period	2008-2011
Ind. 7.2 – Endorsement of ESP	2008
Ind. 7.3– Previous Allocation - Approval Year	N/A
Ind. 7.4 – Previous Allocation - Amount Disbursed (USD million)	N/A
Ind. 7.5 – Current Allocation - Approval Year	2008
Ind. 7.6 – Current Allocation - Total Indicative Amount (USD million)	60
Ind. 7.7 – Current Allocation - Implementation Period	
Ind. 7.8 – Current Allocation - Signature Date	
Ind. 7.9 – Current Allocation - Closing Date	31-Dic-2011
Ind. 7.10 – Current Allocation - Supervising Entity	Netherlands
Ind. 7.11 – Current Allocation - Modality	Pool fund
Ind. 7.12 – Current Allocation - Total Disbursements as of 12/2011 (USD millions)	60

Ind. 7.13 – Current Allocation - Annual disbursements (USD million)

2009	2010
30	30

Test	Grade	Year	Subject	Mean Score
National Assessment Learning Achievement	Grade 5	1999	Reading	33.2
National Assessment Learning Achievement	Grade 5	2001	Reading	33.4
National Assessment Learning Achievement	Grade 5	2003	Reading	33.9
National Assessment Learning Achievement	Grade 5	2006	Reading	34.5
National Assessment Learning Achievement	Grade 5	2008	Reading	35.3
National Assessment Learning Achievement	Grade 5	1999	Math	34.3
National Assessment Learning Achievement	Grade 5	2001	Math	35.7
National Assessment Learning Achievement	Grade 5	2003	Math	38.5
National Assessment Learning Achievement	Grade 5	2006	Math	38.5
National Assessment Learning Achievement	Grade 5	2008	Math	39.3
SACMEQ	Grade 6	1995	Reading	477.5
SACMEQ	Grade 6	1995	Math	
SACMEQ	Grade 6	2000	Reading	440.1
SACMEQ	Grade 6	2000	Math	435.2
SACMEQ	Grade 6	2007	Reading	434.4
SACMEQ	Grade 6	2007	Math	435.2

Aid Effectiveness Indicators

Indicator	Results 2010	Information for GPE's 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector (e)
Ind. 9.1 - Aid Alignment (%)	74%	Three-quarters of education aid from reporting cooperating partners was aligned to national priorities. This is measured by the proportion of education aid disbursed for the government sector against estimates for disbursal held by the government. All cooperating partners reported that they provided the majority or all of their education aid for the implementation of the NIF.
Ind. 9.2 - Coordinated Technical Cooperation (%)	95%	95% of aid for technical cooperation was provided in a coordinated manner. This excellent score is also achieved through Ministry of Education's coordination efforts through technical committees (on finance, procurement, financial management etc.)
Ind. 9.3a / 9.3b - Use of Public Financial Management / Procurement Country Systems (%)	98% / 90%	Nearly all education aid was channeled through Zambia's public financial management and procurement systems by the reporting development partners. This is largely due to the use of the established pooled fund mechanism, and broader commitment to the SWAp. It also reflects progress in efforts by the GRZ to improve its systems.
Ind. 9.4 - Number of Parallel Implementation Units	2	Two parallel implementation units (PIUs) were used in the education sector, both implemented by USAID. The Local Education Group has discouraged the use and establishment of new PIUs.
Ind. 9.5 - Aid Provided through Program Based Approaches (%)	79%	More than three-quarters of total education was provided through a program-based approach. Reform is underway to address noted challenges to the existing pooled and sector partnership mechanisms. The existence and use of the Pooled Fund has positive impact on other indicators.

Notes:

Except for the Global Partnership funding information, data provided in these Results forms were collected from national and other publicly available sources, and validated by the Local Education Group (LEG) in each country. LEGs are typically led by the Ministry of Education and include development partners and other education stakeholders. Data were not processed or analyzed by the Global Partnership for Education. It is reported as it was presented in the original sources, or as it was communicated to us through the Coordinating Agency or Lead Donor of the LEG.

The data derived from national sources may differ from international sources because of divergences in definitions, methods of calculation, or in some cases due to different underlying data. For these reasons, the data based on national sources in these Results Forms should not be used for making comparisons between countries, but rather for assessing the progress of individual countries.

(a) The age for the population in basic education is 7 (grade 1) to 15 (grade 9), if pupil started on time. Since the introduction of free primary education, over-aged children at grade 1 are not turned away. Community schools tend to cater for over-aged children. In urban areas, where there is access to pre-primary education, children tend to start grade 1 at 6 years old.

(b) Estimated based on total GIR and Female GIR

(c) Community School Classrooms

(d) Indicated for basic education

(e) Information on this exercise, including the specific country profile with details on these results, can be found in this site: *http://www.globalpartnership.org/our-work/areas-of-focus/aid-effectiveness/2011-monitoring-exercise-on-aid-effectiveness-2*. Results were compared with the median of all countries participating in this exercise for the education sector, with the results for all sectors in the country as presented in the 2011 OECD Survey on Monitoring the Paris Declaration, and with aid effectiveness targets for all sectors established by countries themselves to be achieved by 2010.

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