

RAPPORT D'ÉVALUATION
DE L'ÉDUCATION POUR TOUS
EN AFRIQUE SUBSAHARIENNE
2014

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United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization



***EDUCATION FOR ALL
IN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA
ASSESSMENT REPORT
2014***

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Note

The analyses and policy recommendations presented in this publication are primarily based on the opinions and perceptions shared by the national education sector teams of Sub-Saharan African countries, and do not necessarily reflect the views of UNESCO.

Acronyms and Abbreviations

ADEA	Association for the Development of Education in Africa
ANCEFA	African Network Campaign on Education for All
AU	African Union
BECE	Basic Education Certificate Examination (Ghana)
CCNGO/EFA	Collective Consultation of NGOs on EFA
CONFEMEN	Conference of Ministers of Education of French-Speaking Countries
CSR	Education Country Status Report
ECCE	Early Childhood Care and Education
ECD	Early Childhood Development
EDI	African EFA Development Index
EFA	Education for All
EGMA	Early Grade Mathematics Assessment
EGRA	Early Grade Reading Assessment
EMIS	Education Management Information System
FAWE	Forum of African Women Educationalists
FTI	EFA Fast-Track Initiative
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GER	Gross Enrollment Rate
GMR	EFA Global Monitoring Report
GPE	Global Partnership for Education (previously the FTI)
GPI	Gender Parity Index
ICT	Information and Communication Technologies
IEC	Information, education and communication
IECD	Integrated Early Childhood Development
IIEP	UNESCO's International Institute for Educational Planning
INGO	International nongovernmental organization
LIC	Low Income Country
NEA	National Education Assessment (Ghana)
NGO	Nongovernmental Organization
OIF	<i>Organisation Internationale de la Francophonie</i>
PASEC	Programme for the Analysis of the Educational Systems of CONFEMEN Countries
PCR	Primary Completion Rate
PIRLS	Progress in International Reading Literacy Study
PSLE	Primary School Leaving Examination (U. R. of Tanzania)
PTR	Pupil-Teacher Ratio
SACMEQ	Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
TFP	Technical and Financial Partners
TIMSS	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training

UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UPE	Universal Primary Education
WASSCE	West African Senior School Certificate Examination (Ghana)

Introduction

The organization of the World Education Forum in 2000 opened a new era of international mobilization for the development of education. After numerous world summits devoted to the promotion of universal education, the pragmatic debates and recommendations of the Dakar Forum clarified both the actions to be implemented and the financing offered to support them.

A review of the overall cost of Education for All development support policies, based on a minimal reformulation of education policies (clear definition of priorities between levels and types of education, rationalization of spending and management, and so on) gave countries, and the international community, renewed hope with respect to the prospect of eventually achieving these goals within a known timeframe (2015), thanks to the respective financial commitments of governments and their partners.

Six specific goals were set, covering several educational dimensions and targets (formal/nonformal, general/vocational, youth/adults), explicitly including the commitment to equity and quality. Twelve strategies were proposed to achieve these goals and ensure Education for All (EFA).

This pragmatism also touched on policy elaboration processes and the relationships between governments and their partners, sealing an agreement whereby no “credible” EFA plan’s implementation would be hindered by lack of financing. This adjective, which has been subject to varied interpretations over the 2000-15 period, refers to the basic rationalization of the policies mentioned above, with the aim of ensuring the sustainability of the results achieved.

Significant efforts have been deployed to build human, institutional and organizational capacities for the planning, elaboration and management of national education policies, in particular through the provision of decision-making tools and the creation of policy dialogue frameworks. This, in order to guarantee the credibility of the education plans, destined to become referential documents for all education sector players in each country.

Furthermore, new sources of multinational financing were created to finance them. The birth of the Fast-Track Initiative (FTI), with funds earmarked for the elaboration of sector plans on the one hand (capacity building, research and publications), and to co-finance their implementation on the other (through the Catalytic Fund) epitomizes the spirit of the Forum.

The streamlining of policies and their financing involved the repositioning of donors as technical and financial partners (TFPs), contributing to limit the detrimental impacts of highly competitive international aid. The Dakar Framework for Action’s recommendations were adopted by the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness, leading donor procedures to evolve, aiming for greater coherence, complementarity and coordination, and gradually facilitating governments’ ownership of the formulation and management of their education policies. The rebranding of the FTI as the Global Partnership for Education (GPE) further consolidated this trend.

The period initiated by the Dakar Forum has also been fertile in terms of the monitoring and evaluation of progress, with the publication of annual global and regional reports, the organization of high level monitoring conferences involving governments and TFPs under UNESCO's leadership, and the strengthening of national and international statistical systems, facilitating the multiplication of reviews and analysis (See Annex 1).

This report shares this approach. It is first and foremost a regional review of Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), offering a virtually final evaluation of the level of achievement of the EFA goals, one year short of the deadline set in 2000.¹ The study also includes a sub-regional dimension where data permit (the distribution of countries reflects that used by UNESCO's multisectoral regional offices), as well as a national dimension, through case studies illustrating the experiences of several countries, based on their efforts to attain given goals, or their specific contexts.

The layout of this report reflects that proposed in UNESCO's Guidelines for National EFA Reviews.² The analysis is both quantitative and qualitative, as the report has a participative nature, wishing to reflect and value the contexts and progress of each country to the greatest possible degree. It comprises four sections:

- Section 1: The baseline period is reviewed from several angles (demographic, education system coverage and education policy and financing), to underline the challenges that Sub-Saharan African countries and regions faced in 2000.
- Section 2: Firstly, the evolution of the socioeconomic context and of education policy and financing indicators over the 2000-12 period is reviewed. Then, a direct statistical measure of the EFA goals enables an illustration of their respective levels of achievement, allowing for an analysis by region. The indicators provided are computed giving preference to data provided directly by countries, and complemented by those of the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) and other institutions.³
- Section 3: A more detailed understanding of the way in which these results have been achieved, the strengths and weaknesses of national policies and strategies, governments' perceptions of their successes and failures and the identification of lessons learned and good practices is provided by the review of country team responses to the EFA surveys, which include many open questions (See Annex 4).
- Section 4: Governments' general views of the current EFA framework, its impact on the execution of national policies and of related institutions and procedures also contributes to the post-2015 debate, contributing to define countries' priority goals, the new referential framework within which they might fit and the procedures and financial and human resources required to achieve them. These issues are also covered by the questionnaire, included in Annex 4.

¹ This is equivalent to the review of progress towards EFA over the 2000-12 period (See Annex 3 on methodological considerations).

² "National EFA 2015 Reviews – Guidelines," (UNESCO, June 2013).

³ See Annex 3.

Section 1. Overview of Education in SSA in 2000 – Challenges and Goals

This first section presents the demographic context that prevailed at the time of the Dakar Forum in 2000 and the most notable factors that characterized education systems over the period (financing and costs, organization, access and equity). The analysis covers Sub-Saharan Africa (47 countries) and its four regions: West Africa, East Africa, Southern Africa and Central Africa (See Table 1).

Table 1: UNESCO’s Regional Divisions for Sub-Saharan Africa

	West Africa*	East Africa	Southern Africa	Central Africa
No. of Countries	15	13	9	10
Countries	Benin Burkina Faso Cabo Verde Côte d’Ivoire Gambia, The Ghana Guinea Guinea Bissau Liberia Mali Niger Nigeria Senegal Sierra Leone Togo	Comoros Djibouti Eritrea Ethiopia Kenya Madagascar Mauritius Rwanda Seychelles Somalia South Sudan Uganda U. R. of Tanzania	Botswana Lesotho Malawi Mozambique Namibia South Africa Swaziland Zambia Zimbabwe	Angola Burundi Cameroon CAR Chad Congo DRC Equatorial Guinea Gabon Sao Tomé and Principe

Note: For the purpose of this report, the West Africa region includes the countries covered by both UNESCO’s Abuja (West Africa) and Dakar (West Africa – Sahel) offices.

1.A- The Demographic Status of SSA in 2000

In 2000, Sub-Saharan Africa totaled 631 million inhabitants. The demographics of the four regions are very heterogeneous:

- West Africa: the most populated (230 million - 15 countries). Nigeria already represented over half the population (123 million), the populations of other countries ranging from 437 000 inhabitants for Cabo Verde to 16.3 million for Côte d’Ivoire.
- East Africa: (197 million – 13 countries). Four countries represented over three quarters of the population, including Ethiopia, the largest with 66 million inhabitants, Kenya, U. R. of Tanzania and Uganda. Three countries had fewer than a million: Djibouti, the Comoros, and Seychelles (the smallest country, with 80,000 inhabitants).

- Southern Africa: (104 million - 9 countries). Whereas South Africa's population was 45 million, Mozambique, Zimbabwe, Malawi and Zambia's were each between 10 million and 20 million, the remaining countries then having fewer than 2 million inhabitants each.
- Central Africa: (100 million - 10 countries). DRC alone represented 47 percent of the population, whereas seven countries had fewer than 8 million inhabitants each, including Equatorial Guinea (518,000) and Sao Tomé and Príncipe (142,000).

1.B- Education Coverage in SSA in 2000

This section describes the level of development of education in Sub-Saharan Africa and for each of its regions at the time of the World Education Forum. Table 2 provides a number of education indicators for 2000 as an illustration. Those offered here are now among the main indicators used to monitor progress towards the EFA goals over the 2000-15 period, and will later allow for historical comparisons (See Section 2).

Table 2: Education Coverage Indicators, for SSA and by Region, 2000

		West Africa	East Africa	Southern Africa	Central Africa	SSA
Prep.	Gross Enrollment Rate (GER)	9%	14%	25%	6%	11%
Primary	GER	82%	80%	100%	67%	82%
	Access Rate	71% #	110%	114%	71%	94%
	Completion Rate	43% #	45%	69%	34%	47%
Secondary	GER – Lower Secondary	27%	21%	56%	23%	28%
	GER – Upper Secondary	17%	15%	38%	11%	19%
	Completion Rate – Upper Sec.	9% #	10%#	10% #	12%	10%
TVET	TVET Enrollment (Share of General Secondary)	6% #	3%	5%	21%	8%
Literacy	Literacy Rate - 15 years + *	39%	72%	74%	60%	58%
Higher	Students per 100,000 Inhabitants	338 #	160	203 #	224	217
GPI	Gender Parity Index – Primary **	0.77	0.90	0.95	0.84	0.85

Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.

Note: * Simple arithmetic means of the country rates, which do not reflect the weight of countries' population size.

** Computed as the ratio between the GER for girls and the GER for boys. # Figures are indicative, the data being unavailable for some countries (Ethiopia, Nigeria and South Africa) whose relative demographic weight is significant (country data are provided in Annex 2; also, see Annex 3 for methodology considerations).

Table 2 highlights the following findings. In 2000:

- Preprimary education was embryonic in SSA, with an enrollment rate close to 11 percent, with the notable exception of Southern Africa, where the rate stood at 25 percent.

- The primary gross enrollment rate (GER) was 82 percent on average for SSA, with significant gaps between regions (from 67 percent in Central Africa to 100 percent in Southern Africa).
- The primary completion rate was 47 percent for SSA. This low average reflects the low rates for Central Africa and West Africa, where only 34 percent and 43 percent of children of primary school age completed the cycle, respectively.
- The GER was only 28 percent for lower secondary and 19 percent for upper secondary (Southern Africa stood apart with rates twice this high). On average, only 10 percent of a generation of children completed the full secondary cycle.
- The development of technical and vocational education and training (TVET) was low, its enrollment representing barely 8 percent of that of total secondary (but 21 percent in Central Africa).⁴
- The share of literate adults was 58 percent for SSA, being higher in East Africa (72 percent) and Southern Africa (74 percent). In West Africa, illiteracy was marked (39 percent).
- The coverage of higher education was still relatively limited overall, with 217 students per 100,000 inhabitants for SSA, although a handful of countries had already invested considerably in this cycle, such as Nigeria and Mauritius (with close to 1,000 students per 100,000 inhabitants), and Liberia and South Africa (with close to 1,500).
- Enrollment of girls in primary was markedly lower than that of boys, with an average gender parity index (GPI) of 0.85 (85 girls enrolled for every 100 boys). Southern Africa (GPI of 0.95) was already close to parity, whereas in West Africa (GPI of 0.77) and Central Africa (GPI of 0.84), gender parity was low.

1.C- Some Characteristics of Education Policies in SSA in 2000

This section reviews the characteristics of education policies in SSA at the beginning of the period, primarily thanks to financial indicators. The resources available for education are on the one hand a factor of: (i) national wealth, (ii) governments' ability to raise a share of it to fund public services, and (iii) the share of the budget allocated to education (*inter*-sectoral trade-offs); and on the other, of: (iv) foreign aid. The education budget is then distributed according to education policy, in particular the priorities given to each level and type of education (*intra*-sectoral trade-offs). Table 3 below provides several relevant data for 2000, which help to identify the levers used by governments in their EFA development policies (Table 13 in Section 4 provides these same data for 2012, as well as their evolution over the period).

On average in SSA, countries' internal resources were equivalent to 19.4 percent of gross domestic product (GDP), with a maximum for Southern Africa (28.2 percent) and a minimum for West Africa (14.3 percent). The share of education in national recurrent budgets was 20.6 percent on average in SSA, although it was significantly lower in Central Africa (15.4 percent) and varied considerably among countries: from under 10 percent in Angola, Equatorial Guinea and DRC, to close to 30

⁴ TVET enrollment is compared to that of general secondary plus TVET to illustrate its relative share of education provision for those children and youth leaving primary.

percent for Senegal, Togo, Côte d'Ivoire, Botswana, Lesotho, Niger and Uganda. Countries' financial commitment to education, measured here by the amount of total education expenditure financed on internal resources as a share of GDP, varied markedly among countries, from under 2 percent in Guinea, Guinea Bissau, Equatorial Guinea and CAR, to over 6 percent in Cabo Verde, Congo, Djibouti, Kenya, Lesotho (11 percent) and Namibia (8 percent).

Table 3: Education Financing, for SSA and by Region, 2000

	West Africa	East Africa	Southern Africa	Central Africa	SSA
Domestic Government Resources % of GDP	14.3%	18.5%	28.2%	19.8%	19.4%
Education Expenditure, % of Recurrent Public Expenditure (excl. Debt Service)	24.2%	21.3%	21.5% [#]	15.4%	20.6%
Total Education Expenditure on Domestic Resources, % of GDP	3.7%	4.2%	5.8%	2.9%	4.0%
Share of Primary in Recurrent Education Expenditure	45.4%	51.0%	52.3%	37.6%	47.1%
Share of Secondary and TVET in Recurrent Education Expenditure	34.7%	27.1%	26.0%	32.6%	30.5%

Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.

Note: The values in the table are simple arithmetic means, which do not reflect the weight of countries' resources, expenditure or GDP. [#] Figures are indicative, data being available for less than half of countries (country data are provided in Annex 2; also, see Annex 3 for methodology considerations).

The intra-sectoral distribution of recurrent education expenditure shows that on average in SSA, the primary cycle received a little under half of spending (from 52 percent in Southern Africa to 38 percent in Central Africa), whereas the secondary cycle (including TVET) received 30 percent.

Table 4 below offers further indicators that shed additional light on the education policies followed in 2000, in particular at the primary level, in terms of teacher policy, repetition, unit costs and the weight of the private sector (Table 12 in Section 4 provides these same data for 2012, as well as their evolution over the period).

Per pupil spending in government primary schools (public unit costs) is defined by three main factors, between which governments must determine trade-offs:

1. **Pupil-Teacher Ratio (PTR):** Publicly funded primary education was characterized by relatively large classes (PTRs ranging from 42:1 on average for the countries of East Africa to 57:1 for those of Central Africa).
2. **Non-Teacher Salary Recurrent Spending:** This spending covers non-teaching personnel and administrative, pedagogical and social expenses, and is therefore a sign of quality. They represented a quarter of recurrent expenditure on average, but were particularly low in Southern Africa (18.6 percent).

3. Average Teacher Remuneration: This was equivalent to 4.2 times GDP per capita (units of GDP per capita) in SSA.

The public unit cost of primary was equivalent to 11 percent of GDP per capita on average for SSA. Central Africa, with crowded classes and modest teacher salaries, retained resources for other types of spending, whereas the countries of Southern Africa bet on higher teacher salaries and better supervision rates, at the expense of administrative, pedagogical and social spending.

The data available for the secondary level are not sufficient to break down unit costs into their different components, or to distinguish between the lower and upper cycles and TVET. Table 4 does however indicate that on average, a secondary pupil cost 2.3 times more than a primary pupil in 2000 (25.6 percent of GDP per capita).

Table 4: Education Policy Parameters, for SSA and by Region, 2000

	West Africa	East Africa	Southern Africa	Central Africa	SSA
PTR – Primary Publicly-Funded Schools	42.7:1	42.4:1	43.6:1	56.8:1	45.7:1
Non-Teacher Salary Spending - Primary % of Recurrent Expenditure	29.0%	27.6%	18.6%	24.0%	25.6%
Teacher Remuneration - Primary (Units of GDP per Capita)	4.0	4.4	4.9*	3.9*	4.2
% of Repeaters - Primary	13.5%	16.5%	12.4%	22.8%	16.1%
Public Unit Costs (% of GDP per Capita)					
Primary	14.4%	10.8%	12.0%	5.7%	11.1%
Secondary/TVET	**	25.9%*	23.4%*	**	25.6%*
% of Pupils in Non-State Schools					
Primary	14.3%	10.7%	2.7%	22.5%	12.6%
Lower Secondary	18.3%	33.6%	2.0%	18.3%*	20.2%

Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.

Note: The values in the table are simple arithmetic means, which do not reflect the weight of countries' pupils, teachers, expenditure, GDP or population. # Figures are indicative, data being available for less than half of countries. ** Figures not provided, as data are available for an unrepresentative number of countries (less than a third). Country data are provided in Annex 2; also, see Annex 3 for methodology considerations.

Although the share of repeaters at the primary level was 16.1 percent on average in SSA in 2000, rates were lower in Southern Africa (12.4 percent) and West Africa (13.5 percent), whereas in Central Africa they were significantly higher (22.8 percent).

The share of the private sector in primary education provision, close to 13 percent on average for SSA, also varies greatly, from 3 percent in Southern Africa to 22.5 percent in Central Africa. Although variations are slighter for lower secondary education (SSA average of 20.2 percent), the private sector in Southern Africa was no more prevalent than at the primary level, whereas it accounted for a high share of supply in East Africa, of 33.6 percent.

1.D- SSA Education Systems' Development Goals

The overview provided by Parts 1.B and 1.C of the report provides the necessary context to delineate the education challenges countries faced in 2000, and to appreciate the relevance of the EFA goals set at the Dakar Forum.

At the turn of the century, literacy was relatively low in Sub-Saharan Africa (only 58 percent of adults were literate), and all the more fragile that barely one in two children completed primary, which is recognized today to be the minimum level required to become sustainably literate. The gap between these two indicators underlines the significant part played by other non-state education providers, such as Koranic schools and nonformal initiatives (see the percentage of pupils enrolled in non-state schools in Table 4 above). Although access to primary was on track to becoming universal in 2000, preprimary enrollment was low and long school careers were rare. This weak development was further compounded by deep inequalities in individual schooling careers, related to the area of residence, gender and household income levels.

This situation partly reflected the comparative under-financing of education at the time, due in some countries to difficulties in raising funds through taxes, and occasionally to budgetary trade-offs that were unfavorable to education sectors. These financing constraints led to combinations of education policies that were not conducive to the harmonious development of the sector.

Box 1: The Six EFA Goals

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

These various findings are sufficient to understand that Sub-Saharan Africa was of particular interest at the Dakar Forum and the six goals it set for the effective development of EFA by 2015. Much as the public eye may have focused on the promotion of the universal completion of free primary education

of good quality (Goal 2), the EFA goals encompass much more, as they relate to the education and training needs of all children and adults (See Box 1). The will to address all forms of education and training, and to formalize the fight against any kind of discrimination leads to some overlap between these different goals, in particular between Goals 2, 5 and 6.

Section 2. The EFA Goals – Progress between 2000 and 2012

The operational definition of indicators reflecting education goals is always delicate, but a general consensus has emerged for the measurement of the six EFA goals over time and through assessments of progress. After a review of the socioeconomic situation of SSA in 2012 and its evolution since 2000, as well as of education financing and policy indicators in 2012 and their evolution over the period, this section offers an analysis of the evolution of the main statistical indicators used to measure progress towards the different EFA goals.⁵

2.A- Socioeconomic Status of SSA in 2012

In 2012, Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) numbered approximately 869 million inhabitants, about 238 million more than in 2000. The population of SSA has grown at the relatively high annual average rate of 2.7 percent over the period (ranging from a moderate average of 1.8 percent for Southern Africa to over 2.8 percent in the other regions). This growth constitutes a significant constraint for the development of education systems, illustrated by the important share of the population that is of primary school age, of 17.2 percent on average for SSA, ranging from 16.3 percent in West Africa to 18.3 percent in Southern Africa (See Table 5).

Table 5: Socioeconomic Characteristics, for SSA and by Region, 2012

	West Africa	East Africa	Southern Africa	Central Africa	SSA
Population (Million)					
2000	230.4	196.8	103.6	100.4	631.3
2012	319.8	278.6	128.8	141.9	869.1
<i>Average Annual Growth Rate (2000-12)</i>	2.8%	2.9%	1.8%	2.9%	2.7%
% of the Population of Primary School Age (2012)	16.3%	18.3%	17.8%	16.5%	17.2%
<i>Average Annual Growth Rate (2000-12)</i>	2.8%	2.9%	1.4%	3.1%	2.7%
GDP per Capita (US\$)	1,249	644	3,644	1,595	1,467
<i>Real Annual Growth Rate (2000-12)</i>	3.9%	2.9%	1.6%	3.3%	2.4%
HIV&AIDS Prevalence Rate *	1.7%	2.6%	16.9%	3.3%	5.3%

Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.

Note: * These values are simple arithmetic means that do not reflect the weight of each country's population.

Just as the population has grown at a high pace, so has the economy, with average annual GDP growth over the period of 5.1 percent for SSA. This growth has entailed an increase in the average

⁵ The statistical assessment of SSA's regions is subject to certain limitations; various approaches have been used as a result (See Annex 3 on methodological considerations).

real wealth per capita (+2.4 percent per year on average), providing some scope for the financing of education, both by governments and families. The rise in real GDP per capita has been greatest in West Africa (3.9 percent per year on average) and lowest in Southern Africa (1.6 percent per year on average), despite slower population growth. In Southern Africa the level of wealth per capita is nevertheless the highest by far (US\$ 3,644), whereas it is weakest in East Africa (US\$ 644).

Nevertheless, despite this progress, the majority of Sub-Saharan African countries are still ranked as low income countries (LICs). In 2000, they were 39 (all SSA countries except South Africa, Botswana, Gabon, Equatorial Guinea, Mauritius, Namibia, the Seychelles and Swaziland). Since then, six countries have left the LIC ranking: Cameroon, Cabo Verde, Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana and Nigeria. However, with the incorporation of South Sudan, 34 out of 47 countries are still ranked as LICs.⁶

Beyond these general issues, the countries of Sub-Saharan Africa face two further specific challenges that hinder progress towards EFA: HIV and AIDS, and conflict and postconflict situations.

Health

Health plays a determining role in education and learning outcomes. Micronutrient deficiencies, parasite infections, sight or hearing impairments and unintentional pregnancies are some potential obstacles to enrollment, attendance, the completion of studies and good results. Appropriate nutrition for instance, particularly during early childhood, can enhance the intellectual development and learning outcomes of youth and adolescents. In terms of sexual and reproductive health, early marriage often dashes all hope of enrollment for girls, and numerous discriminatory measures keep them away from school in cases of pregnancy.

HIV and AIDS pose a significant threat to the development of education systems, directly and indirectly, and constitute a particular challenge. In countries where the epidemic is widespread (prevalence rates above 1 percent) HIV and AIDS increase the teaching staff attrition rate, affect school attendance, reduce the success rate of pupils that are infected or affected and increase dropout. Moreover, initiatives aiming to compensate or mitigate the impact of the pandemic (training new teachers to compensate for attrition, support services for orphans and vulnerable children) carry an economic cost. Youth aged 15 to 24 years represent 40 percent of new infections.

The fight against HIV and AIDS at the international and national levels is yielding results. Between 2001 and 2009, the rate of new infections receded by over 25 percent in 33 countries, including 22 in SSA.⁷ However, the prevalence of HIV is still high on the continent, at about 5.3 percent, and its level is particularly worrying in Southern Africa, despite the progress achieved (16.9 percent for

⁶ OECD-DAC: <http://www.oecd.org/dac/stats/historyofdaclistsofaidrecipientcountries.htm> (viewed on 30 October 2014). A country was ranked as *low income* in 2000 if its gross national revenue (GNR) per capita was below US\$ 760 in 1998, and in 2012 if its GNR per capita was below US\$ 1,005 in 2010.

⁷ "Note technique sur le secteur de l'éducation - Éducation au VIH et à la santé" (UNESCO, 2013).

adults on average in 2012). In Central Africa (3.3 percent) and East Africa (2.6 percent) the rates are more modest, and the pandemic is relatively well controlled in West African countries (1.7 percent).

Additionally, new challenges threaten EFA achievements in some countries, such as the Ebola epidemic in West Africa, whose multiple consequences have a direct impact on education, leading to the closure of schools for instance, or an indirect one, by depleting governments and households' economic resources.

Conflict Situations

Situations of conflict or major crisis also have a direct impact on education indicators as a whole, exacerbating already fragile contexts. In particular, this impact translates into fragile civil services, subject to unpredictable foreign aid, low levels of enrollment and schooling and weak institutional coordination and steering mechanisms, if not the misappropriation of education resources, or exacerbated income and gender disparities. Furthermore, crises worsen sanitary conditions and a significant share of the resulting mortality is due not to fighting, but illness and malnutrition.

Of the 30 countries in the world considered to be fragile states in 2014, 17 are in SSA, representing a third of the region's countries.⁸ Moreover, in SSA countries affected by conflict, education indicators are amongst the weakest worldwide. Education and development in Sub-Saharan Africa are therefore greatly affected. For instance: (i) the probability that youth living in the DRC province of North-Kivu be schooled for less than two years is twice as high as the national average; (ii) in Northern Uganda, violence doubles the risk of girls from the poorest households being out-of-school; (iii) in SSA countries affected by conflict, only 55 percent of adults are literate, against 85 percent on average for countries at peace worldwide; and (iv) in Mozambique, the 1977-92 civil war entailed the loss of 5.3 years of schooling on average.⁹

2.B- Some Characteristics of Education Policies in SSA in 2012

This section revisits the items that characterize the operation and financing of education systems, and education policies for 2012, illustrating trends over the 2000-12 period (See Section 1.C for the situation in 2000).

The global resource mobilization context has improved for education in SSA (See Table 6 below). Indeed, at the continental level, the tax base has marginally grown. Despite the international context, domestic resources as a percentage of GDP have gained 8 percent, to reach 21 percent. Southern Africa remains the region where this rate is the highest (27.4 percent), but the most remarkable evolution is noted in Central Africa, where domestic resources have risen by 32 percent, from 20

⁸ World Bank: <http://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/fragilityconflictviolence> (viewed on 30 October 2014). The 17 countries are Burundi, CAR, Chad, the Comoros, DRC, Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Eritrea, Guinea Bissau, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Sierra Leone, Somalia, South Sudan and Togo.

⁹ "EFA Global Monitoring Report – The Hidden Crisis: Armed Conflict and Education," (UNESCO, 2011).

percent of GDP to 26 percent of GDP. The increase in West Africa (+19 percent) is also worthy of note, contributing to close the gap with the rest of the continent.

Table 6: Education Financing, for SSA and by Region, 2012

	West Africa	East Africa	Southern Africa	Central Africa	SSA
Domestic Government Resources % of GDP <i>Global Trend 2000-12</i>	17.1% +19% [#]	20.0% +8%	27.4%* -3% [#]	26.1% +32%	21.0% +8%
Education Expenditure, % of Recurrent Public Expenditure (excl. Debt Service) <i>Global Trend 2000-12</i>	24.5% +1%	24.0% +13%	19.9% -7% [#]	21.3% +39%	22.8% +11%
Total Education Expenditure on Domestic Resources, % of GDP <i>Global Trend 2000-12</i>	4.3% +15% [#]	4.3% +3%	5.6% -4%	4.3% +48%	4.5% +13%
Share of Primary in Recurrent Education Expenditure <i>Global Trend 2000-12</i>	48.6% +7%	42.0%* -18% [#]	40.5% -23%	41.2% +10% [#]	44.2% -6%
Share of Secondary and TVET in Recurrent Education Expenditure n <i>Global Trend 2000-12</i>	30.9% -11%	31.4%* +16.2% [#]	29.5% +14%	29.8% -9%	30.5% +0%

Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.

Note: The 2012 values in the table are simple arithmetic means, which do not reflect the weight of countries' resources, expenditure or GDP. * Figures are indicative, data being available for less than half of countries. [#] Trends are indicative, due to a significant variation in the number of countries per region upon which averages are based, between 2000 and 2012 (country data are provided in Annex 2; also, see Annex 3 for methodology considerations).

Furthermore, education sectors now receive a greater share of recurrent public expenditure, which has increased in all regions and has gained over 11 percent in SSA over the period. For 2012, this share is 22.8 percent on average, and is equivalent or higher in all regions than the benchmark used in the context of EFA, of 20 percent. Thus, national spending for the sector as a percentage of GDP increased by 13 percent on average between 2000 and 2012, to reach 4.5 percent of GDP. The gaps between countries continue to be significant however, the share ranging from 0.8 percent in Zambia to over 6 percent in Botswana, Congo, Ghana, Kenya, Namibia, Sao Tomé and Príncipe, South Africa and Swaziland.

The intra-sectoral distribution of recurrent education expenditure suggests that on average in SSA, the share of spending devoted to preprimary and higher education has increased. Indeed, the share devoted to primary has dropped overall, by 6 percent over the period, to reach 44 percent (but has dropped by about 20 percent in East and Southern Africa, and has increased in West and Central Africa, by 7 percent and 10 percent respectively). Furthermore, the share devoted to secondary, including TVET, has remained stable at 30 percent.

Despite this favorable resource mobilization context, average public unit costs dropped slightly in SSA between 2000 and 2012 (See Table 7 below). For primary, this drop is marginal at the continental level (- 4 percent), and can be explained by the reduction in average teacher remuneration, of one

unit of GDP per capita, equivalent to about 25 percent. On the basis of 15 countries for which data are available, the average primary teacher salary is 3.3 units of GDP per capita for 2012, closing the gap with the EFA benchmark, of 3.5 units.

Regional situations nevertheless reflect very distinct approaches to sector financing. Whereas unit costs have dropped by about 18 percent in West and East Africa, in Southern and Central Africa, primary public unit costs have in fact increased. In the latter region, the evolution, of + 31 percent, is significant. It is explained by a marked improvement in the pupil-teacher ratio, reflecting sustained teacher recruitment efforts, but also by a sharp rise in administrative, pedagogical and social spending. Nevertheless, per pupil spending in Central Africa is the lowest of the four regions.

At the secondary level, including TVET, the drop in unit costs is clearer, of - 10 percent on average for SSA. Southern Africa departs from this trend however, with a net increase, of + 20 percent, underlining the importance that is currently given to postprimary cycles in this region.

Table 7: Education Policy Parameters, for SSA and by Region, 2012

	West Africa	East Africa	Southern Africa	Central Africa	SSA
PTR – Primary Publicly-Funded Schools	41.5:1	42.3:1	44.6:1	48.7:1	43.9:1
<i>2000-12 Trend</i>	-1	-0	+1	-8	-2
Non-Teacher Salary Spending - Primary % of Recurrent Expenditure	25.1% *	**	**	27.6%	24.4% *
<i>2000-12 Trend</i>	-14% #	n/a	n/a	+15%	-5% #
Teacher Remuneration - Primary (Units of GDP per Capita)	3.2 *	**	**	2.8	3.3 *
<i>2000-12 Trend</i>	-1 #	n/a	n/a	-1 #	-1 #
% of Repeaters - Primary	10.7%	11.4%	10.8%	18.3%	12.6%
<i>2000-12 Trend</i>	-3pp	-5pp	-2pp	-5pp	-4pp
Public Unit Costs (% of GDP per Capita) Primary	12.0% *	8.9%	14.1%	7.5%	10.7%
<i>2000-12 Trend</i>	-17%	-18%	+18%	+31%	-4%
Secondary/TVET	19.8%	24.0%	28.2% *	24.9%	23.1%
<i>2000-12 Trend</i>	n/a	-8% #	+20% #	n/a	-10% #
% of Pupils in Non-State Schools Primary	18.0%	11.7%	4.9%	18.9%	14.3%
<i>2000-12 Trend</i>	+26%	+9%	+83%	-16%	+13%
Lower Secondary	22.3%	24.2%	4.9%	22.7%	20.3%
<i>2000-12 Trend</i>	+22%	-28%	+142%	+24.0% #	+2% #

Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.

Note: The 2012 values in the table are simple arithmetic means, which do not reflect the weight of countries' pupils, teachers, expenditure, GDP or population. * Figures are indicative, data being available for less than half of countries. ** Figures not provided, as data are available for an unrepresentative number of countries (less than a third). # Trends are indicative, due to a significant variation in the number of countries per region upon which averages are based, between 2000 and 2012 (country data are provided in Annex 2; also, see Annex 3 for methodology considerations).

Table 7 also indicates that repetition has been curbed, the share of repeaters having dropped in all regions, by 4 percentage points on average. Thus, the rate is close to 11 percent in SSA, excluding Central Africa, where it remains high (18 percent).

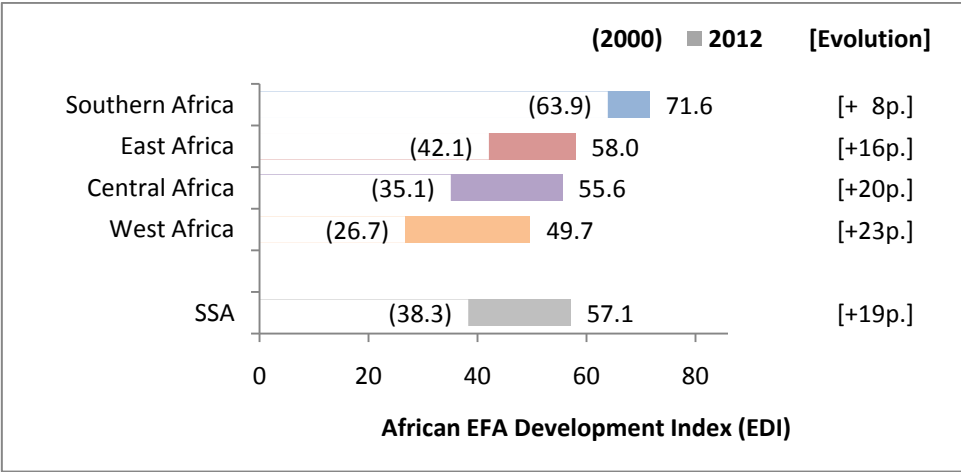
Finally, the share of private education, despite its apparent relative stability for SSA, has varied considerably within regions. In Southern Africa, where the supply of non-public education was the lowest in 2000, this sector has doubled in size. Whereas the investment in public education appears have been reinforced at the primary level in Central Africa and at lower secondary in East Africa over the period (the share of private education having dropped), for all the other cycles and regions, some growth in the private sector is noted.

2.C- The African EFA Development Index

The African EFA Development Index (EDI) provides a synthetic perspective of the state of development of countries’ education systems, and is computed for all of SSA. It is based on the three most readily available education indicators and for which clear targets have been set for 2015: the primary completion rate (Goal 2), the literate share of the population aged 15 years and above (Goal 4) and parity between girls and boys in terms of primary enrollment (Goal 5).

Figure 1 illustrates the evolution of the index between 2000 and 2012. Progress has clearly been made throughout the continent, the value of the index having increased from 38.3 to 57.1 for SSA, equivalent to a 50 percent gain. There is further scope for improvement however, given that none of the regions, and even less SSA as a whole, is close to the value of 100 that represents the ideal situation with respect to the three indicators that the index comprises.

Figure 1: Evolution of the EDI, for SSA and by region, 2000-12



Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.

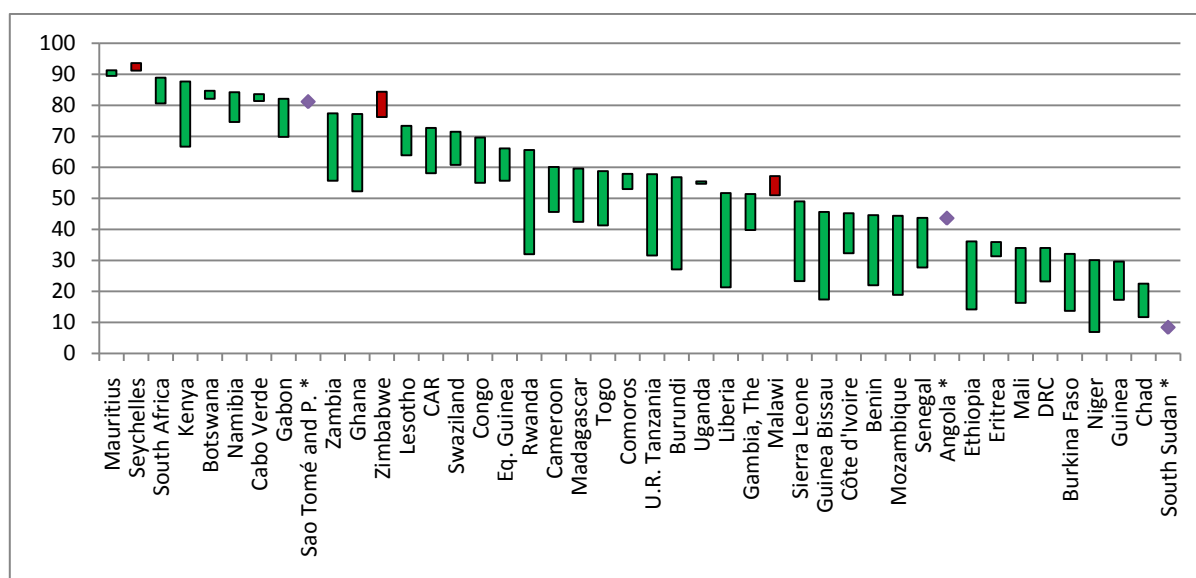
The ranking of regions with respect to this index has not changed over the period. The weaker the index in 2000, the greater the progress made. Thus, gaps between regions have decreased. The

greatest progress is noted in West Africa, where the index was initially the lowest. In 2012, Southern Africa is still the region with the highest average index (71.6).

Figure 2 illustrates the evolution of the index by country, showing progress in green and declines in red. It highlights the following key points:

- Only nine countries' indexes are relatively high (above 80), whereas for sixteen countries it is relatively low (below 50).
- The index has improved considerably in four countries, by close to 30 points: the EDI has gained 34 points in Rwanda, 30 points in Liberia, 30 points in Burundi and 28 points in Guinea Bissau.
- Progress is strong, of 20 points or more, in nine further countries (in decreasing order): U. R. of Tanzania (+ 26.2 points), Sierra Leone, Mozambique, Ghana, Niger, Benin, Ethiopia, Zambia and Kenya (+ 21.0 points).
- The educational context appears to have deteriorated in three countries, the EDI having dipped: although this is slight in the Seychelles, where the baseline situation was favorable, it is of greater concern in Malawi (- 6.2 points) and Zimbabwe (- 8.2 points).

Figure 2: Evolution of the EDI, by SSA Country, 2000-12



Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.

Note: The green bars represent countries where the EDI has improved; the lower point shows its value in 2000 and the higher point its value in 2012. The red bars represent countries where the index has dropped, and the points are inverted. The available data do not permit the computation of the EDI for Djibouti, Nigeria or Somalia. * For Sao Tomé and Principe, Angola and South Sudan, the index is only computed for 2012.

Furthermore, crossing these results with the distribution of countries by region leads to the following findings:

- Southern Africa: Countries' performances in terms of EFA are among SSA's highest. South Africa, Botswana and Namibia's indexes are above 80 and those of Lesotho, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe are over 70.

- East Africa: Although the indexes for the Seychelles, Mauritius and Kenya are close to 90, for most countries (the Comoros, Madagascar, Rwanda, Uganda and U. R. of Tanzania) the EDI is between 55 and 65. In Eritrea it is close to 35, as well as in Ethiopia, where the index has nevertheless significantly improved (+ 150 percent).
- Central Africa: Gabon is the only country whose index is above 80 in 2012 (82.1). The starkest progress is noted for Burundi (+ 110 percent) and in Chad the index has considerably improved in relative terms (+ 90 percent), but remains at a generally low level (22.5).
- West Africa: In many countries (Benin, Burkina Faso, Guinea Bissau, Mali and Niger) the EDI has increased significantly, but nevertheless remains below the SSA average, due to its low baseline level. In Niger in particular, the EDI has more than quadrupled (from 6.9 to 30.1). The most advanced countries in this region are Ghana (77.2 in 2012, after growth of 50 percent) and Cabo Verde (83.6).

The following section will explore the gains achieved by each region in greater detail, reviewing each of the key EFA goals individually.

2.D- Goal 1: Early Childhood Care and Education

For many countries, early childhood care and education (ECCE) continues to be a complex goal, as it is multidimensional and requires inter-sectoral coordination that makes its management more difficult than that of the primary sector, for instance. The idea that preschool unit costs are higher than those of primary has also limited the development of preschool education in a context of budgetary constraints. Due to this, the phrasing of Goal 1 as adopted by the Dakar Forum is relatively modest.

Several research projects have since demonstrated the importance of ECCE.¹⁰ In particular, they have underlined the positive impact preschool education can have on primary schooling, and the EFA GMR on early childhood has since proposed a consensual definition of this goal:¹¹

“ECCE supports children’s survival, growth, development and learning – including health, nutrition and hygiene, and cognitive, social, physical and emotional development – from birth to entry into primary school in formal, informal and non-formal settings.”

The great variety of shapes that ECCE assumes today (parental practices, community care centers, playschools, formal preschool education, religious education) makes its synthetic measure complex.

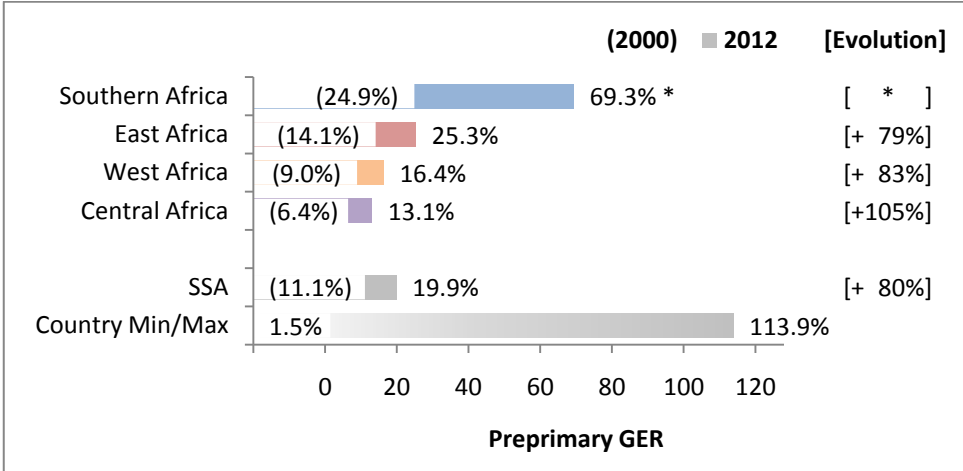
¹⁰ In particular, see the research of James Heckman (Nobel prizewinner in Economics in 2000). Also, *The Lancet* series devoted two special series (January 2007 and September 2011) to the ECD issue, including novel studies on the positive externalities of early childhood (<http://www.thelancet.com/series/child-development-in-developing-countries>).

¹¹ “EFA Global Monitoring Report 2007: Strong Foundations, Early Childhood Care and Education” (UNESCO, 2007).

For this reason, the goal is conventionally monitored through the preprimary gross enrollment rate (GER).¹²

Figure 3 underlines the highly favorable evolution of preprimary enrollment between 2000 and 2012, the GER for SSA having virtually doubled, from 11.1 percent to 19.9 percent. This positive and fairly homogenous trend is noted in all regions, the rate having increased by between 79 percent in East Africa and 105 percent in Central Africa. Nevertheless, the overall level of coverage remains low, indicating that formal ECCE still only benefits a minority.

Figure 3: Evolution of the Preprimary GER, for SSA and by region, 2000-12



Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.
 Note: The Country Min/Max bar shows the range of country GER levels for 2012. Thus Chad has the lowest rate (1.5%) and Ghana the highest (113.9%). * For 2012, the GER for Southern Africa is based on just three countries: Lesotho, South Africa and Swaziland.

These averages conceal spectacular trends in some countries: in Uganda the GER increased from 23 percent to 90 percent between 2000 and 2012; in Ghana, from 50 percent to 114 percent and in South Africa, from 33 percent to 78 percent, with a progression of close to 140 percent. The Seychelles and Mauritius (with respective rates of 93 percent and 113 percent in 2012) were already among those countries with the highest rates in 2000. Cabo Verde has also consolidated its education provision for young children, the GER having attained 75 percent.

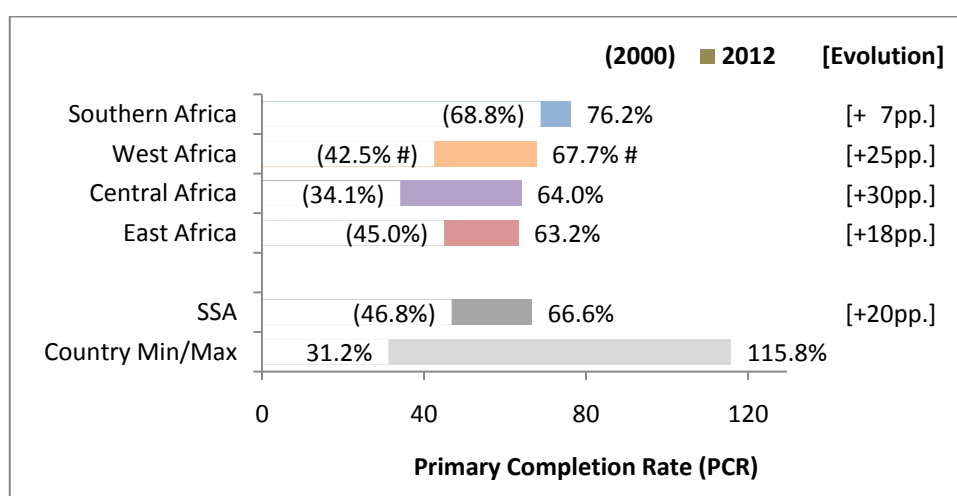
The lag faced by many African countries in this area in 2000 was significant. Efforts therefore focused on improving preschool coverage, giving particular attention to vulnerable and disadvantaged children, supply then being of a predominantly private and urban nature, to the main benefit of wealthy families. Furthermore, a less costly community alternative has gathered momentum over the period, helping to ease the financial constraint.

¹² See Annex 3 on methodological considerations.

2.E- Goal 2: Universal Primary Education

This goal, set repeatedly in the course of international conferences devoted to education, has become a beacon goal since the millennium summit, as has the gender parity goal. The Dakar Forum however reformulated it in terms of universal *completion*, whereas earlier focus was on *access*. This more precise and more demanding definition of universal primary education (UPE) took on board the results of research having clearly demonstrated that primary completion is an indispensable requisite to achieve sustainable literacy.

Figure 4: PCR Trends, for SSA and by Region, 2000-12



Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.

Note: The Country Min/Max bar shows the range of country PCR rates in 2012. Thus Eritrea has the lowest rate (31.2%) and Sao Tomé and Príncipe the highest (115.8%). # The regional averages for West Africa do not include Nigeria, due to data constraints.

Figure 4 clearly shows that completion of primary education is still far from universal in SSA, as in all four regions. For seven Sub-Saharan African countries for which data are available, even access to primary is not yet universal: Burkina Faso (88.3%), the Comoros (85.5%), Côte d'Ivoire (86.9%), Eritrea (45.5%), Mali (75.1%) and Nigeria (91.3%). The reasons for failing to achieve UPE are diverse, of the following types:

- *Structural*: many countries started the 2000-15 period with very low completion rates;
- *Political*: leaders have often lacked commitment, as education has not always been a national development priority;
- *Financial*: resources have clearly constituted a constraint for the implementation of education programmes;
- *Sociocultural*: reticence to enroll children in school, especially girls, remains strong in some areas, particularly rural; and of course
- *Educational*: the lack of teachers has often been a bottleneck (according to UIS statistics, SSA will need approximately a million new teachers by 2015 to lift this constraint), as well as the lack of school infrastructure, discouraging enrollment because of the distance to school.

Considerable progress has nevertheless been achieved, given that today two thirds of a generation of Sub-Saharan African children reach the end of the primary cycle (primary completion rate – PCR of 67 percent), against under half in 2000:

- Southern Africa: With an overall gain of 7 percentage points, Southern Africa is the region having seen least progress over the period, but it was the region with the highest rate in 2000, and still is today. Among others, its average reflects the high completion rates (close to 95 percent) of three countries: South Africa, Botswana and Zambia, as well as a drop in the PCR in Malawi (from 62.6 percent to 47.6 percent).
- West Africa: Progress in this region between 2000 and 2012 is noteworthy, the PCR having gained 25 percentage points. The rate has increased most spectacularly in Liberia and Niger, where it has more than tripled (respectively reaching 65.2 percent and 55.5 percent). It has also increased by over 80 percent in Benin over the period (to 71.5 percent), Burkina Faso (to 54.9 percent), Guinea (to 61.5 percent), Guinea Bissau (to 62.0 percent) and Mali (to 58.7 percent).
- Central Africa: Central Africa has witnessed most progress, with a gain of 30 percentage points, aligning itself with East Africa in 2012. The countries whose PCR has improved the most are Burundi (from 24.2 percent to 62.2 percent) and DRC (from 29.0 percent to 72.8 percent). Gabon, whose PCR was 86.0 percent in 2005, has likely achieved universal primary education by 2012.
- East Africa: Progress in terms of primary completion has also been momentous (+ 18 percentage points over the period), although this region's PCR is now marginally lower than that of Central Africa. The starkest hike occurred in Rwanda, with a gross gain of 54 percentage points and a PCR reaching 75.0 percent in 2012, but the rate virtually tripled in Djibouti and Kenya, and almost doubled in Madagascar. These advances are however dampened by rates that have receded in Eritrea (from 38.0 percent to 31.2 percent) and Uganda (from 61.5 percent to 55.0 percent).

Box 2 ranks Sub-Saharan African countries according to their level of achievement of UPE. Nine countries had already reached universal primary education in 2012, some of them several years earlier (the Seychelles and Mauritius), and another more recently (Sao Tomé and Príncipe). One single additional country, Zambia, should be able to achieve it by 2015. The great majority of SSA countries (36) will not achieve universal primary education by 2015. Some should be able to do so by 2020 (those with relatively high PCRs), but others should set their sights on 2025, if not 2030.

The changes noted at the primary level naturally impact on subsequent levels of education. The following section, on EFA Goal 3, will help to better understand these impacts, firstly at the lower secondary level, that increasingly forms a homogenous entity with primary education (basic education), but also in terms of overall school careers, including secondary and higher education.

Box 2: Ranking of SSA Countries According to their Level of UPE Attainment, 2012

UPE likely to be achieved after 2015			UPE within reach for 2015	UPE achieved
6 Countries	14 Countries	16 Countries	1 Country	9 Countries
PCR < 50%	50% ≤ PCR < 70%	70% ≤ PCR < 90%	90% ≤ PCR < 95%	PCR ≥ 95%
Angola CAR Chad Eritrea Malawi South Sudan	Burkina Faso Burundi Comoros Côte d'Ivoire Equatorial Guinea Ethiopia Guinea Bissau Guinea Liberia Mali Mozambique Niger Senegal Uganda	Benin Cameroon Congo Djibouti DRC Gambia, The Lesotho Madagascar Namibia Nigeria* Rwanda Sierra Leone Swaziland Togo U. R. of Tanzania Zimbabwe*	Zambia	Botswana Cabo Verde Gabon* Ghana Kenya* Mauritius Sao Tomé and Príncipe Seychelles* South Africa

Note: * In the absence of data for 2012, the level of attainment of UPE has been estimated on the basis of historical data and countries' education contexts. Somalia is not included due to lack of data.

2.F- Goal 3: The Educational Needs of Youth and Adults

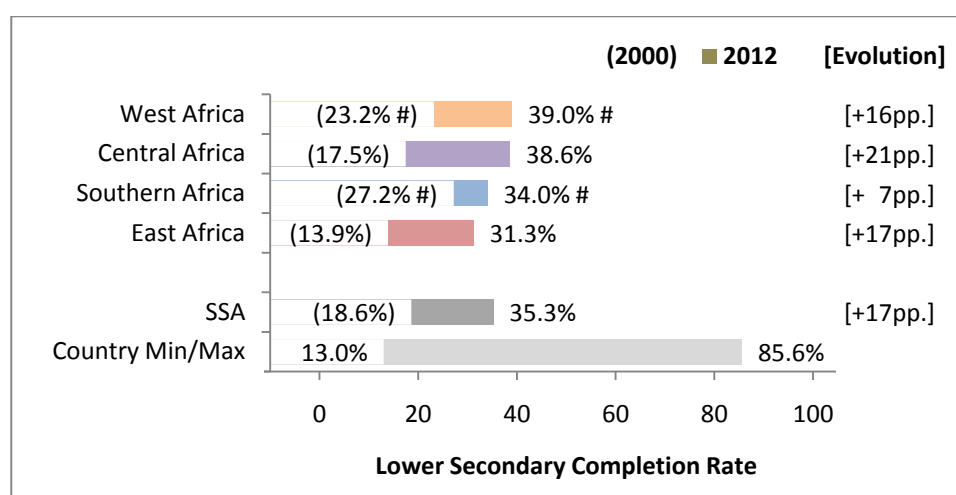
The phrasing of EFA Goal 3 refers to the educational needs of all youth and adults, in terms of acquiring the knowledge and skills required in everyday life. This broad goal relates to the entire postprimary education system, from lower secondary to higher education, including TVET. It also covers nonformal education which encompasses other forms of access to learning and provides "second chance" education to those people who did not receive complete formal basic education.

The indicators selected to evaluate this goal are therefore: (i) the completion rate for lower secondary, in as much as youth who have finished 8 to 10 years of basic education are considered to have enough knowledge to learn a job and start an activity; (ii) the transversal schooling profile, from primary to the end of secondary, to better understand schooling careers, transition and dropout rates; (iii) the share of TVET enrollment in total secondary education, as a relative measure of the state and momentum of the development of this stream, as well as the coverage of the subsector in relation to the total population; and (iv) the number of students per 100,000 inhabitants, as a measure of higher education enrollment.

Lower Secondary Completion

Figure 5 indicates that the lower secondary completion rate has witnessed a marked progression over the period, for all regions. For SSA at large, a third (35.3 percent) of a generation of children reach the end of the cycle in 2012. In all regions, a full basic education of 8 to 10 years is received by at least 31 percent of children. Lower secondary attendance has shown some spectacular progress, in particular in Central Africa (gain of 21 percentage points).

Figure 5: Lower Secondary Completion Rate Trends, for SSA and by Region, 2000-12



Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.

Note: The Country Min/Max bar shows the range of country completion rates for 2012. Thus CAR has the lowest rate (13.0%) and Cabo Verde the highest (85.6%). # The regional averages for West Africa and Southern Africa do not include Nigeria and South Africa respectively, due to lack of data.

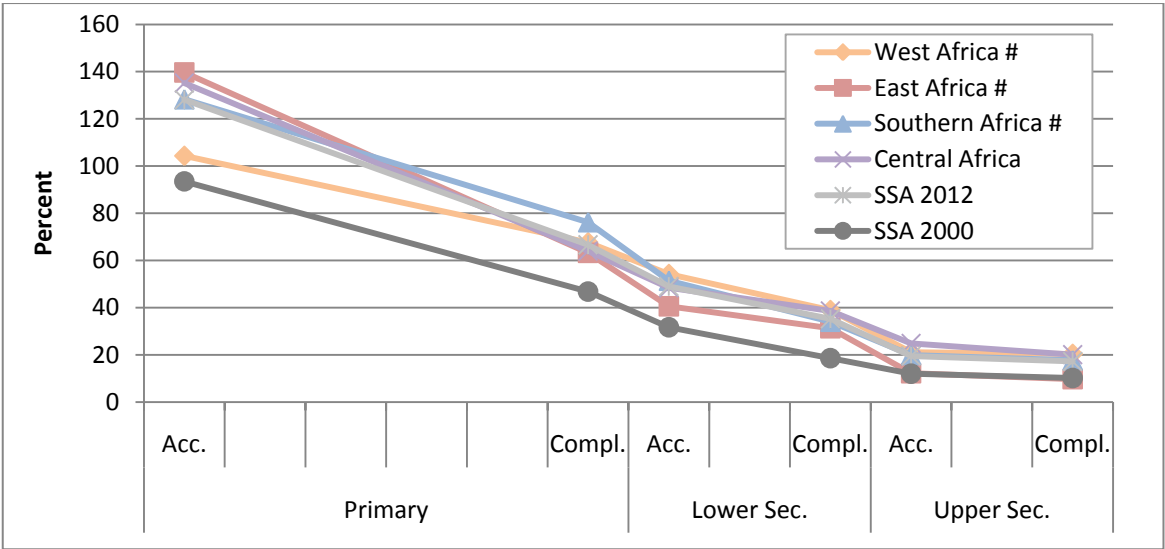
At the country level, the analysis of data (provided in the tables of Annex 2) leads to the following main findings:

- Lower secondary completion levels are highest for 2012 in countries that were most advanced in terms of primary enrollment at the turn of the millennium, as well as in those who already offered full basic education comprising both cycles. Among others, this is the case of Botswana (84.2 percent in 2012), Cabo Verde (85.6 percent), Mauritius (84.3 percent) and the Seychelles (112.5 percent).
- The starkest progress is noted among countries having achieved high levels of primary enrollment and who consequently expanded access to secondary, which was previously severely limited. This has been the case for U. R. of Tanzania, where the rate has risen by a factor of 6 (from 7.5 percent to 43.4 percent) and Zambia (the rate increased from 25.9 percent to 62.4 percent), among others.
- Countries where the lower secondary completion rate has only risen slightly include those who have witnessed a downward trend in primary enrollment (Malawi).

Schooling Profiles

Figure 6 presents the schooling profiles for SSA in 2000 and 2012, and its four regions in 2012. It underlines the breadth of the gap that is yet to breach. Whereas access to primary has been greatly consolidated (from 94 percent in 2000 to 128 percent in 2012 for SSA), completion shows that a third of all children of primary school age do still not finish the cycle. This is explained in part by the lag in the response of intra-cycle access rates to countries’ considerable efforts to increase access, the full impact of which on the PCR will only become apparent after a period of time equivalent to the length of the cycle. At the secondary level, enrollment has also expanded, access rates for SSA having increased over the period from 32 percent to 49 percent for lower secondary, and from 12 percent to 20 percent for upper secondary.

Figure 6: Average Transversal Schooling Profiles, for SSA and by Region, 2012



Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.
 Note: Schooling profiles built on the basis of the access (Acc.) and completion (Compl.) rates for the different cycles. #
 Due to data constraints, the average profile for West Africa does not include Nigeria, that of Southern Africa does not include South Africa from lower secondary completion onwards, and the average access and completion rates of East Africa for upper secondary do not include Ethiopia.

The high convergence of the regions’ profiles underlines the degree of homogeneity in the average schooling careers of children from the four regions. Some exceptions are however relevant:

- In West Africa, primary access is markedly lower than the average for 2012 (104 percent, against 128 percent for SSA), but the transition to lower secondary is slightly better (See Table 8 below). Due to this, this region in fact has the best access rate to lower secondary of the four (54 percent, against an SSA average of 49 percent).
- Primary completion is markedly higher in Southern Africa than in the other regions (76 percent, against 67 percent on average for SSA in 2012).
- East Africa’s upper secondary enrollment stands out as being significantly lower than the SSA average (indeed, its level is equivalent to SSA’s in 2000), this despite primary access being

higher (140 percent, against 128 percent on average for SSA). This mainly reflects transition rates to lower and upper secondary that are among SSA's lowest (See Table 8).

Table 8: Primary and Secondary Survival and Transition Rates, for SSA and by Region, 2000-12

	West Africa		East Africa		Southern Africa		Central Africa		SSA	
	2000	2012	2000	2012	2000	2012	2000	2012	2000	2012
Primary Access	71% [#]	104% [#]	110%	140%	114%	128%	71%	135%	94%	128%
Primary Survival	60% [#]	65% [#]	41%	45%	60%	59%	48%	47%	50%	52%
Transition to Lower Sec.	75% [#]	80% [#]	56%	64%	81%	79%	60%	76%	68%	74%
Lower Sec. Survival	73% [#]	72% [#]	56%	77%	80% [#]	80% [#]	85%	80%	59%	72%
Transition to Upper Sec.	50% [#]	54% [#]	73% [#]	34% [#]	40% [#]	58% [#]	82%	64%	64%	55%
Upper Sec. Survival	75% [#]	96% [#]	90% [#]	80% [#]	93% [#]	89% [#]	84%	81%	85%	88%
Upper Sec. Completion	9% [#]	20% [#]	10% [#]	10% [#]	10% [#]	18% [#]	12%	20%	10%	17%

Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.

Note: [#] Due to data constraints, the average profile for West Africa does not include Nigeria, that of Southern Africa does not include South Africa from lower secondary completion onwards, and the average access and completion rates of East Africa for upper secondary do not include Ethiopia.

Table 8 enables a more detailed review of how average schooling careers have evolved over the period, through survival and transition rates. It merits the following comments:

- On average for SSA, secondary completion has improved: 17 percent of a generation of children complete the cycle in 2012, against 10 percent in 2000, in particular due to the general rise in access to primary and despite the reduced transition between lower and upper secondary.¹³
- Almost all of West Africa's indicators have improved, resulting in a secondary completion rate that has more than doubled over the period (from 9 percent to 20 percent).
- Secondary completion has also improved greatly in Central Africa (from 12 percent to 20 percent) and in Southern Africa (from 10 percent to 18 percent), thanks to bold rises in the transition rates, to lower and upper secondary respectively.
- Upstream, the improvement of the PCR (See Goal 2 above) is also in great part the result of a substantial improvement of access (that includes a generational catch-up phenomenon). This is valid for all regions, but is particularly noticeable in Central Africa, where access has virtually doubled (from 71 percent to 135 percent) and in West Africa.
- Indeed, the stability of primary survival is confirmed, having marginally dropped in some regions and risen in others. The survival rate for SSA was 52 percent in 2012.
- These general trends are accompanied by an important improvement in the transition to lower secondary throughout SSA (from 68 percent to 74 percent on average).

¹³ Values higher than 100% are mainly explained by late or early access, and do not always indicate that all children of a generation gain access to school (See Annex 3 on methodological considerations).

TVET Coverage

Despite limited interest for this subsector on behalf of the international community in the early EFA years, technical and vocational education and training (TVET) is now considered to be a promising alternative to general secondary, to respond to the educational needs of youth and adults and effectively secure them a future by facilitating their access to work. In more recent years, because of this, the level of importance given to TVET in national policies has become higher than ever before, and TVET is now a central theme of international debates on education and training.¹⁴ In SSA as elsewhere, all agree that a well-educated population is the key to a country's competitiveness and inclusive and sustainable development.

This part of the report therefore provides two measures of TVET enrollment, in relation to that of total secondary, and in relation to the population at large. The analysis illustrates the momentum in the evolution of these indicators for SSA's regions and countries, which in some cases can reflect the strategic decisions made for TVET systems. It should however be noted that despite the broad nature of TVET, the data used here only cover formal TVET and do therefore not reflect the development of technical and professional competences in the nonformal training sector, or in the informal economic sector (such as traditional apprenticeships). These types of TVET are widespread in SSA, and complementary research would help to complete the picture.

Table 9: TVET Enrollment Trends, Compared to Total Secondary, for SSA and by Region, 2000-12

	West Africa #	East Africa	Southern Africa	Central Africa	SSA
2000	6.2%	2.6%	5.1%	20.7%	8.3%
2012	6.9%	6.9%	4.9% *	18.3%	9.6%
<i>Evolution</i>	+10%	+166%	—	-12%	+15%

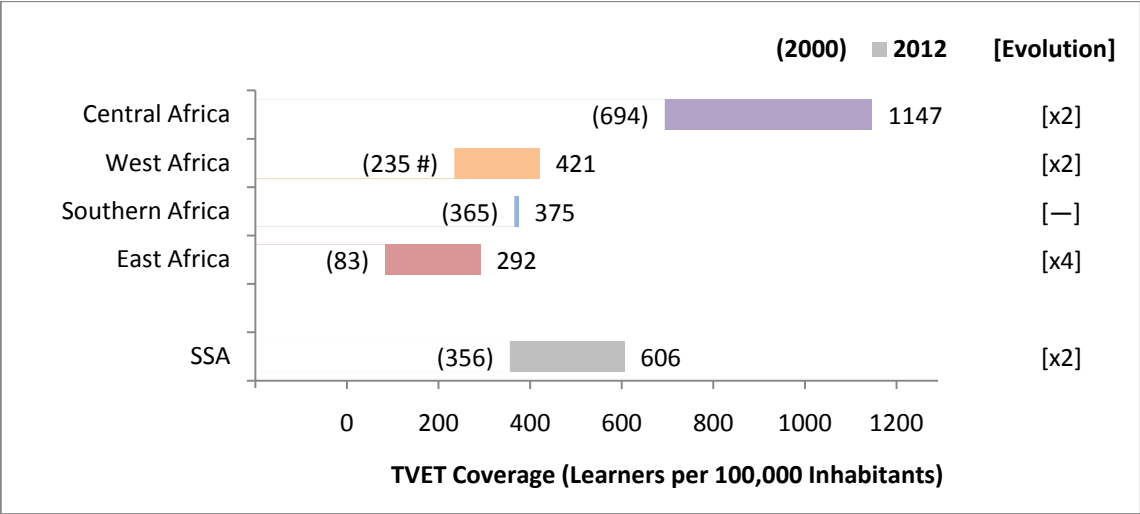
Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.

Note: # Due to data constraints, Nigeria is not included in the West African average. * Data provided are purely indicative, the regional average for 2012 being based on just a third of the countries of Southern Africa.

The pace of TVET development in SSA since the Dakar Forum in 2000 has been slightly faster than that of secondary, of which it represents 15 percent more in 2012 than it did in 2000 (See Table 9). Given the growth of general secondary, attendance has therefore almost doubled in real terms, from 356 to 606 learners per 100,000 inhabitants (See Figure 7 below).

¹⁴ Some of the key international events organized on TVET in SSA (or about SSA) are: ADEA's Triennial meeting (Ouagadougou, Feb. 2012), the Third World Congress and the Shanghai Consensus, organized by UNESCO (Shanghai, May 2012); and the OIF meetings (Ouagadougou, Sept. 2012).

Figure 7: TVET Coverage Trends, for SSA and by Region, 2000-12



Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.
 Note: # Due to data constraints, Nigeria is not included in the West African average. * Data provided are purely indicative, the regional average for 2012 being based on just a third of the countries of Southern Africa.

At the regional level, the key findings are:

- West Africa: TVET growth has been close to that of secondary. Given the significant rise in secondary completion, this translates into a marked increase in numbers, from 235 to 421 learners per 100,000 inhabitants between 2000 and 2012. Mali in particular has invested heavily in TVET, and numbers have quadrupled to reach 1,300 learners per 100,000 inhabitants.
- East Africa: The development of TVET has been particularly strong in East Africa, where it was uncommon in 2000. Its weight relative to total secondary has increased from 2.6 percent to 6.9 percent, and enrollment has quadrupled. East Africa nevertheless remains the region where this type of training is most scarce, the only country with relatively high coverage being Mauritius, with over 900 learners per 100,000 inhabitants.
- Central Africa: Trends have been similar to those of West Africa, coverage having almost doubled. With 1,147 learners per 100,000 inhabitants, and representing 18 percent of total secondary, Central Africa is the region where TVET is most widely available. The increase in numbers is explained by growth in two countries in particular, Angola and Cameroon (where they have reached 1,900 learners per 100,000 inhabitants), although TVET is also widespread in DRC (1,100 learners per 100,000 inhabitants).

Higher Education Coverage

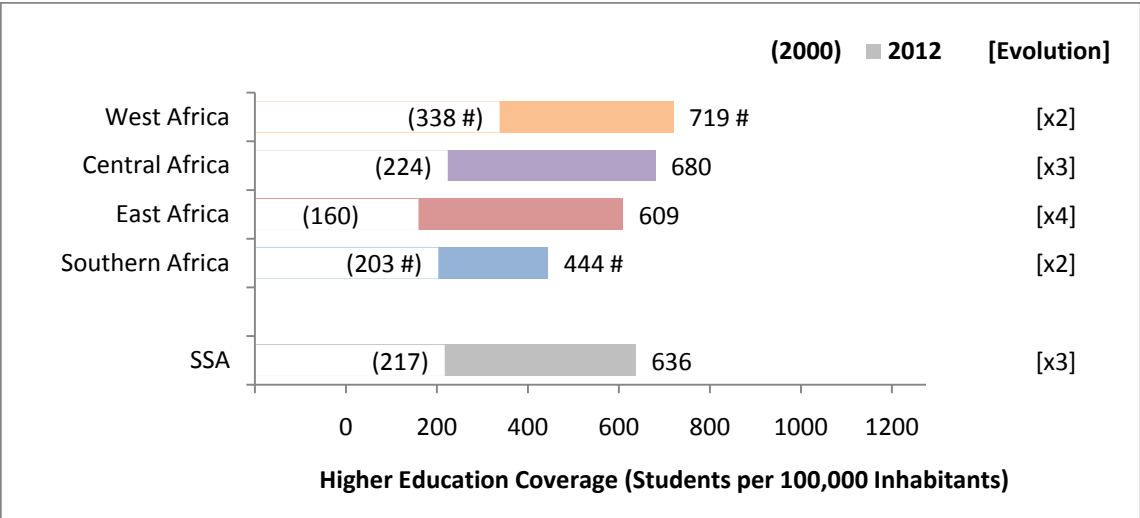
Figure 8 below illustrates the substantial development of higher education over the EFA period. On average for SSA, the number of students per 100,000 inhabitants has practically tripled (from 217 to 636). This growth has been particularly strong within regions where secondary completion has expanded significantly over the period, such as Central Africa (numbers have risen by a factor of 3), and West Africa (numbers have risen by a factor of 2).

The most outstanding trend is that of East Africa however, where coverage has increased by close to a factor of 4 (from 160 to 609 students per 100,000 inhabitants), whereas the secondary completion rate has remained stable over the period. This outcome reflects substantial increases in Ethiopia (numbers have grown by a factor of 7.4) and Uganda (numbers have grown by a factor of 3.6).

The countries with the broadest coverage are Mauritius (with 3,240 students per 100,000 inhabitants) and Cabo Verde (2,344 students per 100,000 inhabitants), both of which have witnessed significant growth since 2000. A select group of further countries has seriously invested in higher education, all boasting over 1,000 students per 100,000 inhabitants: South Africa (1,524 in 2003, already), Gabon (1,471), Lesotho (1,243), Ghana (1,164), Cameroon (1,103), Benin (1,079), Sao Tomé and Príncipe (1,040) and Togo (1,015 students per 100,000 inhabitants).

Although in most of these countries private sector higher education has exploded, in some where secondary education has greatly expanded, trends are explained in part by the creation of national higher education institutions. This is the case of Cabo Verde and Sao Tomé and Príncipe, but also of Guinea Bissau (coverage has risen by a factor of 9) and Djibouti (by a factor of 22).

Figure 8: Higher Education Coverage Trends, for SSA and by Region, 2000-12



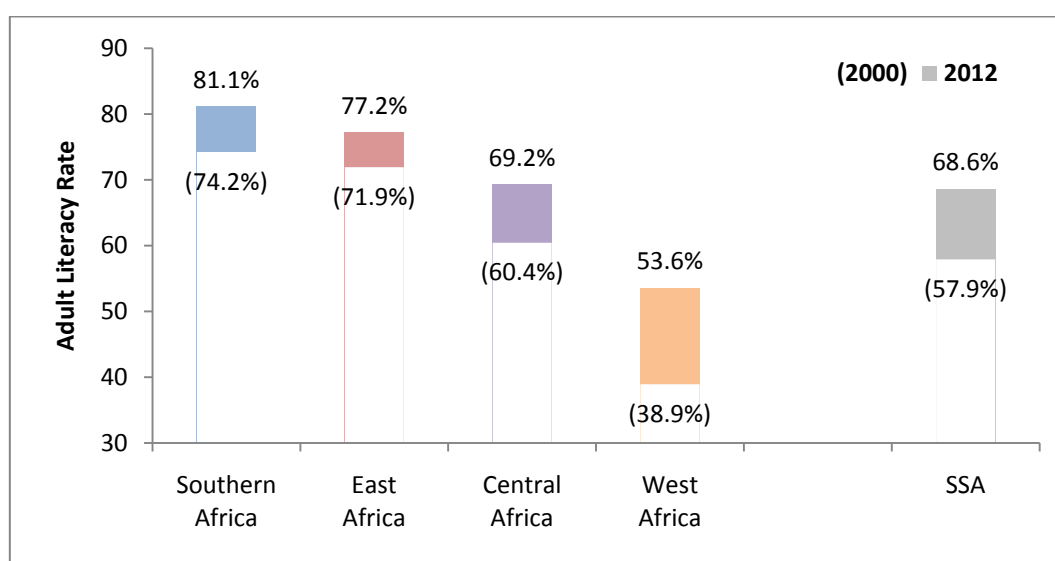
Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.
 Note: #Due to data constraints, Nigeria is not included in the West African average or South Africa in the average for Southern Africa.

Finally, it is instructive to compare the previous two figures, in the light of the trade-offs that regions have effectively made between these two postprimary cycles. Much as TVET and higher education coverage rates are similar for SSA on the whole, at the regional level significant disparities are apparent. Thus in Central Africa TVET coverage was already higher in 2000 than the level achieved by higher education in 2012. In West and in East Africa on the other hand, higher education coverage is far greater than that of TVET, almost by a factor of 2.

2.G- Goal 4: Adult Literacy

EFA Goal 4 relating to adult literacy broadly encompasses access to all formal and nonformal education programmes that facilitate the social and economic integration of adults. The lag in terms of formal education in many African countries has favored a rise in the number of illiterate adults, and of women in particular. This represents a considerable constraint for national development, and many specific programmes have been implemented to enable those adults who are not, to become literate.

Figure 9: Trends in Adult Literacy (15+ Years), for SSA and by Region, 2000-12



Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.

Note: The regional averages in this figure are simple arithmetic means, which do not reflect the weight of countries' population of adults aged 15 years and above.

The literacy rate for adults aged 15 years and above has improved by approximately 10 percentage points in SSA over the period (See Figure 9). The results nevertheless fall short of the target set, which was an improvement of 50 percent on the 2000 levels. For SSA overall, the rate has increased from 58 percent to 69 percent, the target being of 87 percent. The scale of progress ranges from 7 percent (for East Africa) to 38 percent (for West Africa):

- West Africa: The adult literacy rate has improved the most in West Africa, where it was lowest in 2000. However, the rate continues to be among SSA's weakest in 2012 in several countries: Benin (42.4 percent), Mali (33.4 percent) and Niger (30.4 percent in 2007). In Guinea, it has even dropped by 5 percentage points, from 29.5 percent in 2003 to 25.3 percent in 2010. Only two countries' literacy rates are higher than the SSA average: Cabo Verde (84.9 percent) and Ghana (71.5 percent).
- Southern Africa: It is in Southern Africa that literacy levels are the highest however (81.1 percent on average). The rate is higher than the SSA average in all countries belonging to this region but Mozambique (56.1 percent). Furthermore, six out of the nine countries' rates are comparably high, above 80 percent for 2012. These are countries where the development of

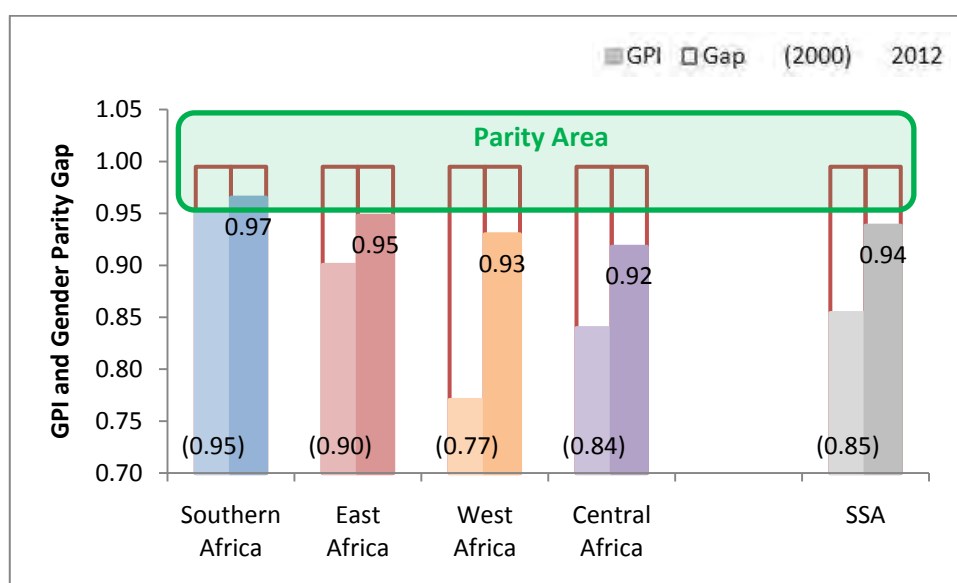
the primary cycle is both mature and substantial: Botswana (85.1 percent), Lesotho (89.6 percent), Namibia (88.8 percent), South Africa (93.0 percent), Swaziland (87.8 percent) and Zimbabwe (83.6 percent).

- East Africa: The regional average for East Africa (77.2 percent) is currently close to that of Southern Africa. Although the baseline situation was favorable, some countries have made considerable progress over the period, such as Eritrea and Kenya, of + 30 percent and + 20 percent respectively. Thus, in 2012, all countries' rates were above the SSA average, and in Kenya, Mauritius and the Seychelles, literacy neighbors 90 percent. Only Madagascar stands out in this general picture, with a literacy rate in 2012 of 64.5 percent, following a drop of approximately 6 percentage points.
- Central Africa: Progress in adult literacy is equally pronounced in Central Africa, the regional average being floated by the advances in the three countries whose rates were the lowest in 2000: Chad (+38 percent), CAR (+17 percent) and Burundi (+13 percent). These three countries' rates are still lower than the SSA average however, and muffle the high literacy rates in Gabon (89.0 percent) and Equatorial Guinea (94.1 percent).

2.H- Goal 5: Gender Parity in Education

The analysis of the progress achieved in terms of equity in education is firstly based on the gender parity index (GPI) for primary. A comparison of the enrollment rates of boys and girls, from primary to higher education, then broadens the analysis. Finally, a review of the survival rates within cycles and the transition rates between them, by gender, will highlight the disparities that prevail in schooling careers.

Figure 10: Evolution of Gender Inequality and GPI, Primary, for SSA and by Region, 2000-12



Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.

Equity in the enrollment of girls and boys has improved substantially in SSA (GPI of 0.94 in 2012, against 0.85 in 2000). Although the GER for girls is still below that of boys in 2012, Figure 10 below clearly shows that the gap is closing in all regions. The most remarkable improvement has occurred in West Africa, where disparities were the greatest in 2000: equity has improved by 21 percent (the GPI has risen from 0.77 to 0.93), against 9 percent for Central Africa and 5 percent for East Africa.

At the primary level, gender parity has been achieved, on average, by Southern Africa (GPI of 0.97), and for some time (the GPI for this region was already 0.95 in 2000), and in East Africa (GPI of 0.95). Indeed, the 20 countries that have achieved the gender parity goal include seven of the nine countries of Southern Africa and half of those of East Africa (See Box 3). Ten countries' GPI for 2012 is still under the 0.90 threshold (unfavorable to girls) however: Mali (0.90), Cameroon, DRC and Swaziland (0.89), Guinea Bissau (0.87), Eritrea (0.86), Niger (0.85), Guinea (0.84), Angola (0.81) and Chad (0.78).

Box 3: Ranking of SSA Countries According to their Attainment of Gender Parity, 2012

Gender parity achieved for:			Gender Parity Not Achieved
Primary, and Lower and Upper Secondary	Primary and Lower Secondary	Primary	
10 Countries	5 Countries	11 Countries	21 Countries
Botswana Cabo Verde Lesotho Mauritius Namibia Rwanda Sao Tomé and Príncipe Seychelles South Africa Swaziland	Congo Gambia, The Kenya Madagascar Senegal	Burkina Faso Burundi Equatorial Guinea Gabon Ghana Malawi Sierra Leone U. R. Tanzania Uganda Zambia Zimbabwe *	Angola Benin Cameroon CAR Chad Comoros Côte d'Ivoire Djibouti DRC Eritrea Ethiopia Guinea Guinea Bissau Liberia Mali Mozambique Niger Nigeria Somalia South Sudan Togo

Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.

Note: Gender parity is considered to be achieved when the GPI (the ratio of the girls' GER to the boys' GER) is comprised between 0.95 (95 girls enrolled for 100 boys) and 1.05 (105 girls enrolled for 100 boys). Somalia is not mentioned due to data constraints. * GPI of 0.97 in 2000, but no data are available for 2012.

Much as progress made at the primary level is encouraging, schooling inequalities between girls and boys remain at later education levels, and clearly tend to deepen throughout schooling careers, as the data of Table 10 show.

Table 10: Gender Enrollment Disparities, Primary to Higher Education, for SSA and by Region, 2012

	West Africa	East Africa	Southern Africa	Central Africa	SSA
Primary	0.93	0.95	0.97	0.92	0.94
Lower Secondary	0.83	0.96	1.01	0.78	0.88
Upper Secondary	0.75	1.01	1.07	0.58	0.84
Higher Education	0.64	0.81	0.99	0.63	0.73

Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.

In 2012, the GPI for SSA as a whole drops from 0.94 at primary to 0.88 at lower secondary, then to 0.84 for upper secondary and finally to 0.74 for higher education:

- West Africa: The gradual deterioration of gender equity throughout education is most noticeable in West Africa, where the GPI is below the continental average at every level.
- Central Africa: This general trend is also true in Central Africa, where gender disparities at upper secondary are among SSA's highest (GPI of 0.58, meaning only 6 girls are enrolled for every 10 boys).
- Southern Africa: This region constitutes a clear exception to the general rule, given that gender parity is a fact at every level but upper secondary, where the disparity favors girls (GPI of 1.07, meaning 107 girls are enrolled for every 100 boys).
- East Africa: Parity has been attained at the primary and secondary levels, but disparities remain at higher education (GPI of 0.81), although on a lesser scale than those noted in West or Central Africa.

In terms of survival, by differentiating between the average schooling careers of boys and girls for SSA as a whole in 2012, on the basis of the survival and transition rates (See Table 11 below), the aforementioned gaps are put into perspective. Girls' average schooling careers differ moderately from that of boys, two thirds of the final gap being due to the difference in the access of each to primary and the remaining third being attributable to the differences, in favor of boys, in terms of the transition between cycles and the survival within them.

Table 11: Survival and Transition Rates, Primary and Secondary, by Gender, for SSA, 2012

	Gender	
	Boys	Girls
Primary Access	124%	117%
Primary Survival	57%	56%
Transition to Lower Sec.	79%	78%
Lower Sec. Survival	79%	75%
Transition to Upper Sec.	65%	64%
Upper Sec. Survival	82%	79%
Upper Sec. Completion	23%	19%

Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.

2.1- Goal 6: Educational Quality

The issue of the quality of teaching and learning in SSA had undoubtedly become, over time, a topic of intense debates between policy makers and other sector players, and of research by institutions that specialize in education.¹⁵ The ideal measure of educational quality would be provided by data on learning outcomes, which are both historically and internationally comparable. The work undertaken by PASEC in francophone countries and SACMEQ in anglophone ones provide some pointers in this area, in a context where national assessments are as yet seldom systematic and each has a specific nature.¹⁶ Some further constraints are also to be noted.¹⁷ Indeed, in the analysis of quality, it is common to review quality input indicators, such as the pupil-teacher ratio, as well as indicators of the internal efficiency of education systems, such as dropout and survival rates, covered in this section.

Learning Outcomes

The PASEC and SACMEQ results presented in the following tables are based on information of a similar nature, for reading and math: the share of pupils in primary Grade 5 achieving at least 40 percent of correct answers at the PASEC assessment (Table 12), and the share of pupils in primary Grade 6 reaching basic competency Level 4 at the SACMEQ assessments (Table 13).

¹⁵ Many Panafrikan organizations have played a catalytic and pioneering role in this area, through the study of the factors of and requisites for quality. See for instance ADEA (Biennial meeting, Maurice 2003), CONFEMEN (Burundi 2008), the Educational Research Network for West and Central Africa (ERNWACA), that has produced over a thousand studies on the issue in 25 years) and the African Network Campaign on Education for All (ANCEFA), among others.

¹⁶ PASEC is the *Programme d'Analyse des Systèmes Éducatifs de la CONFEMEN*, and SACMEQ is the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality.

¹⁷ These assessments are full of lessons for each of the countries involved but computing regional averages is not possible, nor is it indeed to consolidate the results. See Annex 3 on methodological considerations.

The data in Table 12 suggest that West African pupils face serious learning difficulties. The results are particularly weak in reading, where under half of children achieve the minimal level of competency. This finding raises the issue of the opportunity to improve the quality of education through the use of national languages for learning, to improve pupils' comprehension. Several countries boast interesting experiences in this area, including Burkina Faso, Mali and Senegal. Senegal is credited with the best results among participating countries, in both reading and math, followed by Burkina Faso. In all countries but Côte d'Ivoire, performance in math is better than in reading.

In Central Africa, the results are markedly more satisfactory. Burundi, Cameroon and Gabon achieve the best success rates at the tests, with close to two thirds of pupils reaching the required minimum level. Again, results tend to be better in math, even if Cameroon and Gabon's performances in reading are comparatively better.

Table 12: Share of Primary Grade 5 Pupils Achieving the Minimum Level at PASEC, Reading and Math, 2004-10

	Country	Reading	Math
Countries of West Africa	Benin (2005)	26.4%	30.4%
	Burkina Faso (2007)	38.2%	52.7%
	Côte d'Ivoire (2009)	38.2%	25.4%
	Senegal (2007)	45.6%	62.0%
	Togo (2010)	26.6%	42.7%
Countries of Central Africa	Burundi (2009)	53.4%	66.4%
	Cameroon (2005)	71.2%	63.5%
	Chad (2010)	37.2%	42.4%
	Congo (2007)	37.4%	43.6%
	DRC (2010)	48.0%	64.4%
	Gabon (2006)	84.0%	70.4%

Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.

The SACMEQ results (in Table 13 below) also show some disparities in countries' capacities to provide their pupils with basic skills in reading and math by the end of primary. In several countries assessed (Botswana, the Seychelles, Mauritius, Kenya, U. R. of Tanzania and especially Swaziland) a vast majority of pupils (80 percent and above) have basic reading skills. Far greater difficulty is noted in math however, except for Mauritius. In Southern Africa, Malawi and Zambia in particular stand out by the low level of their math results, with less than 10 percent of pupils reaching the minimum level.

Table 13: Share of Primary Grade 6 Pupils Achieving the Minimum Level at SACMEQ, Reading and Math, 2007

	Country	Reading	Math
Countries of East Africa	Kenya	80.2%	61.6%
	Mauritius	78.8%	73.2%
	Seychelles	78.1%	57.7%
	Uganda	54.2%	25.1%
	U. R. of Tanzania	89.9%	57.0%
Countries of Southern Africa	Botswana	75.8%	43.7%
	Lesotho	47.5%	18.9%
	Malawi	26.7%	8.3%
	Mozambique	56.5%	25.9%
	Namibia	61.3%	18.4%
	South Africa	51.7%	30.9%
	Swaziland	93.0%	55.6%
	Zambia	27.4%	8.2%
	Zimbabwe	62.8%	42.7%

Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.

Other Quality Indicators

The pupil-teacher ratio (PTR), dealt with in greater detail in Table 6 (Section 2.B), has marginally improved in SSA over the period, from 46:1 (46 pupils per teacher on average) in 2000 to 44:1 in 2012. The most noticeable improvement has occurred in Central Africa, where the number of pupils per teacher has dropped by about 8 over the period, to reach 49:1. The PTR has remained relatively stable in West Africa, Southern Africa and East Africa.

It is noteworthy that class sizes are the smallest of all regions in West Africa, at an average level of 41 pupils per teacher, which suggests that teaching conditions are of relatively good standards. Yet the countries participating in the PASEC assessments are among those obtaining the weakest results, underlining the fact that the PTR alone is inappropriate to measure educational quality.

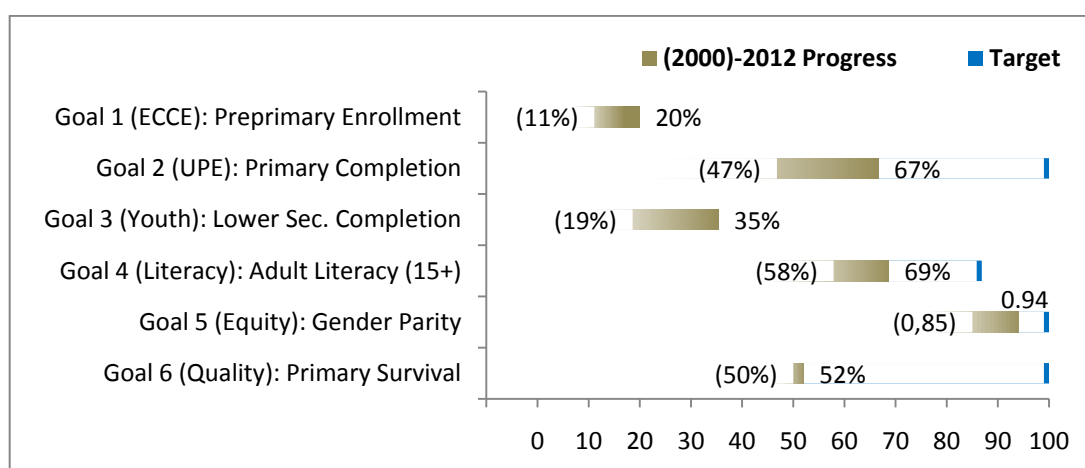
Survival rates, dealt with in Table 8 (Section 2.F), allow the computation of dropout rates. These illustrate the capacity of education systems to provide quality teaching to pupils, in as much as school failure is one of its causes. However, other demand factors also contribute to dropout, again making it an imperfect measure of quality.

The primary dropout rate has improved slightly in SSA, from 50 percent in 2000 to 48 percent in 2012. This positive trend is reflected in West Africa and East Africa, but dropout rates appear to have remained level in Southern Africa and Central Africa. At the lower secondary level, the improvement is of greater scope for SSA, of 13 percentage points (down to 28 percent, from 41 percent), but dropout has increased in Central Africa (from 15 percent to 20 percent).

2.J- Key Findings

After this brief overview of the progress achieved in SSA towards the six EFA goals set in Dakar in 2000, it is clear that despite considerable progress over the period, most of the goals will not be achieved by 2015.

Figure 11: Overview of Progress towards EFA by Goal, SSA, 2000-12



Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.

Note: All figures shown are percentages, except for the gender parity index, whose parity value is 1.

Figure 11 provides an overview of the evolution of the main global indicators used to monitor progress towards the EFA goals over the period, and shows the appropriate target where one was set. It underlines the key findings of this section:

- Preprimary education has grown considerably, its coverage having doubled over the period, but remains underdeveloped in the light of the benefits that the early schooling of young children have on their overall education careers and learning outcomes.
- Although the vast majority of countries provides access to primary to all their children and the PCR has significantly improved over the period, one child out of three does still not finish the cycle.
- Lower secondary enrollment has grown more modestly, but does not reflect the full scale of the efforts devoted to addressing the educational needs of youth, in particular in terms of TVET, whose growth has often been of greater scope than that of secondary.
- Adult literacy and informal education have produced substantial results, but literacy rates still fall well short of the targets set, with barely half the gap having been bridged.
- Gender parity at the primary level is the goal that is closest to being achieved, but gender disparities are starker at higher levels of education, and social and geographic disparities are of greater importance still.
- Quality, be it appraised through learning outcomes or the primary survival rate, is currently still at an average to low level.

The particular focus on primary in countries' first EFA and education sector plans, and especially on its quantitative development, logically led to some mid-term trade-offs to better focus on postprimary levels and learning quality. Indeed, the expansion of primary coverage generated demand for further education that spread energetically as far as higher education, and national education policies, encouraged by governments and development partners, then launched into the promotion of basic education, usually towards the end of the EFA period. Furthermore, this very growth of primary often occurred at the expense of educational quality.

Some countries, whose education indicators were particularly weak in 2000, have not managed to catch-up with their peers, in a timeframe that is in fact fairly short for such structural reforms. Their situation has nevertheless considerably improved and they have often achieved more than ever before during this first EFA period. The regional comparisons support these findings, showing education systems' general push forward.

It is noteworthy that the relationships between governments and donors on the one hand, and among donors on the other, have witnessed remarkable changes over the EFA period. Although the multiplicity of EFA coordination initiatives and mechanisms, at the national, regional and international levels has contributed to dampen their effectiveness, some of these elements nevertheless constitute notable EFA achievements (See Annex 1).

The following section will review some of the strategies implemented at the country level to promote EFA, providing the qualitative perceptions of SSA countries of their progress, successes and failures, as well as the constraints faced and good practices identified during the implementation of their chosen education policies.

Section 3. EFA Strategies– SSA Countries’ Perspectives

This section presents SSA countries’ views of the initiatives launched and strategies implemented at the national level to achieve the EFA goals over the 2000-14 period. Some actions are goal-specific, whereas others have a cross-cutting nature.

The views that emanate from this section, for the various EFA goals or policies, represent points of convergence in the national opinions expressed. These insights will be all the more credible that the number of countries that share them is great.

The analysis of Section 3 is based on the responses of 36 countries, to (i) the 2012 EFA survey; and (ii) the 2014 EFA survey (21 of the above, that constitute Sample A).¹⁸

Whereas the full sample of 36 countries is used for most of this section, some of the analysis is based on Sample A responses. These analyses generally cover, for each EFA goal, a selection of *factors* that are considered essential for the implementation of education policies in the EFA framework:

- Teacher commitment
- Family mobilization
- Education sector commitment
- Other sectors’ mobilization
- Political will
- Social mobilization
- National financing
- External financing
- Donor relations

The approach used here *compares* the relative importance of each factor through *scores* that include a quantitative (the number of countries having voiced a favorable or unfavorable opinion) and a qualitative (the level of approval/disapproval of each country) dimension. The value of individual scores has no particular meaning.

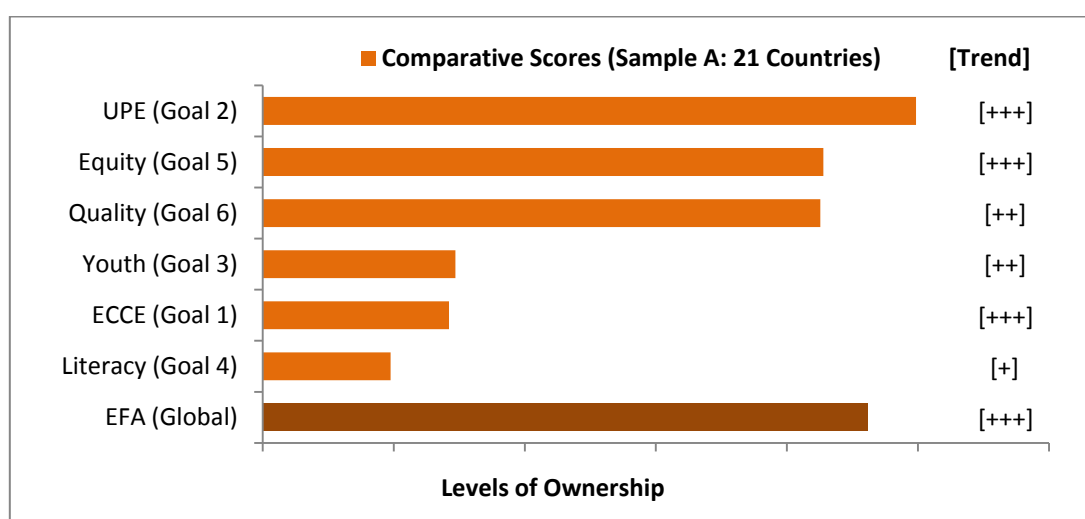
It is sometimes appropriate to place the opinions formulated in some perspective, on the basis of regional trends. These *Authors’ Notes* are clearly differentiated in the text from the views of the SSA countries.

¹⁸ These surveys were carried out by UNESCO’s Dakar office in the context of SSA-level EFA monitoring. The questionnaires offer countries great scope to provide qualitative responses, commenting on their successes, failures, good practices and lessons learned (the questionnaire is provided in Annex 4). The constitution of and use of the various country samples is explained in Annex 3 on methodological considerations.

3.A- The Pursuit of EFA Goals – Initiatives, Successes and Failures

On the basis of country teams’ survey responses, the global level of mobilization for Education for All in SSA over the 2000-14 period is construed to be high, considering their views of the importance of all the factors listed above, for all of the EFA goals.¹⁹ However, a closer review highlights significant disparities by goal. It is therefore helpful, before further analyzing the factors of success or failure, to establish a hierarchy among them. Figure 12 presents a ranking of the comparative levels of national players’ ownership of the various EFA goals.

Figure 12: Comparative Levels of Ownership of EFA Goals and their Trends, SSA, 2000-14



Source: Analysis of 21 country responses to the 2014 EFA Survey (Sample A – See Annex 3).

Note: The scores reflect SSA countries’ consolidated opinion of the level of mobilization and commitment to each goal since 2000, all factors combined. The number of + shown under trends reflects the estimated strengthening of effective ownership over the period (where + represents a weak trend, ++ a favorable trend and +++ a highly favorable trend, on the basis of the consolidation of country views).

Commitment to UPE (EFA Goal 2) has been all-inclusive, reflecting high levels of mobilization at the political, governmental (the education sector), social, family, donor and financing levels. EFA policies pertaining to quality (Goal 6) and gender/equity (Goal 5) also largely mobilized players. Moreover, the trends that emerge for these three goals leave no doubt that noted commitment levels have consolidated between 2000 and 2014, especially for UPE (Goal 2) and equity (Goal 5).

The ECCE (Goal 1) and postprimary (Goal 3) sectors reflect levels of engagement that are comparatively much weaker, equivalent to a third of that for UPE (Goal 2). The trends noted by countries are however positive for these goals, indicating that mobilization has strengthened over the period, especially for ECCE (Goal 1).

¹⁹ In Section 3.A, the analyses presented in the introduction (Figure 12 and its explanation) as well as the *Key 2000-14 Success Factors* boxes are based on Sample A of 21 countries. The other analyses are based on Sample C of 36 countries (See Annex 3 on methodological considerations).

Adult literacy (Goal 4) is the goal with which engagement has clearly been the lightest, equivalent to just 20 percent of that for UPE. In addition, commitment to this goal appears to have evolved little over the period (weak trend). This suggests that in a context of policy arbitration between the different goals, which has almost systematically been required to canalize countries' efforts, the priority given to adult literacy has been limited, and continues to be.

Goal 1: Early Childhood Care and Protection

→ See also *Ghana's Case Study on ECCE (Page 83)*

The improvements noted in terms of ECCE are clearly the result of a heightened political will to develop this subsector. This will has translated into the elaboration of specific early childhood development (ECD) or integrated early childhood development (IECD) policies in many countries, often coupled with subsector strategies and steering, coordination or management arrangements: the *Pre-School Development Committee* in Botswana, the *Comité de Coordination Intersectorielle du Sous-secteur Préscolaire* in Côte d'Ivoire, the *Bureau of Early Childhood Education* in Liberia, or the *National Early Childhood Council* in Angola.

Seven countries (out of 36) mention having taken the initiative to provide a preparatory year of education through primary schools (equivalent to the last year of preprimary), or to annex preprimary facilities to them (Botswana, Côte d'Ivoire, Gabon, The Gambia, Ghana, Sao Tomé and Príncipe and Swaziland). Inter-ministerial mobilization for ECCE is still weak on the other hand, and where it exists, the health sector is the education sector's main partner.

Authors' Note: In the light of the fairly slight results achieved in this area (See Section 2.D), it should be noted that much as initiatives similar to those mentioned exist, they are often far from widespread, are not always fully operational. The subsector is underfinanced in many countries and supply is relatively unstructured, in particular in francophone countries. A positive trend over recent years is also noted, in particular under the impulse of development partners.

Key 2000-14 Success Factors

According to the countries surveyed, the key success factors for Goal 1 on ECCE have been:

- Donor relations. This is by far the factor having had the greatest impact, for 19/20 countries;
- Strong social mobilization, for 17/21 countries;
- Political commitment, that has witnessed the starkest evolution, and is consolidating in 16/17 countries; and
- National financing. This factor appears to have been ECCE's Achilles' heel. It is considered to have been a soft point in ECCE growth by 8/20 countries.

Source: Analysis of 21 country responses to the 2014 EFA Survey (Sample A - See Annex 3).

In addition, the increase in public investment has been high, and beyond the focus on access, through infrastructure development, several countries have invested in quality: 9 countries (out of 36) state that they train or offer qualifications for early childhood carers, and 8 have embarked in the elaboration of curricula for the ECCE subsector (such as the *ECD Learning Framework*, developed in Uganda in 2005) or standards for the accreditation of early childhood services.

Social mobilization is the third strongest point noted. Community participation has been the main pillar of ECCE development (mentioned by 12/36 countries), often reinforced through sensitization and parental education campaigns. Partnerships with the private sector have also played an important part in several countries, including Angola, DRC, Eritrea, South Africa and Zambia.

The main lessons learned are the importance of IEC (information, education and communication) as well as of parental education, to build greater awareness of the value of ECCE among families. Governments' backing of this goal has facilitated the mobilization of other players, especially at the community level, and has enabled the expansion of ECCE services beyond urban centers so that they can also benefit rural and vulnerable groups.

Authors' Note: The scope of parental education reaches well beyond sensitization on the importance of ECCE, and aims to strengthen parents' knowledge and competencies to directly contribute to the development and care of their children. The fact that parental education is mainly mentioned by countries in the context of awareness building might indicate a misconception of its potential contribution to ECCE.

Goal 2: Universal Primary Education

→ *See also Zambia's case study on UPE (Page 86) and Rwanda's on basic education (Page 89)*

Countries claim that the political will to achieve UPE has been very strong, translating, among others, into significant public investments, to compensate schools' loss of income following the approval of laws and decrees in favor of fee-free primary education.

Key 2000-14 Success Factors

- Goal 2, for universal primary education, has harnessed support of an all-embracing nature in many countries, commitment having been of a very high level in the political, social, governmental (education ministries) and donor spheres.
- All these factors are considered positive by the vast majority of countries (19/21).
- Teacher commitment, although high in most countries, was problematic according to the responses of Burkina Faso, Ghana and Uganda.

Source: Analysis of 21 country responses to the 2014 EFA Survey (Sample A - See Annex 3).

The recruitment and training of teachers have been highlighted as key success factors for Goal 2, in part thanks to the opening of new teacher training facilities, such as in Angola or Burkina Faso. In some anglophone countries such as Malawi or U. R. of Tanzania, accelerated certification programmes have been created to face the increased need for qualified teachers. Community participation has also been fundamental for this cycle, being mentioned as a success factor by over 10 countries (of the 36 respondents).

In terms of failures strictly speaking, countries mention dropout and repetition rates, still considered too high, the low level of equity in terms of access, in particular for rural and economically disadvantaged groups, and the persistent challenge that ensuring quality represents. Also, countries often cite parents' low literacy levels as an explanation for weak demand for their children's education, underlining the complementarity of Goal 4 (literacy) with that of UPE, as well as the need to strengthen sensitization and IEC activities.

The main constraint noted by countries responding to the survey was the availability of infrastructure, closely related to that of the resources allocated to this cycle, that also impact the sufficient availability of pedagogical material, textbooks and equipment.

Although mentioned as success factors by several countries, the recruitment and training of teachers in sufficient numbers is rather presented as a challenge by many, as well as their weak degree of motivation, that translates into high levels of absenteeism or wage dissatisfaction. The wide-scale recruitment of voluntary teachers, with little training but entrusted with classes, is often indicated to illustrate this issue: it has enabled to address the massive influx of pupils to primary after 2000, but has not provided these pupils with teaching of acceptable quality.

In terms of lessons learned, numerous countries indicate having gained awareness of the need to improve sector management to increase access, equity and quality. This wish is expressed, for instance, in terms of the formulation of real teacher policies, to improve their posting, commitment, monitoring by the state and assessment. The need to define more balanced school maps is also noted, as well as options to involve communities in the monitoring of school management and quality, such as through the creation of school councils.

The power of social mobilization is broadly appreciated, the attainment of UPE being understood as tributary of the commitment of all players, community, family and school-based, in addition to central and local authorities. Women's engagement is noted as an important vector, but the need to pursue and expand sensitization and IEC efforts is nevertheless underlined.

School environment considerations are perceived as being decisive to build-up education demand and discourage dropout (latrines, safe water, playgrounds), although not as much as school feeding, clearly a key factor.

Goal 3: Educational Needs of Youth

→ See Tanzania's case study on complementary basic education (Page 92) and Angola's case study on TVET (Page 95)

For Goal 3, the main achievement is clearly in terms of technical and vocational education and training, which have expanded significantly according to at least 17 countries (out of 36). This has been the result of a plethora of initiatives, including the elaboration of secondary-level dedicated programmes or modules, the creation of vocational training centers, the strengthening of partnerships with the private sector, or the development of national TVET strategies and policies, such as the *Vocational Education and Training Act* voted in Namibia in 2008, or Uganda's *BTJET Strategic Plan 2011-2020*.

The diversification of training streams has also impacted literacy, nonformal education, youth education and lifelong learning programmes, although to a lesser extent. Although political will has primarily focused on other EFA goals, at least 6 countries (out of 36) have created dedicated institutions to strengthen their activities in these multiple sectors, and improve quality.

Key 2000-14 Success Factors

- Family mobilization has been the most valued factor in progress towards Goal 3, in both quantitative (19/21 countries assess families' impact as being positive) and qualitative (the impact is felt to be strong) terms.
- The engagement of the education sector with Goal 3 has also been a strong point.
- No doubt as the result of the priority given to UPE, political commitment to Goal 3 is slighter. It is even considered to be weak by 5/21 respondents (Ghana, Liberia, Niger, Senegal and Uganda).
- This sub-sector suffers from lethargy. The noted trends are slow, with the exception of social and family mobilization. The national financing context is improving in only 6/17 countries.

Source: Analysis of 21 country responses to the 2014 EFA Survey (Sample A - See Annex 3).

Despite the progress noted in terms of TVET, country teams indicate that this type of training faces several constraints: expanding supply is particularly expensive, because of the cost of the required materials and equipment. Additionally, the courses offered are often felt to be insufficiently aligned with the needs of the workplace. Perhaps in relation to these factors, the subsector is thought to suffer from globally negative perceptions, both on behalf of pupils and potential teachers.

Other constraints mentioned by countries reflect the multiplicity of educational streams covered by EFA Goal 3 and therefore provide a fragmented image of the issues encountered. Precisely because of the diversity of postbasic education supply, the need for greater complementarity between streams is clearly felt in country responses, as well as to improve management, coordination and quality control, that represent serious challenges.

Authors' Note: The fact that country responses for EFA Goal 3 mainly focus on TVET is in itself highly revealing of their vision of postbasic education, but also conceals many and diverse efforts in terms of nonformal education, bridging schools, second-chance education, acceleration programmes and so on. These initiatives are often pilots, or limited to high priority areas. Nevertheless, many of them are promising, and some should be scaled-up.

The provision of TVET is now accredited with being an effective strategy to reduce youth unemployment, but is thought to firstly require: revaluing in the public eye through sensitization campaigns; further investment to ensure it is relevant; commissioning studies on the alignment of skills acquired/qualifications offered with jobs; training and capacity-building teachers in technical subjects; and promoting public-private partnerships, to provide better learning conditions and socioprofessional opportunities to participating youth.

Goal 4: Adult Literacy

→ *See Niger's case study on women's functional literacy (Page 98)*

Although political will in terms of adult literacy is generally considered to be weaker than for general education in SSA, those countries having made progress in this area have noted the importance of a certain number of key success factors, including:

- The creation of dedicated institutions (such as Gabon's *Ministère Chargé de l'Éducation Populaire*, Burundi's *Département en Charge de l'Alphabétisation*, or Angola's *National Literacy Commission*);
- The elaboration of literacy strategies, whether focused on the creation of specific programmes or projects, or the integration of literacy in existing development plans, which has been done in over 10 countries (out of 36);
- Increasing the financing of literacy activities, in particular for the recruitment, training and professionalization of literacy facilitators;
- Prioritizing functional literacy, to increase its utility for beneficiaries; and
- Strengthening social mobilization, in particular through sensitization activities.

Authors' Note: The countries whose adult literacy rates have most improved generally adopted a systematic vision of literacy, making it an integral part of their EFA programmes, made the necessary trade-offs and negotiated and advocated for the ownership of their literacy goals.

**Key
2000-14
Success
Factors**

- The strongest features of national EFA policies for literacy and adult education have been social mobilization (mentioned as having been positive by 20/21 countries) and the efforts deployed by education sectors (a positive factor for 17/21 countries).
- Trends in these factors are nevertheless weak, a third of countries not having noted any real change over the period.
- Political will is however seen to be consolidating in over half of countries (10/17), but clearly faces financing constraints, in particular national.

Source: Analysis of 21 country responses to the 2014 EFA Survey (Sample A - See Annex 3).

The fact that this EFA goal has not been a priority for many countries is reflected, among others, in the lack of appropriate policies (as mentioned by Ghana, Guinea Bissau and Uganda) and institutions, and the fact that these are not always operational when they exist, as flagged by Côte d'Ivoire with respect to its *Comité National d'Alphabétisation*.

Furthermore, SSA countries sense that various supply and demand factors dampen the impact of their programmes. Significant supply disparities between urban and rural areas are noted, although some sociocultural issues are considered more important still, in particular relating to men's participation in literacy programmes.

Regarding literacy, the main lesson learned that stands out from country responses to the 2014 EFA survey is the impact that the inclusion of functional content, adapted to the needs of adult beneficiaries and that facilitates their social and professional integration, can have on participation. As a result, country responses underline the relevance of reviewing course content on an ongoing basis. Also, sensitization activities are considered to help reach beyond cultural barriers, and offering classes in local languages and ensuring the better integration of programmes with the general education stream have been identified as further ways of encouraging participation and attendance, which is critical to ensure the sustainability of outcomes for learners.

Goal 5: Equity

→ *See Senegal's case study on the promotion of girls' education (Page 101)*

Country teams recognize that progress in terms of gender equity have in great part been achieved thanks to the efforts to attain universal education (Goal 2), and to the abolition of fees for primary education in particular. They nevertheless underline their strong political commitment to Goal 5 and illustrate this through a multitude of initiatives undertaken throughout the period, in favor of girls' education. These include:

- Policies in favor of girls' education, as specific as they are varied, or the incorporation of gender in existing education sector plans (mentioned by over 12/36 countries): policies for the automatic reenrollment of girls after childbirth, the recruitment in greater numbers of female teachers in schools where girls' enrollment is low, early marriage and pregnancy prevention programmes, or training headmasters and teachers in gender issues;

- The creation of specific incentives for girls' education in many countries, from the targeted distribution of food supplies to the provision of scholarships, learning materials or boarding facilities;
- The creation of dedicated ministerial units or departments;
- The review of curricula to eliminate stereotypes or incorporate gender modules in teacher and education staff training;
- Sensitization campaigns, such as *"Toutes les filles à l'école"* in Niger, or the *Girls Education Movement* in Uganda;
- Employing more women in political and governmental spheres (government, parliament, local authorities, teaching staff), occasionally targeting areas that show continued resistance to girls' education (such as in Cameroon).

Indeed, in several countries, the intensity of efforts in favor of girls' education has led to a reversal of gender inequality, with girls' enrollment rates climbing beyond those of boys. In Senegal, this is purportedly the direct consequence of the success of various initiatives aiming to increase girls' enrollment (See Senegal's case study on Goal 5 – Page 101). In The Gambia, a more surprising situation has occurred, where dropout among boys has increased following efforts directed at increasing girls' enrollment, in particular later in basic education, which required special compensatory measures, such as covering the schooling costs of boys.

**Key
2000-14
Success
Factors**

- Overall, mobilization for Goal 5 has been among the highest, after that for Goal 2, and of equivalent strength to that for quality (Goal 6).
- Engagement with this goal and financing have been generalized (political, governmental, families', and donors'), in many countries.
- Social commitment is the factor said to have been weakest in terms of gender policies, but is nevertheless valued as positive by 19/21 countries.
- Levels of political and governmental mobilization for gender are clearly on the rise.

Source: Analysis of 21 country responses to the 2014 EFA Survey (Sample A - See Annex 3).

Despite these efforts, many countries indicate that girls' education continues to be affected by well entrenched cultural stereotypes on women's role in society, be it at the national level or in rural and disadvantaged areas. These stereotypes are often supported by the under-representation of women in management, teaching or decision-making positions. In such areas, early marriage and pregnancy as well as household activities are identified by country teams as having a strong impact on girls' education, leading to high dropout. This dropout also tends to be encouraged by inappropriate living or schooling environments, in terms of accommodation, nutrition, gender-based violence, or curriculum content.

To better strengthen gender equity in education, social mobilization is deemed instrumental. Countries' findings suggest that this tends to be consolidated through increased community sensitization campaigns in favor of girls' enrollment and retention in the education system. Supporting this, some countries have mentioned that popularization of policies pertaining to gender equity and equality and the commitment of traditional authorities have been effective. The analysis of country responses to the 2014 EFA survey provides a global vision where this mobilization supports girls' education by providing favorable environments, through the creation of mothers' associations, the promotion of school feeding, the provision of local support services to girls, opening of community welcome centers, or the development of preventive and remedial gender-based violence action.

Goal 6: Educational Quality

→ *See Swaziland's case study on quality (Page 104)*

Almost every country having participated in UNESCO's EFA surveys, and specifically addressing educational quality, underline the importance of the teacher issue, be it with respect to the pupil-teacher ratio, teachers' qualification levels, or their basic or ongoing training. On this matter, several countries relate positive experiences in terms of distance training teachers: Ghana, who offers a *Diploma in Basic Education* in this way, Lesotho, with the *Distance Teachers Education Programme*, as well as Cabo Verde.

Although the majority of countries state that investments in teaching staff have a favorable impact on quality, they are just as many, on the other hand, to pinpoint shortcomings in this very area as being a constraint to the improvement of quality. For almost a quarter of the countries having responded to the survey, teachers' weak motivation, related to their status, wage or posting, is mentioned as a marked factor of failure, affecting levels of absenteeism, effective pupil learning time and the relevance of teaching.

Indeed, the exponential growth of teaching staff required by the expansion of primary education has entailed the de-professionalization of teaching in many countries, with the wide-scale recruitment of contract and community teachers, who are neither monitored nor paid by the government, eroding quality.

The distribution of textbooks and teaching and learning materials is also noted as having a meaningful impact on the improvement of learning outcomes, be it positive thanks to its success, or negative due to certain constraints. Among the latter, the main one cited by countries is that textbooks and pedagogical material are not always adapted to the new curricula.

Beyond the increase and improvement of school infrastructure and equipment, the other key factors of progress in terms of quality mentioned by countries are:

- Curricula review and improvement, to ensure their greater relevance to local needs. In Eritrea for instance, reform has included learning axed on the local context and in local languages. In U. R. of Tanzania the use of local languages in primary has helped to greatly improve reading results in the SACMEQ assessments). Such approaches help to improve results in the most important subjects (math and sciences). Some countries restructure curricula according to a competency-based approach, such as Senegal, where this process has further enabled the improvement of transition from preprimary to basic education;
- Strengthening sector management, be it at the central (financing, procurement, education management and information systems – EMIS) or school level (training headmasters, school projects, school scorecards, community participation in management), such as the *National Standards and Performance Indicators* established for schools in Namibia;
- The systematization of learning assessments through international (PASEC, SACMEQ, TIMSS and PIRLS) or national standardized tests, in particular in anglophone countries such as Ghana and Liberia (EGRA/EGMA), Botswana, U. R. of Tanzania (PSLE), Kenya (NASMLA) and Lesotho; and
- Quality control, particularly through inspections, for the ongoing assessment of teachers and the implementation of new curricula.

**Key
2000-14
Success
Factors**

- Education ministries' commitment to quality is the factor appraised to have the greatest impact on national EFA policies relating to Goal 6 (by 20/21 countries).
- TFPs' support of policies focusing on the improvement of quality is also greatly appreciated (all countries rank this factor as being favorable).
- Although the financing (both national and external) of quality in the context of EFA is considered to be acceptable, a majority of countries have a negative or neutral perception of its evolution over the period.

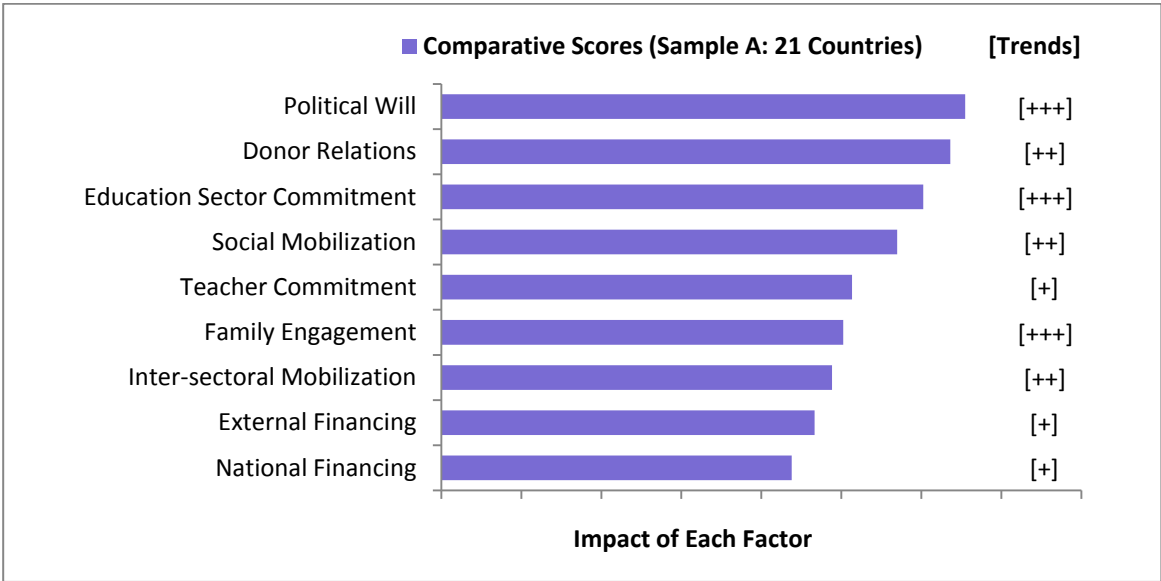
Source: Analysis of 21 country responses to the 2014 EFA Survey (Sample A - See Annex 3).

The lack or nature of inspections is recognized as a weakness by a significant number of countries (seven mention this clearly), facing difficulties in terms of logistics, personnel, standards, tools or the absence of effective pedagogical support capacity, focusing more on straightforward supervision. This is all the more critical that an additional constraint mentioned by countries is the lack of teacher preparation to impart new curricula, not least in terms of pedagogical approaches and competences.

Despite the above, the main constraint to the improvement of quality remains the availability of sufficient resources, affecting all education inputs (See Section 3.B). As a result, teaching and supervision conditions are still thought to be too weak to ensure learning outcomes of the desired level. Indeed, several countries conclude with sincerity that pupils' results have deteriorated over the EFA period.

Box 4: EFA Policy Factors – A Comparative Analysis

Overall, political commitment has been the aspect of national efforts towards EFA since 2000 having had the strongest impact, highly favorable for almost every country. Donors have also provided considerable support to national EFA policies (the global impact being considered positive by a vast majority of countries, and negative by none). The mobilization of education sectors has greatly contributed, closely followed by social mobilization, a highly favorable factor for most countries (See the figure). All of the above factors have witnessed favorable global trends over the period. Although the total financial effort for education is considered to be a positive factor by many countries, national financing is clearly the Achilles’ heel of EFA policies in SSA. Seven countries (Angola, Cameroon, Ghana, Liberia, Niger, Senegal and Uganda) consider this to have been a significant constraint.



Source: Analysis of 21 country responses to the 2014 EFA Survey (Sample A - See Annex 3).
 Note: The scores reflect SSA countries’ consolidated opinion of the level of impact of each factor on EFA policy since 2000, all goals combined. The number of + shown for the trends reflects the estimated strengthening of the impact over the period (where + represents a weak trend, ++ a favorable trend and +++ a highly favorable trend).

Factor	Scope and Nature of the Impact
Political Will	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Political commitment has been one of the strongest factors behind UPE, gender and quality: for these goals, 18/21 countries valued it as very high. Although it has been weaker for ECCE, this has started to change, 16/17 countries reporting favorable trends in terms of political will for Goal 1. This level of mobilization is weakest for Goals 3 and 4.
Donor Relations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Overall, donor relations are the aspect of EFA most valued by responding countries in the context of their policies. These relations are considered to have had a high impact on Goals 2, 5 and 6 by over 16/20 countries, and to have had a positive impact (although slighter) on Goal 1. Trends noted by countries are positive overall, except for Goal 4.

Factor	Scope and Nature of the Impact
Education Sector Commitment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The education sector has been a pillar of EFA strategies for UPE, quality and equity, the level of commitment being considered positive by 20/21 countries. On the other hand, the sector's engagement with pre and post-primary education requires consolidating in many countries.
Social Mobilization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Just as national UPE policies have been met with unquestionable social support, the level of support for adult education is also strong. The most favorable trend is noted with respect to Goal 1 (14/17 countries rank it as positive, and no country ranks it as negative).
Teacher Commitment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teacher commitment has been a particularly strong element for equity, primary education and quality. For preprimary and adult education, it is barely surprising that it has not been remarkable, as these programmes are often managed by sectors other than education.
Family Mobilization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Families have most adhered to the goal of UPE. This factor has also been a strong element of EFA policies in terms of gender, quality and postprimary education. Family commitment to education is growing, for all EFA goals.
Inter-sectoral Mobilization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Inter-sectoral mobilization has been strongest for gender (Goal 5), UPE (Goal 2) and educational quality (Goal 6). Although the countries that consider it to be insufficient for ECCE are numerous (7/20), the trend with respect to this goal is nevertheless considered to be positive by a majority. The situation with respect to Goal 4 on adult education is of greater concern, as 8/21 countries consider the mobilization of the relevant ministries to be insufficient, and to be improving in only 5 of those.
External Financing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> External financing appears to have had a slightly greater impact on national EFA policies than national financing. For ECCE, external financing, contrary to national financing, is considered to have been a positive factor by a majority of respondents (17/20). It is considered to be positive in relation to Goals 2, 5 and 6, by 20/21 countries. Countries' views on trends for this factor are split, except in relation to Goal 5, for which its evolution is considered to be favorable by 11/16 countries.
National Financing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Of all the factors affecting national EFA policies considered in the survey, national financing is felt to have been the weakest. This is especially apparent for Goals 1, 3 and 4, where only 4/21 countries have qualified it as favorable. However, the financial commitment of governments is appreciated in relation to Goals 2, 5 and 6, being noted as positive by 18/21 countries. The trends mentioned by countries suggest that the evolution of financing is only favorable, overall, for Goals 2 and 5.

Source: Analysis of 21 country responses to the 2014 EFA Survey (Sample A - See Annex 3).

This panorama confirms the challenge faced in SSA, to reestablish the balance between access to education for all and the provision of quality teaching and learning outcomes. The main lesson learned by countries with respect to Goal 6 is the central and indispensable role of teachers. Their recruitment in sufficient numbers is necessary, but it is also important to ensure their motivation.

The adaptation of school curricula is also perceived as being fundamental, and all the more effective that it is focused on the national context, but countries are aware that this will only lead to improved learning if it is properly coupled with sufficient ongoing teacher training, with pedagogical support and appropriate textbooks and learning materials.

Much as the updating of textbooks and learning materials carries unquestionable financial and logistical complexities, several innovative experiences in this area are noteworthy. Nigeria resorted to public-private partnerships with reputable publishing houses for the design of new textbooks for general education, whereas Cameroon elaborated and implemented a new policy based on building local publishing capacities and co-publishing, the liberalization of distribution channels and the creation of a special fund to create school libraries.

3.B- Achieving the EFA Goals – Transversal Issues Faced

A certain number of transversal constraints and issues affecting the whole education sector in SSA are underlined by countries in their responses to the surveys, and summarized in this section. Some of them are indeed far greater than the different limitations indicated in the previous section for each of the EFA goals. They include, among others, resource mobilization, the teacher issue, sensitization and IEC, and the management of education systems.

Resource Mobilization

Despite a general improvement of the context of resource mobilization for education in SSA over the 2000-12 period (See Section 2.B, as well as Annex 1), the main constraint to achieving the EFA goals mentioned by countries is nevertheless the availability of sufficient financial resources. This concern, accentuated for each of the EFA goals, is expressed just as much in terms of school infrastructure (the sufficient number of classrooms, but also their condition and maintenance, and the availability of safe water, latrines and so on) as in terms of teaching staff and their training, or in terms of pedagogical materials and textbooks.

The lack of resources is particularly acute with respect to Goal 1, being the main constraint noted for ECCE, in part because this subsector is not an education policy priority. For UPE, the main limitation mentioned is the availability of infrastructure, but countries also highlight the lack of pedagogical material, textbooks and equipment, all closely related to the resources allocated. Low budgets are again the main constraint identified in relation to Goal 3, whether for TVET, secondary education, nonformal education, teacher training, or lifelong learning. Developing the supply of technical and

vocational training is considered to be especially expensive, in particular because of cost of the required materials and equipment, and due to smaller class sizes. For Goal 4, countries note that this same financial constraint translates into a lack of literacy centers, qualified literacy facilitators and materials and books.

This is therefore a question that cross-cuts all education subsectors, and directly impacts the improvement of quality: country teams having responded to the survey are aware that current supervision and teaching conditions are still too weak to generate the desired learning outcomes.

Box 5: The Teacher Challenge

“Without a sufficient number of teachers, women in particular, who are professionally qualified, posted to the right places, correctly remunerated and motivated, adequately supported and who master local languages, we cannot provide the world’s children with quality education.” (Oslo Declaration, 16-18 December 2008, Oslo).

On the basis of projections carried out by UNESCO’s Institute for Statistics in 2007, it will be necessary to create 1.9 million new teacher posts worldwide to achieve universal primary education by 2015. Almost 1.2 million of these posts are required in Sub-Saharan Africa. This situation conceals one of greater magnitude still however: when considering the replacement of existing teaching staff (due to retirement, illness, death and other causes of attrition), the recruitment effort required is close to double this amount, equivalent to 2.4 million over the period.

Pupil-teacher ratios in Sub-Saharan Africa have indeed stagnated, and are among the highest worldwide. Of 162 countries for which data were available for 2011, 26 had supervision rates at the primary level that were above 40 pupils per teacher; 23 of these countries are located in Sub-Saharan Africa.

The challenge is not only quantitative, but also qualitative. Many countries, especially in West Africa, have responded to the primary and secondary level teacher deficit by recruiting contract teachers, particularly community teachers. Such staff often work in conditions that are far less advantageous than those of civil servants, are often recruited directly by communities or schools, and the majority has received only limited formal training. In West Africa for instance, contract teachers represented half of teaching staff in 2000, and in 2010, reached levels close to 80 percent in Mali and over 60 percent in Benin, Cameroon and Chad.

Although the recruitment of contract teachers helps to compensate the short-term lack of staff, the chances that it will sustainably improve educational quality are low. Countries that are highly dependent on contract teachers, such as those in West Africa, rank among those where learning outcomes present most scope for improvement.

Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report “Teaching and Learning: Achieving Quality for All,” (UNESCO, 2013); “La scolarisation primaire universelle en Afrique: Le défi enseignant,” (Pôle de Dakar/UNESCO-BREDA, 2010).

The Teacher Issue

The recruitment and training of teachers is noted as a success factor by numerous countries in relation to Goal 2. Recruiting teachers in sufficient numbers is a necessary condition to expand education coverage, but an insufficient one. Indeed, SSA countries indicate the great difficulties they

face in terms of ongoing teacher training, posting, the provision of pedagogical support and in supplying them with appropriate teaching tools. These questions are all the more important in a context of curricular review. Finally, a generally weak level of teacher motivation is noted, that translates into high absenteeism levels or wage dissatisfaction. All of these factors are considered to potentially have a direct impact on the quality of learning outcomes.

Sensitization and IEC

Many countries express the need to reinforce information, education and communication (IEC) campaigns and activities, as well as parental education, on account of several EFA goals, to:

- (i) Improve communities' comprehension of the importance of preprimary education, and thus reinforce demand for ECCE services by mobilizing the appropriate players (Goal 1);
- (ii) Sensitize families more broadly on the value of education, for both their children and society at large, in particular in relation to primary and basic education (Goals 2 and 3);
- (iii) Address certain sociocultural disinclinations with respect to men's participation in literacy programmes, to encourage attendance and achieve sustainable outcomes (Goal 4); and
- (iv) Further mobilize society around the enrollment, education and retention of girls at school, in particular through the dissemination of equity and gender policies (Goal 5).

Education System Management

Many countries point out deficiencies in terms of education sector management, affecting not only access, but equity, quality and the internal efficiency of education systems, at different levels:

- Countries are still short of teacher policies, which should include the effective government monitoring, assessments and more coherent approaches to staff posting.
- At the central level, the desire to strengthen sector management is expressed in terms of the definition of more equitable school maps, financing, the allocation of resources, procurement and the production of reliable statistical data, to enable better trade-offs and decisions, in particular through the use of EMIS.
- At the school level, limitations are felt in terms of the training of headmasters, the elaboration of school projects, and the definition of indicators and national performance standards (school dashboards or score cards).
- The involvement of communities in school management is increasingly prescribed to improve the participatory monitoring of quality, for instance through the creation of school councils.

3.C- Reforms Influenced by EFA – Proposed Solutions

One of the key impacts of EFA has clearly been the provision of a global framework that has favored the reorganization of education systems according to the chosen goals. According to country reports, the most significant reforms carried out throughout the continent to canalize efforts towards the achievement of EFA goals relate to the reshaping of education policies and strategies and to the institutional reorganization of education ministries. Furthermore, the analysis of country responses to the EFA questionnaires highlights a high degree of convergence in the solutions adopted in response to the issues outlined in Section 3.B. These solutions, among others, include education information and management systems, community participation, school feeding programmes and public-private partnerships.

Education Policies and Strategies

The most important aspect of the reforms undertaken is generally flagged as being the selection of laws, policies, strategies, national programmes and action plans, elaborated or updated, voted or approved, and implemented. Box 6 presents a selection of those cited by four countries (Burkina Faso, Côte d’Ivoire, Lesotho and Namibia), to illustrate the scope and diversity of these initiatives.

Box 6: Illustrative Sample of Strategy and Policy Documents, 4 SSA Countries

Country	Strategy and Policy Documents
Burkina Faso	<i>Plan Décennal de Développement de l’Éducation de Base (PDDEB); Programme de Développement Stratégique de l’Éducation de Base (PDSEB); Projet d’Enseignement Post-primaire (PEPP); Programme National d’Accélération de l’Alphabétisation (PRONAA); Stratégie Nationale d’Accélération de l’Éducation des Filles (SNAEF); Plan Stratégique de Renforcement des Capacités (PSRC); Politique Intégrée de la Petite Enfance; ...</i>
Côte d’Ivoire	<i>Plan d’Actions à Moyen-Terme, intégré au Plan National de Développement (PND); Plan Stratégique de l’Éducation de la Fille; Document de Stratégie de l’Alphabétisation; Politique Nationale de Développement Intégré du Jeune Enfant (DIJE); Politique Nationale de Protection de l’Enfant; ...</i>
Lesotho	Integrated Early Childhood, Care and Development (IECCD) Policy; Higher Education Policy; National University of Lesotho Act 2002; Education Act, 2010; Child Welfare and Protection Act, 2011; Higher Education Act, 2004; Draft Open and Distance Learning Policy Framework...
Namibia	National Action Plan 2001-15 for Education for All; National Policy Options for Educationally Marginalized Children; Education Sector Policy for Orphans and Vulnerable Children; Promotion Policy; Education Sector Policy on Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy; Sector Policy on Inclusive Education; Textbook Policy; ...

Source: Country responses to the 2014 EFA questionnaire.

Note: See <http://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/> for the full list of education plans and strategies for all countries.

Authors’ Note: Overall, 24 countries have elaborated a national EFA action plan, and 21 further countries have an education sector strategy.

Free primary education has been a beacon policy, implemented in the majority of countries, at any rate as far as the abolition of school fees is concerned. According to survey respondents, this has been the single most important factor in increasing access to school, by lightening the burden on families, and is thus the policy having most contributed to universal primary education.

Authors' Note: One of the Dakar Forum's main legacies has been the redefinition of UPE, not only in terms of universal completion (which automatically encompasses gender parity), but also by including the promotion, or indeed the improvement, of the quality of learning outcomes. The pursuit of this broad goal requires relatively precise education policies that are not limited to developing supply, but simultaneously take demand factors that affect children's schooling careers into account. The gratuity of primary education sits well in this general scheme, through prevention against household wealth-related discrimination, while constituting a recognition of the right to education, and of the intensity of the positive individual and collective effects of education. However, free schooling is alone insufficient for the achievement of UPE, given the related and opportunity costs of education, that go well beyond school fees. A greater reduction in the education costs supported by parents is necessary to reduce the financial barrier that families face.

Institutional Reform

These national policies and action plans are often reflected on the institutional level, by the creation of administrative units devoted to the various priority areas, or if applicable, by their reorganization (See also Annex 1). Thus, in Cameroon for instance, the old Ministry of National Education has been split into three ministries, each responsible for different EFA areas: the Ministry of Basic Education, the Ministry of Secondary Education, and the Ministry of Higher Education, in addition to the creation of a Ministry of Vocational Training. Most countries have created ministerial departments, administrative divisions, national commissions and other arrangements, focusing on literacy, gender, nonformal education, TVET, and many more.

Authors' Note: The multiplication of administrative divisions is not necessarily a model to promote. It carries the risk of fragmenting support and of a greater degree of competition between subsectors that could degrade inter-sectoral coherence as well as intra-sectoral coordination. It is also a drain on budgets. The efficiency of such institutional reforms is still to be demonstrated.

Several countries have used decentralization to better face the challenges posed by the broad scale of reform and service expansion. Burkina Faso indicates that its *Programme d'Activités Pluriannuel de Renforcement des Capacités des Acteurs de la Décentralisation et de la Déconcentration de l'Éducation* (an action plan to build the capacities of education decentralization players) has enabled the transfer of competencies and resources to local authorities. Niger also considers that its

decentralized management of schools is a success, even if it is still to be made sustainable. Malawi mentions that the decentralization of primary education activities through the Primary School Improvement Program has reinforced community participation and ownership of school activities and management.

Authors' Note: Given the complexities that are inherent to the decentralization of education services in many countries, this approach nevertheless carries risks in terms of quality and access to education services.

Finally, several countries mention their appreciation of sector dialogue structures that convene the government, TFPs, NGOs and civil society (See Annex 1). Often in the shape of theme groups or education sector groups, these set-ups have occasionally been instrumental in reinforcing partnerships and mobilizing resources (U. R. of Tanzania), and in other cases have constituted a highly appreciated sector planning framework (such as in Burundi).

Education Information and Management Systems

Numerous countries indicate that improvements in the monitoring of education policies have been possible thanks to the strengthening of education information and management systems (EMIS). Thus Burundi, Cabo Verde, Cameroon, DRC, Eritrea, Gabon, Ghana, Guinea Bissau, Lesotho, Niger and U. R. of Tanzania are among countries who indicate that their educational statistics systems have been reinforced, often with the technical support of TFPs, enabling the collection of more reliable data at the school level and its consolidation at the central level. Beyond the publication of statistical yearbooks, this in turn has enabled the improvement of service planning, resource allocation, steering and governance, in addition to sector monitoring and evaluation, having a considerable impact on the progress achieved.

Community Participation

Communities' participation in and commitment to education have been particularly appreciated by country teams in the context of national efforts to achieve EFA. To mention but a few examples:

- (i) Their participation in the management of basic schools, through the creation or activation of school management committees or parent-teacher associations, is particularly noted by Angola, Burkina Faso, Cameroon and Guinea Bissau;
- (ii) Many countries underline their key role in the provision of ECCE services; in The Gambia these were later annexed to primary schools;

- (iii) In Burundi and Swaziland their contribution is also noted in terms of school construction;
- (iv) Their mobilization has often contributed to encourage girls' education, by providing girls with a suitable environment, local support services, welcome centers, or through the development of gender-based violence prevention and response activities; and
- (v) Mothers' associations have had a marked impact on girls' education, in particular in terms of retention, according to Malawi and The Gambia.

Overall, a clear lesson can be drawn from the experiences of Sub-Saharan African countries in this area: community collaboration facilitates the implementation of education strategies and enables the strengthening, by different means, of the learning outcomes achieved by pupils.

School Feeding

School feeding programmes are worthy of special mention, considering how conclusive their results are considered to be, and not only in terms of improving learning outcomes. Indeed, numerous countries have noted their impact on pupil retention and attendance. Several countries, such as Guinea Bissau and Lesotho, have used school canteens as positive discrimination tools to iron out disparities in schooling careers, for instance by providing an additional incentive to the education of girls or of children of preprimary age, or by targeting grades where dropout is particularly high. In the case of Cabo Verde, canteens are considered to have been instrumental in achieving UPE.

Authors' Note: The unit cost of school feeding programmes is sometimes prohibitive, which could jeopardize their sustainability, especially when TFPs withdraw their support. However, this is very much related to the adopted strategy. This is an area where community organization and participation can substantially contribute.

Public-Private Partnerships

In addition to the different EFA policy success factors mentioned for each of the goals above, one further point stands out from the processing of the country questionnaires as having been favorable to the achievement of certain education goals: public-private partnerships. Indeed, although overall these have been seldom mentioned by the countries having responded to the survey, their impact has nevertheless been considered favorable by Burkina, Burundi, DRC, The Gambia, Guinea Bissau, U. R. of Tanzania and Senegal. In a context of limited resources and unavoidable intra-sectoral trade-offs, these partnerships have helped to compensate some weak national capacities in terms of adult literacy, technical training and ECCE, providing a response to the needs of population groups that do not benefit from general education.

Authors' Note: At the SSA level, the share of pupils enrolled in non publicly-funded general education schools has increased between 2000 and 2012, from 9.4 percent to reach 14 percent on average for primary, and from 2.0 percent for lower secondary, where they represent 20 percent on average (See Table 7 in Section 2.B).

3.D- Key Findings

This Section 3, through the analysis of the perceptions shared by SSA countries of the activity carried out over the EFA 2000-15 period, helps to provide a general review of the constraints encountered in the implementation of EFA policies, as well as the degree of intensity of the efforts to overcome them.

Clearly, the holistic and integral nature of the EFA goals launched SSA countries on the path to revisit national education goals, to include sectors and beneficiary groups that were not systematically contemplated beforehand. This has instigated the reorganization of education ministries, and some intense sector and subsector planning activity.

The massive expansion of existing education coverage, as well as growth in other subsectors and cycles, has however faced a considerable constraint in terms of resources, particularly national. This has limited the scope of action to improve education supply, not least in terms of infrastructure and teacher recruitment and training. A certain number of adjustments were then made to respond to the needs of these new learners, such as the incorporation of a *Class Zero* in primary schools, in order to strengthen preprimary education, or the promotion of private-sector participation in the acquisition of work skills, to develop the supply of technical and vocational training.

This constraint has also had the unavoidable consequence of graduating national commitment to the different goals. The priority was first placed on primary education and equity, to later expand to include basic education and quality.

Furthermore, to stimulate the ongoing improvement of enrollment indicators, awareness has risen with respect to the importance of demand-side factors and numerous initiatives have seen the light to strengthen them, particularly beneficiary sensitization campaigns and school feeding programmes. These initiatives have also provided the opportunity to expand the role of and share responsibility for education management, in particular with communities, whose contribution over the period has gradually increased, through multiple initiatives whose cost-benefit ratio has proven to be appealing.

These constraints, coupled to persistent issues of sustained dropout, particularly among girls, and of often deteriorating quality, have finally created an awareness that to better achieve the EFA goals, it is many not be necessary to spending more, but to spend better. In this respect, several countries today wish to improve their education sector management, steering and governance arrangements, from school inspections to teacher posting, through the deployment of more precise monitoring and evaluation tools.

Section 4. National Perspectives for post-2015

This section explores countries' outlooks for their education sectors for the post-2015 period. It will review their opinions of the new challenges and stakes in terms of education resulting from the implementation of EFA strategies over the 2000-14 period, the priorities they have identified in terms of programme content and subsectors for the future, and their wishes with respect to the nature and substance of a new EFA framework.

As per Section 3, the views that are outlined here represent points of convergence in the national opinions shared, and the resulting outlook will have all the more credibility that the number of countries that share each view is great.

The analysis of Section 4 is based on the responses of 36 countries, to: (i) the 2012 EFA Survey, and (ii) the 2014 EFA survey (for 21 of the above)²⁰.

Although the full sample of 36 countries is used for most of this section (Sample B), some of the analyses are based specifically on the responses of the countries of Samples A and C:

- Section 4.B on the future of education programmes: Sample C, of 34 countries
- Section 4.C on the nature of a new EFA framework: Sample A, of 21 countries, for the parts dealing with the appraisal of the existing framework's components and the timeframe envisaged for a new framework.

For Sample A, used in the analysis of the appraisal of the components of the current EFA framework, the approach *compares* the relative importance of each component thanks to *scores* that incorporate a quantitative dimension (the number of countries having expressed a favorable or unfavorable view) and a qualitative dimension (the level of approval/disapproval of each country). The value of each score has no meaning in itself.

It is sometimes appropriate to comment on the views presented, on the basis of regional trends. These *Authors' Notes* are clearly differentiated from countries' perceptions' in the text.

4.A- The 2000-15 EFA Legacy – Stakes and Challenges

The intensity of efforts for EFA over the 2000-15 period and the creation of new mechanisms, institutions and partnerships (See Annex 1 for further details of the latter), has enabled the

²⁰ These surveys were carried out by UNESCO's Dakar office in the context of EFA monitoring in SSA. The questionnaires provide countries with great freedom to give qualitative answers, providing information on successes, failures, good practices and lessons learned (the 2014 questionnaire is provided in Annex 4). The constitution and use of the various country samples are explained in Annex 3 on methodological considerations.

achievement of significant progress towards some goals. New imbalances in education systems have also been born, and new challenges have emerged:

- The quality of teaching and learning outcomes is clearly the area most needing redressing at this stage, after the considerable focus on access over the period.
- Providing educational or economic opportunities to the greater number of primary leavers is a growing concern.
- Addressing a group of issues relating to efficiency in the use of sector resources also stands out from country responses as a priority.
- The need to strengthen intersectoral coordination is also underlined.

The scarcer distribution of resources over a greater number of cycles and larger populations (See Table 7 in Section 2.B on the drop in unit costs), has entailed a reduction of effective teaching time for some countries, higher pupil-teacher ratios for others, and the recruitment of less qualified or trained teachers for the majority, impacting the quality and relevance of teaching and even entailing its deterioration.

Thus, school failure is considered to be still too widespread (on this, Côte d'Ivoire mentions its low Baccalaureate pass rate), learning outcomes are weak (such as at the NEA, BECE and WASSCE exams according to Ghana, especially in math and science subjects), a considerable share of pupils fail to achieve the minimum levels at the PASEC and SACMEQ international assessments, and Niger and Uganda even point out that pupils' performance levels are dropping (in both math and language at the primary level, and particularly in science subjects at the secondary level).

Authors' Note: This report does not provide all the necessary elements to appreciate the causes of weak learning outcomes, and countries' opinions of cause and effect indeed point to an area where further research is required.

Nevertheless, given the focus on universal primary access and completion over the 2000-15 period, the stagnating quality of teaching, or even the drop in pupils' performance mentioned by many countries, is considered more of a new priority area rather than a failure.

Furthermore, many of the countries having achieved significant progress towards UPE now face a double issue in relation to the youth who leave primary education:

- For the majority, it is to address considerable levels of demand for postprimary education. In Zambia for instance, the arrangements to abolish secondary education fees are already under study, according to a gradual approach, to be accounted for in the expenditure framework. This demand is set to represent a considerable challenge for secondary education, and in countries where education systems are more developed, its impact could even reach the enrollment capacity of higher education.

- In the workplace, to provide opportunities for work or activity, through national economic development. There is some concern regarding the potential social impact that the inactivity of a significant share of the population, now educated, might have, particularly in the light of recent developments like the Arab spring.

In this context, the role of TVET has been seriously reconsidered by governments, given its potential to address both issues.

To address the imperatives of quality and TVET development, resolving the recurrent and widespread issue of resources is deemed fundamental. However, countries do not only consider this from the perspective of available financing. Indeed, Senegal for instance notes with sincerity the lack of efficiency in resource use, brought to light by the high level of loss throughout the spending chains of the main school inputs, be they salaries, the procurement of textbooks, or the construction of new classrooms.

Furthermore, national education and training sectors are unable to harness significant proportions of their budgets, given the complexity of disbursement procedures, of the length and cumbersome nature of administrative procurement procedures (as noted by Côte d'Ivoire and Burkina Faso, among others). This delays the implementation of projects and programmes. Several countries are critical of TFP procedures in particular (addressed in Section 4.C).

Lesotho is not the only country to underline that the other side of this coin, clearly, is the great scope to improve education systems' internal efficiency, given that high levels of dropout and repetition constitute suboptimal use of already limited resources.

Finally, the weakness, or indeed absence, of inter-ministerial coordination is also noted as a constraint in the implementation of education policy in the framework of EFA. With several ministries responsible for different subsectors, the need to reinforce the links between them and establish more effective coordination mechanisms is felt in many countries, including Guinea Bissau, Burundi, DRC, Eritrea, Gabon and U. R. of Tanzania.

4.B- The Future of Education Programmes – Priorities and Outlook

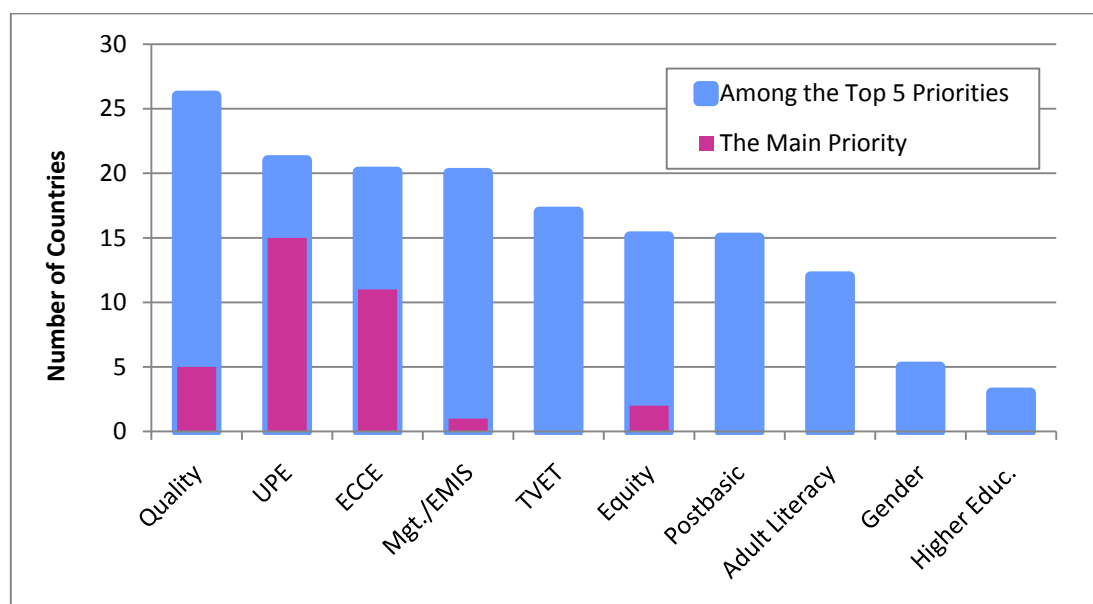
Through the survey of SSA countries carried out in 2012, respondents were given the opportunity to outline their education priorities for the future, on the basis of progress achieved and challenges identified.²¹ This section of the report summarizes the answers, which were formulated both in terms of EFA goals, showing country teams' strong approval of these, and of education subsectors and levels, as well as of crosscutting issues.

UPE remains the top priority goal mentioned by the greatest number of countries (15/34), reflecting the fact that over a third of SSA has not yet achieved this beacon goal, but remains determined to do

²¹ Sample C is used for this analysis, covering 34 countries. Annex 3 on methodological considerations explains the composition of the different country samples used.

so (See the purple bars in Figure 13). ECCE is not far behind, now being considered the main priority of a third of responding countries (11/34). Thirdly, five countries have indicated that their main goal is improving quality. Finally, two countries single out equity as being at the forefront of their concerns for the post-2015 period: Sao Tomé and Príncipe and Gabon.

Figure 13: Number of Countries for which a Given post-2015 Priority is among their Top Five, and their Main One, SSA



Source: Analysis of 34 country responses to the 20142 EFA survey (Sample C – See Annex 3 on methodological considerations).

However, given the complexity of the development contexts of SSA countries' education systems, priorities are always plural. Figure 13 also provides a ranking of priorities according to the number of countries having mentioned each as one of their top five priorities (the blue bars). It provides grounds for the following key findings and comments:

- Improving quality is most often mentioned as one of countries' five top priorities for the future, and by a significant margin (mentioned by 26/34 countries).
- Educational quality is now considered important by a greater number of countries than universal primary education (mentioned by 21/34 countries in total).
- ECCE, mentioned by 20/34 countries, is now considered to be a priority by as many countries as universal primary education.
- The better management of education sectors (and particularly the deployment of EMIS), is of concern for as many countries as UPE and ECCE (20/34), and constitutes the main priority for Congo, to make better trade-offs between cycles.
- The development of technical and vocational skills is a fundamental need to encourage youth employment, a high stake for SSA countries, and was only lightly addressed in earlier policies.

- The focus on the equity imperative is salient. It is now a priority for 15/34 countries. This comprises vulnerable children, rural populations and children with special education needs, as well as minorities.
- Adult literacy continues to be a significant concern, mentioned by 12/34 countries.
- Gender is seldom mentioned in its own right, although it is encompassed in the notion of UPE, considered as part of the equity imperative, or mentioned within the context of quality.
- Finally, although higher education is only cited by a few countries (Sao Tomé and Príncipe, Cameroon and Lesotho), its importance for them is considerable.

What stands out less starkly from the figure above relates to the educational opportunities for youth and adults. The ranking presented tends to understate their importance. Indeed, TVET is often identified as a priority in its own right (by 17/34 countries). Particular emphasis is placed on the technical and vocational competences required for entrepreneurship or to start an income generating activity. However, the 15 countries having identified postprimary or postbasic education as a priority in a broader sense should also be taken into account in relation to this age group. Together, these figures underline a growing concern for the educational opportunities for youth.

In addition, two crosscutting issues are mentioned by the majority of countries in the context of the operational goals identified in terms of sector priorities or quality: the importance of developing education infrastructure, and the deployment of information and communication technologies (ICT) throughout education systems, particularly to modernize teaching (Box 7 provides greater detail of the main themes and strategies envisaged by countries for each of the priorities mentioned).

Outlook

The panorama of countries' sector priorities for the post-2015 era clearly indicates that the six EFA goals are still considered relevant. In particular, the renewal of the 2000-15 EFA beacon goal is taken for granted: there is a real and fundamental concern throughout SSA countries to ensure that UPE is achieved.

This implies, for many, to invert the enrollment paradigm. The issue is no longer to increase enrollment, but indeed to reduce out-of-school. Thus equity becomes a priority goal in its own right, well beyond gender. Children with special educational needs (Lesotho, Angola, Cameroon), handicapped children (South Africa), children from remote rural areas or those from disadvantaged social groups, minorities and marginalized groups, refugees (Cameroon) and youth belonging to religious confessions (Senegal) are just as many new target groups identified by countries, that define the new educational frontier to reach. For this, a new awareness is emerging, that fine targeting will be required, as well as the elaboration of learning tools that are appropriate, in their content and their language, the training of facilitators with specific competencies and the improvement and reconversion of infrastructure.

In brief, several adjustments to sector priorities are deemed necessary by SSA countries (See also Box 8 that provides the international community’s post-2015 vision of EFA, described in the Muscat Agreement). The first three are fairly general, whereas the following ones are more specific, for certain countries. They include:

- Strengthening and revaluing the role of TVET, with modules focusing on entrepreneurship;
- Broadening the equity issue, from gender, to include all out-of-school children;

Box 7: Key Themes Identified for the post-2015 Era, by Priority, SSA

Priority	Key Themes
Quality	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Teachers (6 countries talk of redeployment, 4 of motivation) - Pedagogical material - Curricula (reform, pedagogical approaches) - Academic inspections - Assessment of learning outcomes - Use of ICT
UPE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Universal access, in particular for out-of-school children (construction of schools based on school maps to align supply with needs in disadvantaged areas, tutoring, scholarships, nonformal and alternative education) - Teachers (recruitment, training, motivation, performance, retention and qualifications) - Educational continuity (primary-secondary transition; the extension of free and compulsory basic education to lower secondary, for 6 countries: Burundi, Cameroon, Cabo Verde, Guinea, Malawi, Senegal) - Pedagogical material - School feeding - Internal efficiency (dropout, repetition, retention) - Making education compulsory (3 countries: Botswana, Lesotho, Swaziland) - Quality (school environments, libraries, curricula, inspections)
ECCE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Coverage: infrastructure, recruitment of carers, incorporation of a <i>Grade Zero</i> to primary (8 countries) - Quality: training of carers, pedagogical material, curricula, standards, certification of centers, management, supervision - Equity: disadvantaged children, those with special educational needs, or from rural areas - School feeding - Community involvement: coverage (schools) and quality (management)
Management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - EMIS - School maps - School projects - Governance
Equity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Out-of-school children (poor, rural, confessional and vulnerable children) - Targeted enrollment scholarships - Building programmes based on positive discrimination - Adaptation of school environments - Specialized training of teachers

- Better focusing efforts to improve quality, prioritizing teaching approaches and learning outcomes, in particular in math and science subjects;
- Including higher education;
- Including the issue of economic development, from the perspective of the opportunities provided to youth leaving the education system; and
- Giving information and communication technologies a more prominent role in teaching and training.

Priority	Key Themes
TVET	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Quality and relevance of training to local economic and social contexts - Better alignment of the competencies acquired with the workplace, and employment of education leavers (in concert with economic players) - Incorporation of modules on entrepreneurship - Development of strategies, policies and institutions - Certification of diplomas - Access (extending supply, construction and equipment of centers) - Strengthening the capacities of trainers - Public-private partnerships - Reducing out-of-school through mobile training approaches
Postbasic Education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Access, particularly the construction of classrooms - Scientific streams - Teachers (recruitment, training and redeployment) - Educational continuity (schools offering the entire secondary cycle, lower-upper secondary transition) - Teaching environment - Assessment of learning outcomes - Internal efficiency - Pedagogical material
Gender	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Participation of girls in TVET, higher education and scientific streams - Scholarships, incentives, welcome centers, programmes against gender-based violence - Positive discrimination in terms of assessments, to strengthen retention of girls and their transition to postbasic cycles - IEC/sensitization to overcome cultural and religious stereotypes
Adult Literacy and Education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Teachers/trainers/facilitators (recruitment, training and qualification) - Nonformal sector (access, certification of diplomas, bridges to the formal sector, construction and expansion of centers) - Pedagogical material - Functional and vocational focus of programme content
Higher Education	<p>(Lesotho, Liberia, Sao Tomé and Príncipe, Swaziland, U. R. of Tanzania)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Alignment of courses and curricula to local workplace requirements - Access and infrastructure - Diversification of programmes - Governance and strategic planning - Scientific research

Source: Analysis of 36 country responses to the 2014 EFA survey (Sample B – See Annex 3).

4.C- A New EFA Framework - Pointers

In the context of the 2014 survey, countries mentioned their wish, or lack of one, for a new international EFA framework. Although this question was only answered by 16 of the 21 countries having participated in the survey, equivalent to 35 percent of SSA countries, the results are striking: all responding countries wish a new EFA framework to be established to guide their post-2015 education policies, but none wants to just see the existing framework extended.

The answers are equally split between those countries that want a new framework to be linked to their national strategies and that better responds to the particular development issues, challenges and constraints that they face, and those that want a new framework based on the current one, but substantially modified.

This section will therefore provide food for thought about a potential new EFA international framework, and is primarily based on SSA countries' opinions of the current EFA framework, to draw certain conclusions, before combining the findings with the finer detail of countries' wishes for a future framework.

The 2000-15 EFA Framework – Lessons Learned

On the basis of the opinions of the 36 countries having participated in the surveys, the 2000-15 EFA framework, defined as the combined actions undertaken to promote and finance EFA, at the national and international levels, has been a resounding success.²² The core strengths most often pointed out by SSA countries, that they wish to see extended within a new framework, are to have:

- Offered guidance and encouragement for the elaboration of sector strategies;
- Provided a channel for the financial and technical support of TFPs;
- Enabled the production of diagnoses and studies, as a basis for the planning, targeting, development and implementation of education programmes (Annex 6 lists the countries having carried out a CSR – an education sector country status report – over the period);
- Encouraged the commitment and active involvement of social players, as well as synergies in their activities;
- Reflected the majority of existing national goals, and defined some new ones, also considered highly relevant; and
- Motivated countries in their efforts to strive towards these ambitious goals.

These findings are strengthened by the assessment of 21 countries' opinions of the relevance of several 2000-15 EFA framework components (See Figure 14 below)²³. Indeed, the analysis shows that almost all countries agree that this framework reflected their vision for the development of their

²² Sample B. Annex 3 explains the composition and use of the different country samples.

²³ Sample C. Section 2 of the questionnaire provided in Annex 4 provides greater detail of these components.

Box 8: The Muscat Agreement

The last global EFA meeting, held in Muscat in May 2014, enabled the international community (Education ministers, heads of delegation, multilateral and bilateral organizations' leaders and high-level representatives of civil society and private sector organizations) to outline an EFA framework for the post-2015 era, known as the Muscat Agreement. The main components of this agreement are:

Vision: *“Education is a fundamental human right for every person. It is an essential condition for human fulfillment, peace, sustainable development, economic growth, decent work, gender equality and responsible global citizenship. Furthermore, it contributes to the reduction of inequalities and the eradication of poverty by bequeathing the conditions and generating the opportunities for just, inclusive and sustainable societies. Therefore, education must be placed at the heart of the global development agenda.”*

Period: 2015 to 2030

Overarching Goal: *“Ensure equitable and inclusive quality education and lifelong learning for all by 2030.”*

Global Targets: * Minimum global benchmarks and relevant indicators will be identified/developed.

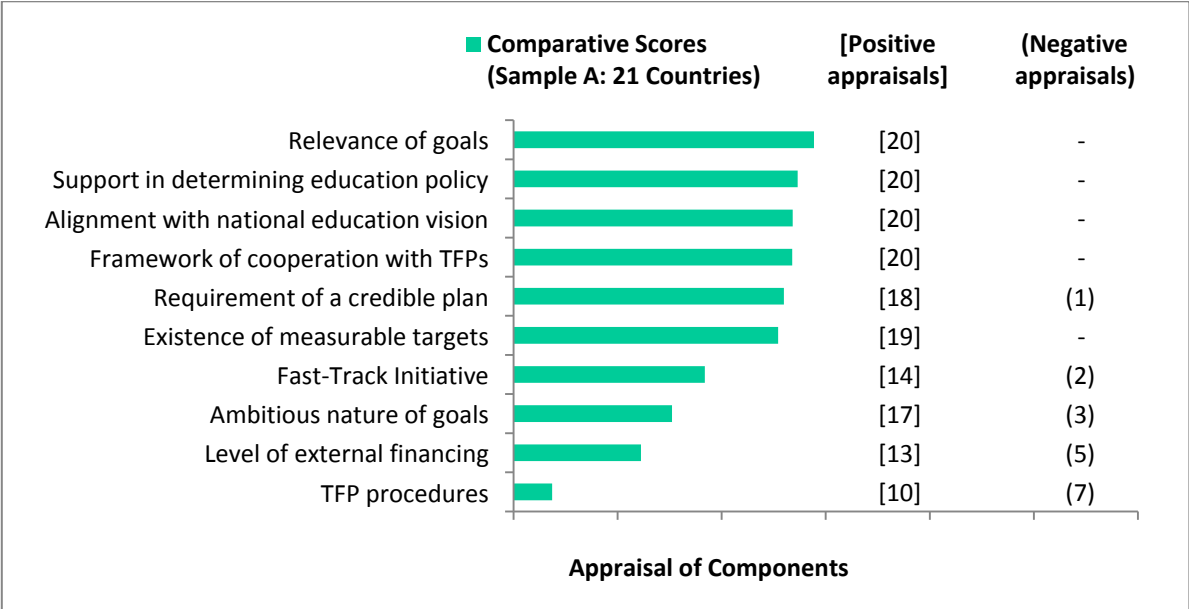
1. *At least x% of girls and boys are ready for primary school through participation in quality early childhood care and education, including at least one year of free and compulsory pre-primary education, with particular attention to gender equality and the most marginalized.*
2. *All girls and boys complete free and compulsory quality basic education of at least 9 years and achieve relevant learning outcomes, with particular attention to gender equality and the most marginalized.*
3. *All youth and at least x% of adults reach a proficiency level in literacy and numeracy sufficient to fully participate in society, with particular attention to girls and women and the most marginalized.*
4. *At least x% of youth and y% of adults have the knowledge and skills for decent work and life through technical and vocational, upper secondary and tertiary education and training, with particular attention to gender equality and the most marginalized.*
5. *All learners acquire knowledge, skills, values and attitudes to establish sustainable and peaceful societies, including through global citizenship education and education for sustainable development.*
6. *All governments ensure that all learners are taught by qualified, professionally-trained, motivated and well-supported teachers.*
7. *All countries allocate at least 4-6% of their Gross Domestic Product (GDP) or at least 15-20% of their public expenditure to education, prioritizing groups most in need; and strengthen financial cooperation for education, prioritizing countries most in need.*

Follow-up:

- The Open Working Group on Sustainable Development Goals has elaborated a proposal of goals (New York, July 2014), where education is given a predominant place, with a dedicated specific goal (Goal 4: *“Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all”*) and seven specific targets similar to those of the Muscat Agreement.
- The global validation of the Muscat Agreement is planned for the 2015 World Education Forum (Incheon, May 2015), to ensure that it truly reflects the needs of SSA.

national education systems, while simultaneously guiding the definition and implementation of national education policies, the goals set being considered relevant to their countries' development needs and accompanied with measurable targets.

Figure 14: Comparative Appraisal of the Components of the 2000-15 EFA Framework



Source: Analysis of 21 country responses to the 2014 EFA survey (Sample A – See Annex 3).
 Note: The scores reflect countries' consolidated appraisal of the components of the EFA framework. Not all countries answered all questions.

On the other hand, although overall countries' consider that the cooperation framework with TFPs was appropriate, as was the requirement to have a credible national sector plan to be entitled to external financing, they are very critical of donor procedures (7/17 countries opinions are markedly negative), in particular in terms of fund disbursements.

Countries are also less enthusiastic with respect to the level of external financing effectively received (5/18 countries voice unfavorable opinions), as well as with respect to the EFA Fast-Track Initiative (FTI), although to a lesser extent. It is however noteworthy that the two negative opinions of this framework are highly unfavorable.

Although the globally very positive findings are in no way eclipsed by more critical appraisals of some components, the latter nevertheless merit further exploration to enrich the lessons learned and guide the definition of a potential future framework. The main aspects of the EFA framework highlighted as requiring improvement are external financing and donor procedures.

Many countries feel that the international community failed to honor its word, the support of TFPs having fallen short of expectations, in particular in the light of the low level or drop in resources. The Gambia expresses this simply and clearly: *"The Dakar Framework for Action clearly indicates that No country with a credible education sector plan will be constrained by external financing. However, The Gambia has an uphill task to access external financing, despite having such a credible sector plan."*

This opinion, that appears to be shared by Benin, Burkina Faso, Guinea Bissau, Lesotho, Mali, Namibia, Niger, Swaziland and Uganda, generally reflects the high expectations created by the EFA framework, and the strong will of countries to align their education goals with it, in extremely ambitious fashion. Some countries feel that financing has flown towards countries less likely to achieve the set targets, but without considering the detail of different national contexts on the basis of disaggregated data.

Donor procedures have also been the source of frustration given the ambitious goals set and adopted by countries. In particular, country teams note a lack of donor alignment and harmonization, with multiple procedures. Generally speaking, the bureaucracy required to access external financing is complex, and responding to the various objections made by TFPs requires considerable time. In some cases, a further constraint is imposed by the difference between the fiscal years of beneficiary countries and TFPs (June-July and January-December), which generates further delays.

Thus, the implementation of programmes is made more complex, the execution of planned activities is delayed, procedures limit the disbursement of amounts committed, and in the worst case scenarios some programmes are neither financed in time nor implemented.

Authors' Note: It would indeed appear that some mistakes have been made, and the international community itself has seen its definition of the credibility of education plans (and therefore the criteria for the financing of programmes) evolve over the period. The strong focus on primary in the early plans, and in particular on its quantitative development, logically gave way in the mid-term to concerns about postprimary cycles and the quality of learning outcomes. The balanced sector outlook provided during the Dakar Forum's debates was thus sometimes forgotten to the benefit of more rapid and spectacular results, but that have transpired to carry deep imbalances.

These frustrations are nevertheless countered by some more positive perceptions, such as those of Benin or Burkina Faso, where the common basket called *pooled budget support* has favored greater synergies among TFPs' actions and better alignment with national procedures. In Senegal, this same synergy and enhanced complementarity of activities is noted thanks to the programme approach adopted in the context of the pursuit of EFA goals, and has enabled the achievement of better results than the pre-2000 project approach.

With respect to the EFA Fast-Track Initiative (FTI) and its rebranding in 2011 as the Global Partnership for Education (GPE), it is worth mentioning countries' views, even if these are naturally few in number given the recent rebranding.²⁴ Whereas Kenya considers that the GPE framework has lost some of the FTI's responsiveness, Liberia appreciates the greater level of transparency, and the

²⁴ Annex 1 includes a brief presentation of the FTI/GPE and its evolution over the period, among others.

increased flexibility provided to the Ministry of education in some activities, such as school construction, granting scholarships, or the procurement and distribution of pedagogical material.

Authors' Note: It may be worth further exploring these countries' opinions, as the procedures mentioned may be imposed more by supervision agencies than by the GPE itself.

The Potential Content of a post-2015 EFA Framework

The main component that a vast majority of countries wish to see incorporated into a new EFA framework is strengthened technical and financial support. On the financial side, this support would contribute to build school complexes, open teacher training institutes, create infirmaries, libraries, latrines and safe water supplies, implement school feeding programmes, procure school equipment and supplies and elaborate and publish textbooks and teaching guides.

On the technical side, in addition to the support needed for the aforementioned activities, some countries wish to receive help in strengthening the technical capacities of national officers through targeted training, and to establish better national EFA coordination mechanisms, that are formal, operational and effective.

Many countries also consider that greater national political will for EFA should be harnessed through the new framework, in particular in terms of resources. It has even been suggested that a minimum level of national investment should be made a condition to receive external aid, determined according to the national budget or GDP (See also Box 8).

In those countries where the gap to achieve the 2000-15 EFA goals is greater, there is a marked wish that any future framework should better address national contexts. Five countries specifically request that future targets be more realistic and flexible, reflecting their particular economic and educational contexts, and better reflecting their own challenges, resources and constraints as well as their domestic needs, rather than focused on international comparability. Their wish is to be accompanied in the implementation of their national education policies, which would be inspired by the proposed EFA framework.

Mirroring the previous part of this report, the wish that donor procedures be aligned and harmonized, in particular in terms of fund disbursement, is also repeatedly voiced.

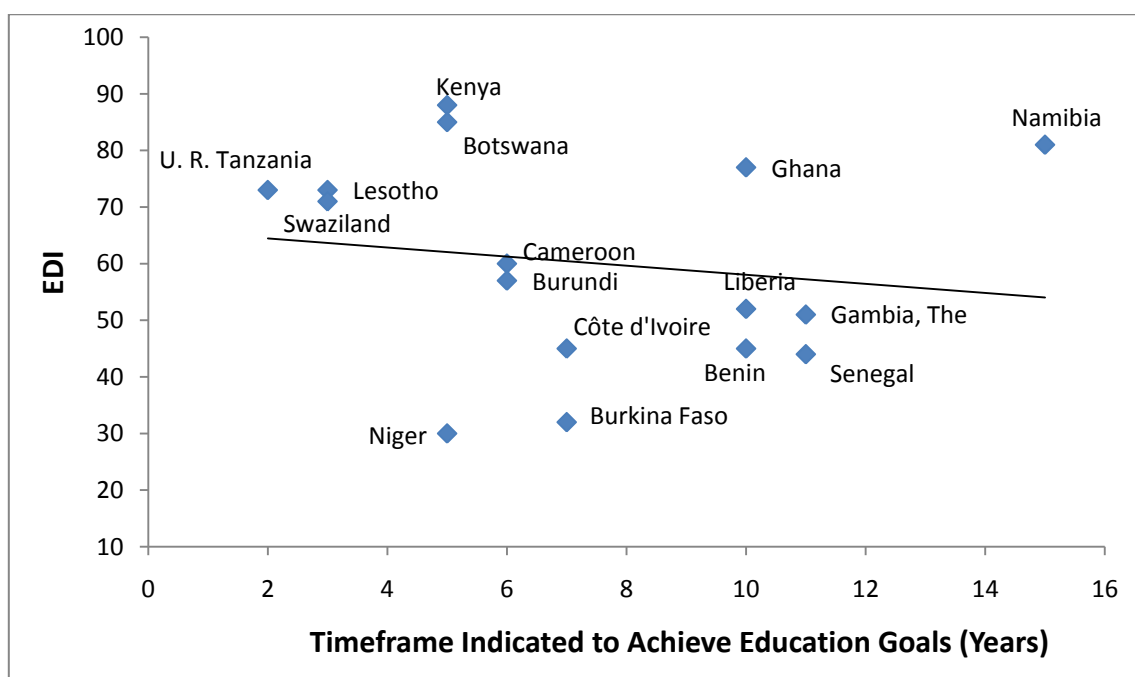
Three final elements, although more seldom mentioned by country teams, seem relevant: (i) the wish for strengthened, more regular and local monitoring of EFA policies; (ii) the opportunity to establish deeper sector consultation processes between TFPs and education ministries, to achieve greater consensus in policies and implementation strategies; and (iii) the incorporation of a regional cooperation dimension, in particular with respect to the strategies chosen to improve educational quality.

The Projected Timeframe

The horizons indicated by countries to achieve their post-2015 education priorities and goals vary considerably. A third of countries (6/16) having indicated a timeframe in 2014 position themselves in the long term, mentioning periods of 10 years or more. This is the case of Benin, The Gambia, Ghana, Liberia, Namibia and Senegal. A further third (6/16 countries) position themselves in the medium term, with timeframes of 5 to 10 years (Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Côte d'Ivoire and Niger). A last group of countries, slightly smaller, including Kenya, Lesotho, U. R. of Tanzania and Swaziland, have shorter term perspectives, having mentioned timescales of 3 to 5 years.

Furthermore, these different horizons do not only reflect countries current state of progress in education terms (See Figure 15). Indeed, some countries whose African EFA development index is already high, such as Namibia (EDI of 81) or Ghana (EDI of 77), believe they will require over 10 years to achieve their goals. Others, such as Niger (EDI of barely 30) or Burkina Faso (EDI of 32), forecast needing much shorter periods (less than 5 years and less than 8 years, respectively).

Figure 15: Projected Timeframe for the Achievement of post-2015 Education Goals, by EDI, 16 SSA Countries, 2014



Source: Analysis of 16 country responses to the 2014 EFA survey (Sample A – See Annex 3).

Summary of Findings

At the turn of the millennium, education coverage in Sub-Saharan Africa was weak: preprimary education was embryonic, with an enrollment rate of approximately 11 percent; the primary gross enrollment rate (GER) was 82 percent and the completion rate was 47 percent; only 10 percent of a generation of children completed the full secondary cycle; and TVET learners represented barely 8 percent of total secondary. Moreover, the share of literate adults was only 58 percent. This weak development was coupled with deep disparities in individual schooling careers, linked to location, income levels and gender (the enrollment of girls in primary was markedly lower than that of boys, with a gender parity index of 0.85).

This situation partly reflects a relative under-financing of education at that time. Despite the fact that education harnessed 20.6 percent of recurrent public expenditure, the financial effort for the sector (the amount of total education spending financed on domestic resources, as a percentage of GDP) was under 2 percent in many countries. On average, primary education was allocated just under half of spending, and secondary (including TVET) received 30 percent. Public primary education was characterized by fairly crowded classes (PTR of 46:1), and non-teaching salary spending represented a quarter of recurrent expenditure.

Progress Achieved

Over the EFA period, the resource mobilization context improved, national income reaching 21 percent of GDP, and education sectors' allocation reaching 22.8 percent of recurrent public expenditure on average by 2012. Despite this favorable context, public unit costs have dropped, marginally for primary (- 4 percent), and more significantly for secondary – including TVET (- 10 percent). These reductions are mainly explained by lower average teacher remuneration in units of GDP per capita, resulting from building a new contract teacher workforce, less well paid than civil servants, but also from the greater number of children enrolled in school.

The progress made in SSA towards the six goals set at Dakar in 2000 is noteworthy. The value of the African EFA development index, a synthetic indicator that reflects three key dimensions of EFA, increased from 38.3 to 57.1, by 50 percent. However, it should also be noted that most goals will not be achieved by 2015:

- Preprimary education has grown considerably, the GER having virtually doubled, from 11 percent to 20 percent, but remains modest in the light of the proven impact that the schooling of young children has on their schooling careers and results.
- The majority of countries now provides primary access to all their children, and two thirds of a generation reach the end of this level (primary completion rate of 67 percent), against under half in 2000. Nevertheless, only nine countries had achieved UPE in 2012, and a tenth should achieve it by 2015.

- Secondary level enrollment has also been consolidated, although to a lesser degree, access to the lower cycle having progressed from 32 percent to 49 percent and upper secondary completion from 10 percent to 17 percent. This progress is partly due to the general rise in primary access.
- Efforts to respond to the educational needs of youth have translated into the greater development of TVET. In 2012, the share this subsector represented of total secondary enrollment was 15 percent higher than in 2000. Given the growth of the latter, TVET enrollment has virtually doubled in real terms, from 356 to 606 learners per 100,000 inhabitants.
- In addition to the efforts deployed to reach UPE, literacy and nonformal education have produced significant results in terms of the adult literacy rate, which has progressed by approximately 10 percentage points over the period, from 58 percent to 69 percent, even if it still falls short of the set target, of 87 percent.
- Gender parity in primary education is the goal that has come closest to its target (GPI of 0.94 in 2012, against 0.85 in 2000), but in a dozen countries the GPI is still under the 0.90 mark (unfavorable to girls). Furthermore, gender disparities are more pronounced at higher levels (GPI of 0.84 for upper secondary and of 0.74 for higher education), and social and geographical disparities are considerable.
- Higher education has seen strong growth over the period. On average in SSA, the number of students per 100,000 inhabitants has almost tripled (from 217 to 636).
- Quality, whether assessed by the level of learning outcomes or through the primary survival rate, is clearly still of an average to low level.

The marked focus on primary in countries' early EFA sector plans, especially on its quantitative development, gave way in the mid-term to greater consideration for postprimary cycles and educational quality. Indeed, the development of primary generated demand for further education that spread energetically as far as higher education. National education policies then started to promote basic education, generally towards the end of the period. Furthermore, this very growth of primary sometimes occurred at the expense of teaching quality.

Some countries, whose education status was weak in 2000, have not managed to close the gap in a timeframe that is in fact fairly short for structural reforms. Their situation has nevertheless considerably improved and they have often achieved more than ever before during this first EFA period.

The analysis by regions has highlighted the following findings:

- West Africa: It is often within this region that progress has been the greatest, in part due to the low baseline level. This is the case of adult literacy and gender parity among others, and is reflected in the evolution of the EDI. However, serious learning issues persist, particularly in reading according to the PASEC.
- East Africa: The development of TVET, whose coverage was limited in 2000, has been particularly momentous. Gender parity has been achieved at the primary level (GPI of 0.95). According to the SACMEQ test results, this region boasts the highest level of educational quality.

- Southern Africa: General EFA performance is the highest of all SSA regions. Among others, literacy levels are the highest (81.1 percent on average) and primary gender parity has been achieved (GPI of 0.97). However, according to the SACMEQ assessments, results are mixed in reading, and poor in math.
- Central Africa: It is within this region that TVET is most developed. PASEC results suggest that educational quality is above average, particularly in math.

Efforts Deployed

These results have been achieved in great part thanks to broad national commitment to EFA, which countries consider to have been high. Mobilization for UPE has been widespread, reflecting high levels of engagement at the political, education sector, social, family and donor levels, as well as in terms of financing. The holistic nature of the EFA goals has led SSA countries to review their national education goals, to incorporate sectors and beneficiaries that were not systematically covered previously. Some adjustments were made to respond to the needs of these new learners, such as the incorporation of a *Grade Zero* to primary schools, to strengthen preprimary education, or the promotion of private sector participation in providing apprenticeships, to develop the supply of technical and vocational training.

This has generated the organizational restructuring of education ministries, and intense sector and subsector planning activity in most countries, to reshape education policies and strategies. In addition to the increase and improvement of school infrastructure and equipment, other key factors of progress mentioned by countries are:

- Curricular reform, to make content more relevant to local needs or incorporate competency-based approaches;
- The strengthening of sector management, be it at the central or school levels;
- The systemization of the assessment of learning outcomes, through standardized tests;
- Quality control, in particular via academic inspections;
- Education management and information systems, to improve policy elaboration and monitoring;
- Community participation, through multiple initiatives whose cost-benefit ratio has proven to be worthwhile; and
- Public-private partnerships.

Furthermore, awareness has been generated with respect to the importance of education demand-side factors, and numerous initiatives have been born to reinforce them, in particular through population sensitization activities and school feeding programmes.

Constraints Faced

The broad expansion of education coverage has however faced a considerable constraint in terms of resources, in particular national ones. This has limited the activities carried out to improve education supply, not only in terms of infrastructure and the recruitment and training of teachers, but affecting

all educational inputs. In addition, new imbalances in education systems have also been created, and new challenges have emerged:

- The quality of teaching and learning outcomes is clearly the area that most needs redressing at this point, after the heavy focus on access over the period. This is considered more a new priority area than a failure.
- Providing educational or economic opportunities to the greater number of primary leavers is of growing concern.
- A conjunction of issues related to efficient sector resource use also stands out from countries' voiced opinions as being a priority. On the one hand, national education and training sectors are unable to harness significant parts of their budgets due to the complexity of disbursement procedures. On the other, the internal efficiency of education systems shows clear scope for improvement, as dropout and repetition levels remain high.
- The low level of teacher motivation, related to status, salary or posting, is highlighted as a prominent factor of failure, impacting on absenteeism levels, effective learning time and the relevance of teaching.
- The need to strengthen intersectoral coordination is equally noted.

To lift these constraints, there is real awareness of the need to improve education systems' management, steering and governance arrangements to increase access, equity and quality. This wish takes shape along the lines of elaborating effective teacher policies, defining more balanced school maps, implementing more precise monitoring and evaluation tools, reinforcing academic inspections and involving communities in the monitoring of quality and the management of schools. The question is not always about spending more, but spending more effectively. Many countries also point out the need to develop information, education and communication (IEC) campaigns and activities, as well as parental education, to support the achievement of several EFA goals.

Future Sector Priorities

In terms of sector priorities, it is clear that the six EFA goals continue to be considered relevant. In particular, the renewal of the 2000-15 EFA beacon goal of universal primary education is unquestioned. However, the enrollment paradigm is inverted: the aim is no longer to increase enrollment, but to reduce out-of-school.

Equity therefore becomes a priority goal in its own right, well beyond the gender parity imperative. For this, a new awareness is emerging, that more precise targeting approaches will be required, as well as the elaboration of learning materials that are appropriate, in their content and their language, as well as the training of facilitators with specific competencies and the adaptation of infrastructure to cater for children with special educational needs.

Nevertheless, the improvement of quality features most often among countries' top five priorities for the future, and by a significant margin, now being considered important by a greater number of

countries than universal primary education. It will be necessary to better focus efforts in this direction, by targeting teaching practices and learning outcomes, in particular in math and science subjects.

Furthermore, early childhood care and education is now a priority for as many countries as UPE, and adult literacy remains an ongoing concern. Gender parity, where progress has been most apparent in recent years, is seldom mentioned specifically, even if it is often included in terms of UPE, equity in a broader sense, or quality.

SSA countries therefore anticipate several adjustments to sector priorities, which are indeed reflected in the international community's vision of post-2015 EFA, consigned in the Muscat Agreement of 2014:

- To promote youth employment, a great stake for SSA countries. The development of technical and vocational competences is considered to be elemental. Countries therefore wish to strengthen and revalorize the role of TVET, including modules on entrepreneurship, and ensure greater complementarity between postprimary streams.
- In terms of opportunities for education system leavers, countries also wish to incorporate the issue of national economic development in any future framework.
- Although higher education is only mentioned by a few of the countries having participated in the surveys upon which this study is based, the importance of this sector for them is considerable.
- Finally, there is a tangible interest in the deployment of information and communication technologies, both for sector management purposes and for the provision of teaching and training.

The Shape of a New EFA Framework

The 2000-15 EFA framework, defined here as the activities deployed to promote and finance EFA, both at the national and international levels, has been a resounding success. The great majority of SSA countries agree that the framework reflected their visions for the development of their national education systems, while guiding the definition and implementation of education policies, the set goals being considered relevant to their national development and accompanied by measureable targets. Furthermore, they consider that EFA has:

- Provided guidance and encouragement for the elaboration of sector strategies;
- Constituted a channel for the technical and financial support of TFPs;
- Enabled the production of research and diagnoses, as a basis for the planning, targeting, development and implementation of education programmes;
- Favored the commitment and active participation of social players, as well as greater synergies in their activities; and
- Motivated countries efforts, to make the greatest possible progress towards ambitious targets.

It is therefore not surprising that all countries having responded to the 2014 EFA survey aspire to the creation of a new EFA framework to guide their post-2015 education policies. However, no country

simply wishes to see the existing framework extended. In addition to the adjustment of goals to reflect the aforementioned evolution in sector priorities, some of the changes that countries wish to see in the new framework are:

- Greater flexibility in the formulation of goals and targets, to provide scope to fully reflect national strategies and better respond to the particular development issues, challenges and constraints that each country faces;
- Ongoing simplification and harmonization of donor procedures, particularly in terms of fund disbursements. Indeed, the bureaucracy involved in accessing such funds is unwieldy, and complicates and delays programme implementation;
- Greater transparency in terms of the conditions to access external financing. Many countries feel that the international community has not honored its commitments, with donor support falling short of expectations;
- Greater technical support, particularly in terms of more regular and local monitoring of EFA policies; and
- Potentially, conditionality in terms of the clear demonstration of national political will, particularly in terms of resources. It has been suggested that a minimum level of national investment should be a condition to benefit from external aid.

These wishes, that expose certain frustrations with the 2000-15 EFA framework, generally reflect the high expectations that it created and countries' strong will to align their education targets with its goals, in a very ambitious fashion.

The timeframes mentioned by countries to achieve their post-2015 education priorities and goals vary vastly. A third of the countries having indicated a timeframe in 2014 position themselves in the long term, mentioning horizons of 10 years or more; a further third of countries is positioned in the medium term, with horizons of 5 to 10 years, and a slightly smaller group of countries is banking on shorter-term results, with timeframes of 3 to 5 years.

Case Studies

1: THE APPROACH ADOPTED BY GHANA REGARDING EFA GOAL 1 - Experience in Early Childhood Care and Education

At the dawn of the 21st century Ghana joined the rest of the world to expand and improve comprehensive early childhood care and education (ECCE) with emphasis on the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children. The 2002/03 annual school census indicated preschool gross enrolment (GER) was just 21.8 percent; private sector participation was 32 percent. The government paid the salaries of teachers in the few schools that had kindergartens. In the Education Strategic Plan for 2003-15, the government indicted that preschool was critical to the development of human capital. Despite all reforms recommending the expansion of ECCE, the political will to expand services in all basic schools was not strong enough, and the state faced a significant constraint in terms of financial resources.

In its Education Strategic Plan (ESP) for the 2003-15 period, Ghana decided to reform ECCE and fully integrate two years of kindergarten education into the formal education system, establishing the targets of attaining gross enrolment (GER) of 100 percent and to achieving gender parity of 1.0 at the kindergarten level. The ESP also proposed a review of the kindergarten curriculum and teacher training.

Actions

In 2002 the Ghanaian government published a white paper that redefined basic education as an eleven-year programme, including two years of kindergarten education, in addition to six years of primary and three years of junior high school education, to enhance management and transition. This allowed preschools to benefit from capitation grants and enrollment at this level increased exponentially. In addition, the following actions were undertaken:

- Development and adoption of a comprehensive Early Childhood Care and Development (ECCD) Policy, launched in August 2004, whose broad goal is to promote the survival, growth, development and protection of children aged 0 to 8 years;
- The establishment of a National Steering Committee for ECCD, as well as regional, district and community ECCD committees all over the country;
- The development of a Five-Year Quality Operational Kindergarten Plan for scaling up efforts;

Curricula, pedagogical approaches and teaching and learning materials

- A review of the syllabus to reflect the new basic education structure and the number of subjects at each level;
- The elaboration of Early Learning and Development Standards (ELDS) and curricula for children in the Kindergarten age group (4-5 years), printed and disseminated nationwide;
- A review of the mode of assessment and of teaching methods at the kindergarten level. Emphasis was placed on literacy, numeracy, creative arts and play;

- The development of a Teaching and Learning Materials Programme (TLMP) and National Accelerated Literacy Programme (NALAP), providing teachers with teaching and learning materials and guides to teach pupils from kindergarten grade 1 to primary Grade 3 in the local language;

Partnerships and Communication

- Strengthened partnership between public and private sectors;
- Increased participation of civil society and support of the Development Partners' community, in the framework of the ECCD Policy. This promoted various actors' ownership of the endeavor of giving children the opportunity of "starting it right;"
- Sensitization campaigns at the community levels with emphasis on inclusive education, contributing to mainstream kindergarten children with mild disabilities;
- Provision of kindergarten model classrooms with ancillary facilities, under the child-friendly school concept, contributing to further enrollment of children with mild disabilities;

ECCD Teacher Training

- Incorporation of kindergarten methodologies and delivery in the curricula of Colleges of Education that train basic-level school teachers. In 2007, a training workshop was held for College of Education tutors and a subject panel was set up to incorporate kindergarten pedagogical approaches into the CoE curriculum;
- Introduction of accelerated training programmes for kindergarten caregivers and provision of training for untrained teachers and newly recruited caregivers. Seven Colleges of Education pursuing ECCD and the National Nursery Teachers Training Centre in Accra were used to accelerate the transformation of untrained teachers into trained ECCD professionals; and
- Further expansion of ECCD training services, including:
 - Provision of preservice training by two accredited universities, with degree, postgraduate, diploma and certificate courses. Seven of the 38 Colleges of Education have been identified to run special ECCD courses;
 - Provision of in-service training-by the National Nursery Teachers' Training Centre, that organizes an eight-week programme for ECCD teachers and educators; and
 - Development of 12 modules for both preservice and in-service teacher training.

Results

The kindergarten GER increased from 21.8 percent in the 2002/03 school year to 123 percent for 2013/14, surpassing the target of 100 percent ahead of 2015, registering an increase of more than 100 percentage points. Enrollment numbers grew from 769,000 in 2002/03 to over 1.2 million in 2013/14. Most of this growth occurred in the public sector, so that the private sector participation rate dropped from 32 percent to 23.5 percent. The percentage of trained ECCD teachers increased from 25.2 percent in 2003/04 to 55 percent in 2013/04. The increase in enrollment far exceeded that in the number of new schools and structures however, leading to a rise in the pupil-classroom or pupil-teacher ratio, from 27:1 to 35:1 over the decade.

Outlook

The Fast-Track Transformational Teacher Training Initiative (FTTTTI) aims to deliver the preservice training component of the Five-Year Operational Plan to scale up quality kindergarten education in Ghana. It is currently being implemented in two districts of the Central Region, namely the Komenda, Edina, Eguafo, Abirem (KEEA) District and Cape Coast Municipality, in partnership with the Ghana Education Service, the Our Lady of Assumption (OLA) College of Education and the Sabre Trust. Its aim is to improve the delivery of the current Ghana kindergarten curriculum, which emphasizes active teaching and learning methodologies where children learn through a thematic approach focusing on play. Mentoring and coaching forms an integral part of this approach. The Programme combines preservice and in-service training. It also creates a network of Model practice classrooms to provide high quality 3rd year placements for ECCD diploma students.



Source: Basic Education Division, Ghana Education Service, July 2014 (Edited version).

2: THE APPROACH ADOPTED BY ZAMBIA REGARDING EFA GOAL 2 - Experience in Universal Primary Education

The 2010 population and housing census set the Republic of Zambia's population at over 13 million, with 60.5 percent in rural areas and 42.3 percent living in extreme poverty. More importantly, 45.4 percent were aged under 15 years, with approximately 4 million of primary school age. Close to 0.7 percent of school-aged girls become pregnant each year. Primary enrollment stood at 1.63 million in 2000 and the primary completion rate (PCR) was 63 percent. The national literacy rate for people over 15 was just 55.3 percent. A host of factors were responsible for these indicators, in particular extreme poverty, the high cost of education, high pupil-teacher ratios and long distances to school.

To improve primary coverage, a massive increase school infrastructure was required. The government planned to build 10,000 new classrooms and rehabilitate 4,500 existing ones. To enable pupils to achieve functional literacy, and provide for greater enrollment levels, teacher training was to be significantly increased. In both respects, the urban-rural imbalance required redressing. Finally, school environments needed to be more attractive to reduce dropout rates.

Action and Results

To achieve these goals, the MoE Strategic Plan for 2003-07 was harnessed, and for the 2008-15 period, three successive National Implementation Frameworks were developed and implemented.

Policy Frameworks

A number of initiatives were introduced, such as

- Free (although not compulsory) primary education, in 2002;
- A re-entry policy for girls to return to school after bearing children;
- The provision of alternative modes of education, such the Interactive Radio Instruction, with the distribution of radio receivers to disadvantaged communities;
- The reintroduction of evening classes for adult learners;
- The uniform policy, which no longer compelled children to wear uniforms at school; and
- The primary school feeding programme, for over 800,000 pupils in disadvantaged areas.

Infrastructure

The government embarked on a massive programme of school construction, particularly in rural areas, to reduce the distance to school. US\$ 370 million was earmarked for capital expenditure (2003-07), of which 54 percent was for the primary sub-sector (up from 30 percent in 2001).

An average of 1,500 classrooms were built annually countrywide, based on a community participation model to ensure cost-effectiveness, effectively cutting the cost to a third of that of contractors. The District Education Office, working in consultation with the Provincial Education Office and traditional leaders, would select sites for classroom/school construction, and supervise civil works through their qualified buildings officer. Communities participated with unskilled labor, provided locally available building materials such as stones, sand and water, and molded bricks. The procurement of building materials and skilled labor was assured by a Project Coordinating Committee, appointed by the local community. New classrooms and teachers' houses were also built.

School environments were improved through the construction of weekly boarding facilities, ventilated improved pit (VIP) latrines, the sinking of boreholes for clean and safe drinking water, as well as the introduction of child-friendly corners, among others.

Teacher Provision

Each year, 4,000 qualified primary teachers were recruited on average, to cater for newly created schools and expand existing establishments, in addition to those recruited to compensate for attrition. Teacher training colleges embarked on the fast-track Zambia Teacher Education Course (ZATEC) programme, enabling students to have a year of college tuition and a year of teaching practice in schools. This internship formula helped to solve challenges related to staff numbers, as teacher training college enrollment and output doubled.

Community Participation

The introduction of community schools played a fundamental role in the increase in the primary completion rate. They mainly target disadvantaged and rural areas where families are poor or where no regular government schools exist. They are run by community members and the teachers (many of whom are untrained) usually work voluntarily or for small stipends.

Nearly 18 percent of primary pupils are enrolled in community schools. In 2012, 2,642 (or 31.6 percent) of the 8,359 primary schools were community schools, compared to 1,086 in 2003 (of a total of 5,773). As with government schools, registered community schools are provided with grants, and some are provided with infrastructure.

Support from Cooperating Partners

Overall, cooperating Partners' support has enhanced the achievement of universal primary education, through direct budget support, projects and programmes. In addition, advocacy and sensitization activities in communities, particularly on the need to keep girls in school, were conducted with the support of civil society organizations. Development assistance to the education sector has been relatively low since 2009 however. In 2013, just 1.2 percent of the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education's total budget of ZMW 5.619 billion (US\$ 904 million) was externally financed. In 2014, this share rose to approximately 2.7 percent of the budget, the main sector donors being Irish Aid, UNICEF, JICA and DFID.

In 2013, the Global Partnership for Education approved an application for US\$ 35.2 million funding, for the 2011-15 period, with DFID as the supervising entity, and USAID has also pledged support. These new contributions will have a further positive effect on the ministry's programme execution, such as the roll-out of the new curriculum, the procurement of teaching and learning materials and teacher training.

Impact

In the period under review, enrollment levels nearly doubled, to over 3 million children in 2012, representing a 93 percent rise. Consequently, the PCR reached nearly 94 percent in 2012, and the literacy rate for people over 5 years increased by 15 percentage points to 70.2 percent in 2010. However, literacy rates in rural areas is still lower (60.5 percent) than in urban areas (83.8 percent).

Some unintended results were also noted. The rapid increase in enrollment was not matched by the adequate supply of teaching and learning materials (in some subjects up to five pupils share a book). Despite the increase in teacher recruitment, the primary PTR dropped only marginally, from 54:1 in 2001 to 52:1 in 2012, due in part to high teacher HIV&AIDS-related attrition, before retro-viral therapy became freely available. Overcrowding, mostly in urban schools, resulted in reduced pupil/teacher contact time, further compromising the quality of education (average contact currently stands at 3.6 hours per day for Grades 1-4, and 5.1 hours per day for Grades 5-7). Finally, the increase in the PCR in Zambia was not matched by a concomitant increase in secondary school capacity, resulting in low transition rates.

Despite the commendable progress in gender parity and in increasing access to primary education over the past 14 years, more than 400,000 Ghanaian school-aged children are still out of school.

Lessons Learned

The deliberate decision to focus the expansion of education facilities in rural and remote areas has made the provision of education more equitable, and is expected to have a compounded effect on national standards of living. However, owing to the harsh conditions of service, teacher deployment and retention, particularly for women, is an issue in these areas. In this context, community participation is all the more important, especially as it is noted that schools built by communities benefit from a greater sense of ownership, and are less vandalized.

When children are provided with food at school, attendance and completion rates increase, not to mention the improvement of children's nutrition in a context of widespread poverty.

Although Zambia is close to achieving the MDG and EFA goals in terms of access, this alone is not adequate unless accompanied by the provision of quality education, which is cause for concern:

- The National Assessment Reports (up to 2008) of Grade 5 learners indicate that: i) academic performance has fallen below 40 percent and is stagnant; and ii) only a minority of learners reach the minimum literacy and numeracy standards and fewer still attain the desired levels.
- The SACMEQ assessments of Grade 6 learners place the performance of Zambian learners close to the regional minimum. In 2007, the average reading (434) and mathematics scores (435) were below the average (512 and 510, respectively), with little progress since 2000.
- Pass rates at Grade 9 and 12 examinations exhibit a similar trend.

More effort is now being applied in improving reading and numeracy skills of children in the very early grades, on enhancing teachers' skills, and in the use of familiar languages for learning, while maintaining English as the lingua franca for both schools and the nation.

3: THE APPROACH ADOPTED BY RWANDA REGARDING EFA GOAL 2 - Fast Tracking Access to Quality Education through the 9YBE Programme

Historically, access to education in Rwanda was limited and discriminatory, contributing to deepen social divisions through ethnic and regional admission policy biases and a curriculum entrenching stereotypes. This was one of the factors contributing to the 1994 genocide (over one million people were massacred, over two million fled abroad and one million were internally displaced), which had a devastating impact on education, in terms of the suffering and psychological impact on pupils, teachers, and communities, and in the degradation of the education system and its infrastructure.

In 2000, the primary completion rate (PCR) was just 20 percent. In addition to redressing this alarming situation, post-1994 education set out to be an instrument of peace and reconciliation, to overcome past ethnic, regional, national and religious prejudices. Universal Primary Education (UPE) was introduced in 2003, with the abolition of school fees and the provision of capitation grants for primary schools. By 2008, the success of UPE had created a heightened demand for lower secondary education and the government considered it a priority to increase fee-free access. However, given resource constraints, unconventional approaches had to be devised.

Fast-Tracking Access to Quality Basic Education: The 9YBE Programme

The *Nine Years Basic Education* (9YBE) programme was built on the government's long-term strategic development plans as per the Economic Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy 2013-18, and designed to meet EFA Goal 2. Its implementation required broad sector reform:

- Between 500 and 1,000 new classrooms (or 50 schools) needed to be built each year between 2009 and 2015;
- The curricula needed reform to reflect the country's dynamic educational and socio-economic challenges and provide learning continuity from Grade 1 to 9 in the 9YBE context;
- Teachers required training to acquire greater skills (in 2008, only 8.3 percent of secondary school teachers were qualified) and apply learner-centered teaching methods.

Rapid school infrastructure development

An innovative strategy was developed in 2008 to fast track the school construction programme and rapidly increase access without compromising quality. Task forces were created, including an inter-ministerial steering committee at the national level. Rwanda's decentralized governance system was a key success factor, with implementing committees created at the local and school levels. Intense sensitization of the school construction programme was undertaken through meetings involving the political leadership down to the grassroots levels, the media and parent-teacher committees, which were key in mobilizing parents and the community.

Community participation was indeed a central pillar in this process. The 9YBE fast-tracking strategies were discussed within the local community development framework known as *Umuganda*. The community-based approach to school construction achieved rapid results, by drawing upon local

skills, knowledge and resources, as well as encouraging local ownership. It also ensured the efficient use of resources: new classrooms cost just 4 million Rwanda francs, cutting the cost by half.

This approach yielded spectacular results: 8,000 new classrooms and 20,000 latrines were built within three years, four years ahead of schedule. The savings, an estimated US\$ 49 million, allowed for additional investments in teacher training, quality-related inputs and fund transfers to districts to support the education of children from needy families.

Strategic Realignment of Curricula, Course Content, Textbooks and School Management

Further revisions are underway to the curriculum reform of 1996-98, to respond to the educational needs of the 9YBE programme, to be completed by December 2014. In the mean time, the decentralization of the procurement of teaching and learning materials allows schools to choose the quantity and type of textbooks and materials they require, and for these to be delivered directly, saving on delivery time and costs.

In 2009, the government switched the medium of instruction to English, from Grade 4 onwards, having noted the importance of English for business, education, ICT development, and closer integration with the East African Community (EAC) and Commonwealth countries.

Three combined strategies particularly contributed to improve the quality of education while expanding access: (i) double shifting, separating the teaching day into morning and afternoon shifts, with different students attending each; (ii) the reduction of the number of core courses by half (from about 10 to 5), to increase the number of hours a child spends per subject and allow more in depth coverage of the syllabus; and (iii) teacher specialization in specific subjects, to rationalize the use of the existing teaching workforce in the short-run.

The combination of these approaches reduced class sizes by half, improved pupil-teacher ratios, and impacted on the quality of learning by allowing teachers to concentrate on fewer subjects, with greater knowledge and confidence, as well as to focus their attention on individual students and monitor their performance. It also enabled the more efficient use of scarce teachers by increasing schools' flexibility to create their time tables, in turn allowing them to reduce teacher numbers, saving on recruitment, recurrent salary spending and ultimately, on classroom construction.

These strategies increased the demands on teachers and entailed some redeployment. To maintain motivation, an incentive package was introduced: a credit and cooperative savings organization was established, providing subsidized loans, and a teacher housing programme was launched.

Teacher Training

These strategies had a fundamental impact on teacher training. The capacity of existing pre-service primary teacher training colleges was increased and two new lower secondary teacher colleges were opened. A distance learning programme was introduced to impart pedagogical skills to unqualified primary teachers, and expatriate teacher trainers were recruited from neighboring countries to both train teachers and mentor local teacher trainers. Course content moved from subject-related training to subject cluster training, to reflect the specialization policy.

Short intensive face-to-face English training courses were organized for all primary and secondary teachers during their long holidays. Over 700 Rwandan mentors were recruited and given a training of trainers' course; they help teachers improve their English language skills throughout the year.

Impact of the 9YBE

The 9YBE programme faced considerable challenges, to develop effective implementation strategies for the large-scale investment in improved quality, expanded capacity, and managed growth, on the basis of a nationwide community-based approach, and considering limited capacities in local planning and implementation.

Nevertheless, the full-scale implementation of the programme was achieved in January 2009, six years ahead of the 2015 target. In addition to the expansion of school infrastructure, its impact is reflected in the rapid improvement in primary and lower secondary education indicators: (i) the total number of primary students increased from 1.48 million in 2000/01 to 2.24 million in 2011, and the primary net enrolment rate increased from 91.2 percent in 2003 to 96.5 percent in 2012 (98 percent for girls and 95 percent for boys); (ii) the transition rates to lower and upper secondary reached 94 percent in 2010; (iii) the basic education completion rate rose from 52.5 percent in 2008 to 78.6 percent in 2011; and (iv) both repetition and dropout rates dropped, to 12.7 percent and 10.9 percent respectively, in 2011.

Lessons Learned

The sustainability of the 9YBE programme was largely made possible through the ownership of the programme by communities, through their role in the design and construction of durable infrastructure, increased participation in school management and their general involvement in school affairs. Top leadership commitment, the strong decentralization policy and functional and broadly participative decentralization structures, sensitization and public awareness, team work, effective vertical and horizontal communication and extensive preliminary strategy research and studies were also critical to success. With respect to school management (in particular the double shifting, core course reduction and teacher specialization strategies), the combination was key for the achievement of results: double shifting would not save on teachers without specialization, and if implemented without a reduction of core courses, would have reduced the quality of education.

The continued improvement in quality, access, participation and completion implies the ongoing prioritisation of the sector and increased investment in education at all levels, despite competing budget priorities.

Building on its success, the 9YBE programme was extended to 12 years of basic education in 2012. In 2014, the first cohort of students who started UPE in 2003 and progressed through the 9YBE and 12YBE will complete upper secondary school.

4: THE APPROACH ADOPTED BY MAINLAND TANZANIA REGARDING EFA GOAL 3 - Extending the Scope and Coverage of Complementary Basic Education

Before the turn of the new millennium, an estimated 2.5 million primary school-aged children were out-of-school in mainland Tanzania. Some of the reasons attributed to this situation include early pregnancies and marriages, poverty, long distances to school, parents' negative perception of the importance of education, nomadic lifestyles and child labor. More importantly, low efficiency in some primary schools contributed to dropout. Children with disabilities are adversely affected, representing only 0.3 percent of enrollment in 2012/13.

The education prospects of these out-of-school children were further dashed by a new policy directive included in the Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP), whereby only children of official school age (7-10 years) would be entitled to enroll in primary Standard I, as a measure to encourage timely schooling and combat illiteracy.

Offering a Second Chance of Education to Out-of-School Youth: The COBET Programme

The Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania (COBET) programme was launched in 1999 to complement formal primary schooling in the delivery of education to out-of-school children aged 11 to 18 years, to ensure the right to basic education was universal, in line with Tanzania's values and development goals. It began as a pilot project in five districts (Kisarawe, Masasi, Musoma, Ngara and Songea). Not only did the programme provide children who had missed out on formal primary schooling or those who had dropped out with a second chance of education, but it demonstrated an ability to provide full basic education to children in a reduced timeframe, proving to be very cost-effective. It was also a spring board for the concept of child-friendly school environments.

The initiative was scaled up countrywide in 2003/04, in the framework of the Medium-Term Strategy for Adult and Nonformal Education (2003/04 – 2007/08). This was initially planned as a short-term measure, to clear the backlog of out-of-school children.

The COBET programme caters for two age groups: Cohort One for children aged 11-13 years and Cohort Two for children aged 14-18 years. Cohort One learners study for two to three years before sitting the National Standard IV Examination; if successful, they are mainstreamed into a formal primary school Standard V class. Cohort Two learners study for three years before sitting the Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE); if successful, they are mainstreamed into formal secondary education.

Study sessions are conducted in premises identified and prepared by communities, such as primary school classrooms, local government offices, or church-owned and community buildings, according to a flexible time-table. This has contributed to the low capital costs of the programme. Each learning center provides teaching by two facilitators: a primary school teacher, in addition to her/his formal teaching duties, and a para-professional facilitator who follows a special two-week training course. Both are paid a modest motivational stipend by the government.

The COBET curriculum is tailored to the real learning needs of learners, both rural and urban, not only providing academic competences equivalent to those of formal primary education, but also life skills, literacy and vocational training. Each cohort sits five core subjects, totaling 35 periods per week, in line with national standards: communication skills (Kiswahili and English), *Maarifa* (general knowledge), *Hisabati* (math), *Stadi za Kazi* (vocational skills training) and *Ujenzi wa Haiba* (personality building).

The Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (MoEVT) is responsible for curriculum development, pedagogical materials (textbooks and teacher guides in all subjects have been developed, printed and distributed), training facilitators (3,392 teachers, both professional and paraprofessional, have been trained in learner-centered methodologies to teach COBET classes), monitoring progress, assessing Cohort One learners' achievements, inspecting activities and evaluation. MoEVT, through the National Examination Council of Tanzania (NECTA) is also responsible for the assessment of Cohort Two learners' achievements. Local Government Authorities are responsible for the day-to-day oversight of the learning centers and the payment of facilitators' monthly allowances. Modules for decentralized planning have been developed, printed and distributed to districts to guide planning, coordination, monitoring and evaluation, and a total of 220 district and ward coordinators have been trained to coordinate adult and nonformal education programmes, including COBET. All of these activities are centrally financed by the government through the annual budget.

Results

The programme's initial enrollment target was to reach 617,131 out-of-school children (234,331 Cohort One children and 382,800 Cohort Two youth). In fact, up to 500,000 Cohort One learners and over 350,000 Cohort Two learners had benefitted from the programme by 2013.

Enrolment of COBET Learners, 2004-13

	Cohort One		Cohort Two
	Average in 2 years	Average in 3 years	Average in 3 years
2003	—	—	
2004	213,360	192,489	198,791
2005			
2006	130,109	77,256	94,318
2007			
2008	61,149	51,501	39,972
2009			
2010	52,605	54,029	21,469
2011			
2012	51,661	54,029	21,469
2013			
Total	508,884	375,275	354,550

Source: Stock-Taking Report, 2002; BEST 2004–12; AE/NFE Evaluation Report.

As can be observed in the table, the enrollment of learners in COBET learning centers for both Cohorts shows a gradual downward trend over time. This suggests that the number of out-of-school

children in the communities has diminished as a result of parents sending their children to formal primary schools. Further successes include:

- An average of 86 percent of Cohort One COBET learners are mainstreamed into Standard V;
- A total of 5,021 Cohort Two COBET learners passed the PSLE and enrolled in formal secondary schools. Others joined vocational training centers started work;
- Some COBET learning centers have grown into fully fledged primary schools as a result of enrolling many out-of-school children from their neighborhoods every year;
- The implementation of the COBET curriculum influenced the adaptation of the primary education curriculum in order to become more child-friendly and use participatory teaching and learning methodologies.

Challenges, Lessons Learned and Outlook

Despite the achievements, the effective and efficient provision of education to all school-aged children (7-18 years) is still challenged by a significant number of out-of-school children (estimated at 1.7 million). Other related challenges are the improvement of the quality of education in schools and nonformal education centers; further enhancing community awareness of the importance of education; financing, to meet the costs of materials, training and teacher allowances to motivate them and increase their commitment; and follow-up and assessment.

The COBET programme has proven effective in addressing the plight of socially, economically and culturally disadvantaged children. More than a temporary measure, the programme has become a permanent intervention to cater for the learning needs of children from disadvantaged environments, school drop outs and slow learners. This is in part due to its cost-effectiveness: children can acquire the intended learning in two to three years instead of the seven required by formal primary education.

In recognition of the importance of COBET and similar interventions, the government of Tanzania has incorporated the COBET programme in the Literacy and Numeracy Support (LANES) project, for implementation from 2014/15 to 2016/17. It is expected that through this project, some 50,400 out-of-school children will benefit countrywide. Furthermore, the Integrated Post Primary Education (IPPE) programme has been established and is now being piloted in seven districts, integrating pre-vocational and secondary education, for youth graduating from COBET centers, especially girls. Given the results, the government must continue to set aside a significant budget for the COBET programme.

5: THE APPROACH ADOPTED BY ANGOLA REGARDING EFA GOAL 3 - Expanding Access to TVET and Lifeskills Training

At the time of the World Education Forum in April 2000, the Republic of Angola continued to face a widespread situation of political-military instability, which affected overall education system performance, structurally and transversally, in terms of access, equity and quality. Peace was consolidated over the 2002-04 period, enabling the definition of plans, programmes and projects for sustainable development, such as the National Development Plan that set national goals for the 2013-17 period.

In line with the recommendations of the 2nd International Congress on technical and vocational education held in Seoul in April 1999 and with the Dakar recommendations, this plan includes two priority and structural axes relating to EFA Goal 3, namely: (i) youth's access to the workplace; and (ii) the sustainable promotion and revalorization of human resources. Specific focus has been placed on expanding the public network of basic and intermediate technical training institutions. Indeed, in 2001 only 3 polytechnic institutes existed (2 in the province of Luanda, and 1 in Benguela).

Several institutions share the responsibility for public policies that address the educational needs of youth and adults, including (i) the Ministry of Education, which provides intermediate technical training; and (ii) the Ministry of Public Administration, Work and Social Security, with integrated and diversified basic vocational training processes, through the National Institute for Employment and Vocational Training.

Actions

The creation of Labor Force Access Groups (GIVAs) was promoted through the School-Enterprise Relations Policy, as well as thanks to public and private companies that promote vocational opportunities. The GIVAs, created within schools at the national and local levels, aim to support, inform, guide and accompany pupils in their schooling careers and in their transition from education to the workplace, encouraging their economic integration.

A topic on the art of entrepreneurship has been included in the secondary education curriculum, to provide pupils with the skills required to develop income generating activities.

Various partnerships have been developed since 2008 by the Ministry of Education, to promote the training, qualification and employment of youth and adolescents, with CHEVRON, UNDP and UNIDO, as well with the support of the governments of Portugal and the Republic of Korea. For instance, a partnership was established with the Angolan Industrial Association for a double training course, covering theory (in class) and practice (through internships), the association assuming the role of social partner in learners' training plans.

These efforts are currently being pursued through a number of initiatives that aim to improve both course content, and coverage.

The Nature of Training

To improve technical and vocational training programmes, the main initiatives have been to:

- Elaborate a plan for the design of new courses, aligned with the National Executive Training Plan and the Vocational Training Plan, with regional coverage that reflects local production and employment needs, and that tends to redress provincial-level disparities;
- Start to revise and update the technical and vocational training (TVT) reform plan; and
- Develop general foundations for technical and technological training, that link intermediate training with higher education and vocational training.

Expanding Training Supply

The implementation of these programmes implies, among others, the annual planning process of the preparation and launch of new courses, at the national and provincial levels; the planning of required infrastructure and equipment; and the recruitment and preparation of the required human resources. Key activities in this area include:

- The publication of a TVT Teaching Staff Status, to ensure that different players (teachers, directors, inspectors, administrators and other managers) receive ongoing training, and to link their career progression to the assessment of their performance and their professional and scientific qualifications;
- The promotion of specialized TVT officer training, by topic, nationwide, in pedagogical, didactic, technical and organizational areas;
- The assessment and analysis of employment opportunities for TVT leavers and their effective activities, through an information system and observatory; and
- The promotion of the diversification of public and private TVT promoters, in particular with the launch of new strategic courses.

There is moreover a national vocational training network, under the authority of the National Institute for Employment and Vocational Training, that comprises 560 centers, 182 of which are public (3 are rural) and 378 of which are private. They include, among others, Integrated Centers for Employment and Vocational Training, Rural Schools for Capacity-Building and Crafts, Integrated Technological Training Centers and Mobile Vocational Training Units.

Results

Despite the recent implementation of these initiatives, some results are already noteworthy:

- The number of public technical training institutes has risen from 3 in 2001 (in 2 provinces) to 97 in 2014 (in all 18 provinces), covering polytechnics, administration, management and services, agrarian sciences and health sciences;

- 52,587 youth have benefited from the public and private supply of technical and vocational training, preparing them for the challenges of economic and social integration (21,785 in intermediate training and 30,802 in basic training, including 9,919 women);
- Courses are now provided in urban, suburban and rural areas, to learners from all social backgrounds, and without discrimination in terms of potential specific educational needs;
- Opportunities for beneficiaries include access to higher education as well as the creation of small companies;
- Over the 2013-14 period, close to 5,000 new teachers were recruited, with a Bacalaureate or undergraduate university training;
- 35 mobile vocational training units have been created nationwide; and finally
- Seven lower and upper secondary schools have been built for the launch and expansion of training courses in 2015, in the provinces of Moxico, Malange, Cunene, Zaíre, Lunda Norte, Lunda Sul and Uíge.

	Trends			Targets
	2012	2013	2014	2017
New jobs created	105,000	190,000	250,000	417,000
Primary sector	20,700	70,000	120,000	176,000
Secondary sector	21,500	35,000	45,000	64,000
Tertiary sector	62,800	85,000	105,000	210,000
Unemployment rate	23.0%	22.0%	21.0%	19.0%
Technical training centers	84	93	97	94
Basic	11	13	13	
Intermediate	73	80	84	
Capacity (Number of learners)	37,650	40,662	43,915	55,320

Source: Ministry of Education, September 2014 (Edited version).

6: THE APPROACH ADOPTED BY NIGER REGARDING EFA GOAL 4 - Functional Literacy for Women

In Niger, women represent the majority of the illiterate population. Indeed, a 1985 assessment highlighted the fact that their specific training needs were not covered by literacy programmes. To rectify this situation, a “Women’s Literacy” office was created in 1986 and a specific functional literacy programme designed. Despite these arrangements, the situation did not change significantly, given that in 2000 Niger’s illiteracy rate was 80.1 percent, with marked disparities between women (85 percent) and men (57 percent).

With a literacy rate of 19.9 percent, Niger was particularly committed, in line with the EFA goals set in Dakar in 2000, to “improve adult literacy levels, and those of women in particular, by 50 percent by 2015, and provide all adults with equitable access to basic and ongoing education programmes.” The government therefore adopted the 10-year education development programme (*Programme décennal de développement de l’éducation* - PDDE) in 2003. The PDDE’s main goal is to “ensure that a universal, equitable and quality basic education system is widespread by 2013.”

The PDDE’s literacy and nonformal education (AENF) component includes goals to: increase the literacy rate, particularly in rural areas and among women; and improve the relevance of courses offered, in terms of vocational competencies and lifeskills. The achievement of these goals was to translate into: (i) the inclusion of 65 percent of women within the targets established for AENF activities; and (ii) the implementation of specific programmes for target beneficiary groups. This arrangement, coupled with others, was to achieve an improvement of the literacy rate, to reach 38 percent by 2013.

Actions

With the launch of the PDDE, a General Department for Literacy was created, comprising four technical units, including the Directorate for Literacy and Adult Education Programmes (DPAFA). The DPAFA reviewed the women’s literacy programme: (i) initially designed for a duration of four months, the length was extended to six months; (ii) themes relating to associative life and the management of income-generating activities were incorporated; (iii) in addition to French, programme materials were translated into five local languages (Hausa, Zarma, Fulfuldé, Kanuri and Tamajeq) to facilitate the broad adoption of the programme by women in rural areas.

This expansion has occurred in all eight regions, under national financing and with the support of key partners, including UNICEF and UNESCO. These were joined by the African Development Fund’s education programme, financed by the African Development Bank (ADB). With the support of this project, the construction and equipment of Ongoing Education Centers (*Foyers d’éducation permanente* - FEP) was launched. These centers provide appropriate frameworks for lifelong learning, and some guarantee of the sustainability of learning outcomes. The centers have provided

beneficiaries with their own facilities, not only to learn literacy, but also to practice their income-generating activities and improve their living conditions.

Throughout training, beneficiaries are organized into groups, which are formalized with the technical support of deconcentrated literacy services but on their own funds. They are endowed with legal documents (internal regulations and statutes) that determine their organization and operations, and the groups' management committee members are trained in associative life and management. Each group pursues the practical and productive activities learned during their training (sewing, embroidery and knitting) on an ongoing basis, thanks to the financial support received as well as to other lucrative activities. Minor contributions are levied from learners, which have enabled the programme to become sustainable.

Over time, the groups have become permanent autonomous, with their own suitable facilities (the FEPs), within which learning and practice activities are carried out. The teaching/learning activities are led by earlier beneficiaries, for a stipend or not, depending on whatever arrangement a given group agrees on.

Between 2001 and 2005, Niger experimented with a new approach that linked communities, the government and local players in the implementation of literacy programmes. This approach was led by the Canadian Center for Research and International Cooperation for the implementation of the Project Supporting Nonformal Education (*Projet d'appui à l'éducation non formelle* - PADENF), financed by the Canadian International Development Agency.

The same approach was adopted for the execution of the Development of Nonformal Education Programme (*Programme de développement de l'éducation non formelle* - PRODENF) component of the PDDE during its first phase. For this phase, fairly significant financing was mobilized, with the World Bank at the forefront. Several partners such as CARE International (through the national NGO Mata Masu Dubara), Catholic Relief Service and the Swiss Cooperation contributed to support communities. This enabled a high level of participation of women in literacy activities, from 2003 to 2007.

In 2008, a literacy programme budget line was created to redistribute the funds allocated to basic education. This initiative helped to better account for the literacy and nonformal education subsector. In the Education Policy Paper (2013-20) and the 2014-24 Education and Training Sector Programme (*Programme sectoriel de l'éducation et de la formation* - PSEF), new measures were adopted, such as the diversification of supply, considering specific target groups and the sustainability of outcomes with the construction and equipment of Ongoing Education Centers.

Every year, community sensitization campaigns on women's literacy and girls' education are organized. Facilitators are recruited and trained in line with the number of centers, which are equipped with teaching and learning materials.

Results

From 2003 to 2007, 128,370 of the 199,668 adults registered in literacy centers were women, or 64.3 percent. Over the 2012-13 period, 1,811 centers were opened, of which 793 are women-only (and 706 are mixed-gender). In 2013-14, 1,897 further centers were opened, of which 835 are women-only, and the building of 50 ongoing education centers is underway. Thanks to this:

- 131,100 women and young girls have received functional literacy training in the women-only centers;
- 2,201 groups have been created;
- 2,433 management committee members of the women's groups have been trained in associative life and the management of income-generating activities; and
- 149 Ongoing Education Centers (FEPs) have been built and equipped, in addition to the 50 whose construction is underway.

Overall, the adult literacy rate has increased from 9 percent in 2000 to 29 percent in 2007, representing a 224 percent increase over seven years (ENBC III/2007-08). Although a gender gap continues to exist, the literacy rate for women has nevertheless increased to 17.1 percent (against 42.8 percent for men), and that of young women (aged 15 to 24 years) has reached 23.2 percent (against 52.4 percent for young men).

Lessons Learned

- Addressing the specific needs of women and involving communities through information and sensitization sessions have facilitated the ownership of literacy activities at all levels.
- The creation of groups has enabled women to become more active and emancipated, no longer hesitating to raise their voice in public with respect to issues of concern to them, and participating in development activities and in local-level decision making.
- Building Ongoing Education Centers and training their management committee members in associative life and management has guaranteed the sustainability of results, the set-up of income-generating activities and women's greater autonomy.

Nevertheless, some shortcomings have been noted in terms of programme implementation, the most critical being related to the practice of productive activities, as individual activity is given priority over collective activities. This represents an obstacle to the development of the associative spirit and to the management and survival of the groups. To deal with this challenge, the management is giving sensitization a special role and foresees the reactivation of state monitoring and evaluation mechanisms.

Source: Ministry of Primary Education, Literacy, Promotion of National Languages and Civic Education, August 2014 (Edited version).

7: THE APPROACH ADOPTED BY SENEGAL REGARDING EFA GOAL 5 - The Primary Gender Parity Index and the Promotion of Girls' Education

The gender parity index for primary was 0.87 in 2000. Indeed, the gross enrollment rate (GER) for primary was 62.3 percent for girls, against 71.9 percent for boys. At this time, the constraints noted in girls' education included the lack of a policy incentivizing and promoting girls' education and its inclusion in national and deconcentrated budgets; the dispersion of activities and the absence of capitalization of good practices; the persistence of some sociocultural stereotypes; the lack of consideration of gender-specificity in educational supply, in particular in terms of infrastructure and the curriculum; as well as poverty and the non-registration of births.

Given this situation, the Senegalese government set the following goals, in collaboration with technical and financial partners and other players. To:

- Define a coherent and proactive girls' education policy, considering families' expectations;
- Improve synergies between governmental and partners' activities;
- Develop communication and information sharing on girls' education among all players;
- Develop advocacy for girls' education targeting education community players, local authorities and school partners;
- Organize action-research on the issue of gender parity in education; and
- Ensure the monitoring and evaluation of the different initiatives undertaken, creating a girls' education monitoring mechanism.

Activities

For several years, Senegal has been strongly committed to the elimination of gender disparities, as well as to the improvement of the effectiveness, efficiency and relevance of equity in the education system.

Policy and Institutional Framework

A number of key activities have positively contributed to the achievement of results. The execution of the 10-year Education and Training Programme (*Programme décennal de l'éducation et de la formation* - PDEF), from 2000 to 2010, has encouraged gender parity through the efforts focusing on universal education. In its wake, the 2013-25 Quality, Equity and Transparency Improvement Programme (*Programme d'amélioration de la qualité, de l'équité et de la transparence* - PAQUET) has included the reduction of gender disparities as a strategic axis.

More specifically, the production of a diagnostic study of gender issues, in December 2006, has helped to better focus efforts and has contributed to guide the elaboration of a policy paper, the 2009-11 Girls' Education Development Plan (*Plan de développement de l'éducation des filles 2009-11*) in December 2008, as well as the elaboration of a reference document on girls' education in 2011.

On the institutional level, a Framework for the Coordination of Interventions for Girls' Education (*Cadre de coordination des interventions sur l'éducation des filles* - CCIEF) has been developed, with local gender offices at the deconcentrated level (regions, departments and schools), and a technical counselor responsible for gender has been appointed.

Implementation Strategies

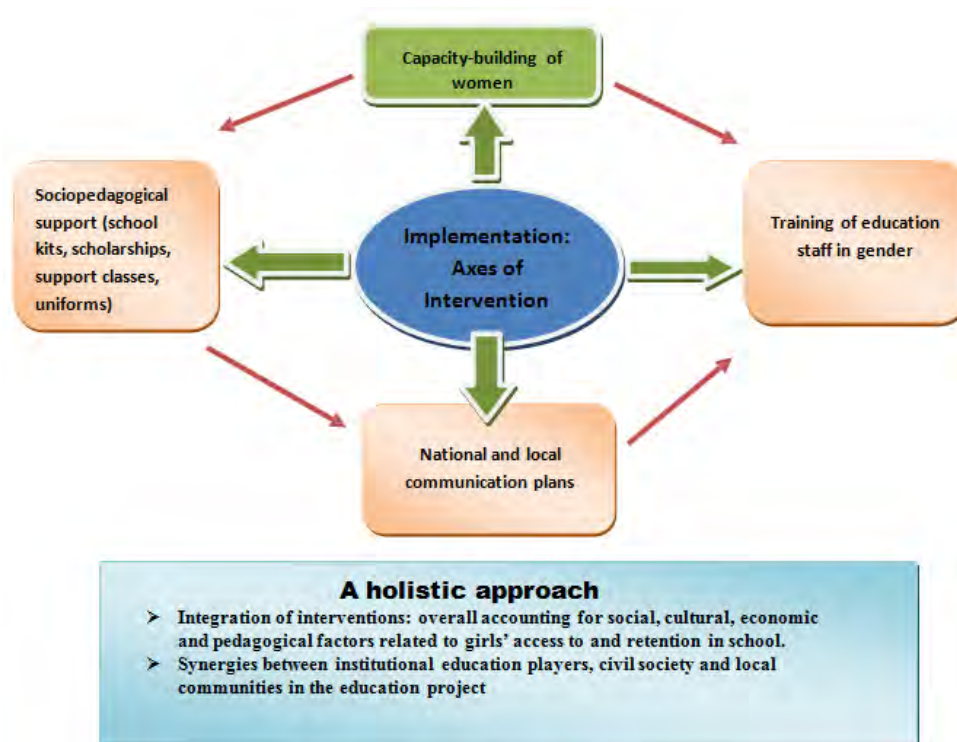
On a more operational level, numerous activities have been executed to facilitate and encourage girls' education. At the forefront, the school map has been revised to reduce the distance between homes and schools, which has had the greatest impact on girls' education. Furthermore, local lower and upper secondary schools have been opened, with the requirement that girls' specific needs are addressed, and educational supply has been diversified through the intensification of Arabic teaching and the creation of Franco-Arabic schools in areas where resistance to girls' education persists.

Other constraints to girls' education have been studied through socio-anthropological research into the factors that limit girls' access to school. In particular, the poverty constraint has been eased by supporting mothers associations in developing income-generating activities. Half the profit is then reverted to school management committees to cover the costs of girls in financial difficulty. This initiative has been complemented by specific incentives, including the better adaptation of school building standards to young girls' specific needs, particularly with the separation of toilet blocks, but also the provision of uniforms, scholarships, the award of prizes to the best female pupils and the strengthening of the school canteen policy.

Sensitization activities have been organized, on the reduction of domestic chores, gender-based violence and early marriage and pregnancy on the one hand, through the implementation of national and local communication plans, and on girls' education on the other, through the formalization of the National Day for Girls' Education by decree in May 2006, and its annual celebration every 11 November, at the national level and in every area of the country.

Furthermore, several initiatives have contributed to make the teaching offered more relevant to girls, as well as to include a gender focus in both course content and pedagogical approaches. Feminine leadership camps have been organized for female lower secondary school teachers, with training in leadership, communication, pedagogy, legislation and information and communication technologies. The teams responsible for the design of learning materials as well as supervision and inspection staff have received gender training. A training of trainers guide and a teacher guide have been elaborated to incorporate the gender issue in training standards and teaching and learning situations, as well as a training manual on gender-based violence at school.

Furthermore, the execution of the Support to Girls' Education Project (*Projet d'appui à l'éducation des filles* - PAEF), financed by the Italian Cooperation Agency, has greatly facilitated the operational implementation of the Senegalese government's political will. This project, considered as a breeding ground or experimentation framework for the CCIEF, has adopted a holistic approach that is reflected in its model (diagrammed below), guaranteeing synergies between all interventions.



Results

At the primary level, girls' access has greatly improved, the GER having progressed from 62.3 percent in 2000 to 98.4 percent in 2013. These results have been achieved on the one hand thanks to the relevance of the strategies adopted and on the other thanks to the coordinated action of the government, civil society (associations and female teacher clubs like FAWE and the National Committee of Female Teachers for the Promotion of Girls' Education), teacher unions, technical and financial partners, NGOs and communities.

However, although gender parity was achieved between 2004 and 2008 (index comprised between 0.96 and 1.05), since then Senegal has fallen into a new gender imbalance, although inverted with respect to 2000, with an index of 1.12 (equivalent to an index of 0.89, only in favor of girls).

Lessons Learned

The lessons learned from these experiences have shown that to effectively promote girls' education, it is necessary to create favorable policy and institutional frameworks, to adopt a holistic and inclusive approach, to harmonize and coordinate the activities of different players, to capitalize on good practices, develop and deploy a good communication strategy, provide adequate support measures and ensure regular monitoring and evaluation of all interventions.

8: THE APPROACH ADOPTED BY SWAZILAND REGARDING EFA GOAL 6 - Quality Primary Education in Swaziland

A number of children in Swaziland fail the end of primary examinations because of English, and even those who pass do not perform well. English is a failing subject. The nation became concerned about what were termed “falling standards of education,” referring to low performance in English and Sciences at all levels. In 2000, the SACMEQ II Research Project also confirmed relatively low levels of performance in reading (English) and mathematics, with scores of 530 in reading (placing Swaziland in 5th position among 15 participating countries) and 517 for mathematics (6th position). It was also noted that a majority of primary school children were not reaching the minimum required levels of achievement in either subject. Performance in English was a particular concern, as it impacts children’s learning ability in other subjects.

It was therefore critical improve literacy and numeracy levels to enable children to improve their performance levels. To achieve this, the overall learning process and experience required review, including the updating of the curriculum and the appropriate allocation of the required learning and teaching materials at the primary level.

Subject Panel Reviews of Reading and Math Performance

Subject panels exist in all subject areas in Swaziland. They were created to monitor, evaluate and manage the content and delivery of the respective subject curriculum. These panels consist of teachers, inspectors and curriculum designers in each subject area. The Director of Education instructed the Reading and Mathematics Subject Panels to analyze the SACMEQ II results and identify all weak areas in the curriculum, based on the Swaziland SACMEQ II report. SACMEQ results had clearly spelt out areas in which pupils were lacking in both subject content and specified achievement levels. The panels were then able to focus on those areas that required adjustment. A number of workshops were held with teachers and the curriculum department to diagnose the issues identified in each subject. A number of observations were made based on the findings of the SACMEQ II research:

- Although all pupils had textbooks (reading and mathematics) some were not allowed to take them home as these books belonged to the schools under the Book Rental Scheme at that time;
- Some schools lacked extra reading materials (library books), and those that did have books provide no time for reading and did not allow pupils to take the books home; and
- Homework was given but seldom marked.

The subject panel teams came up with strategies to improve the reading and mathematics levels. One of the suggestions included the provision of library books and materials to all primary schools and that pupils should be allowed to take their textbooks and library books home. For this to be a viable option the government had to ensure that there were enough books in schools.

Book Procurement

This demanded procurement of additional books and learning materials. This injection of textbooks cost about E 17 million (US\$ 2 million) in the 2007/2008 school year, equivalent to about 5 percent of the Ministry budget. For some years the government sustained this budget commitment to ensure that all pupils had adequate books. This initiative also included the provision of workbooks and teacher guides to all schools. Initially, books were not taken home for administrative reasons, such as:

- Concerns that books would be lost and not replaced, most children being orphans or vulnerable children who would not have been able to repay them; and
- As audit teams were expected to visit schools, head teachers feared being charged with poor management if some books were found to be missing.

In some schools these books and materials would be found under lock and key in class cupboards. It took this initiative and capacity building in managing these resources for schools to begin to allow books to be taken home. Schools also introduced book-tracking systems; despite the challenge this represented, there was nevertheless an increase in the number of pupils who took books home.

The government, working with partners, secured additional learning materials and initiated a programme to supply textbooks in all core subject areas to all primary school-going children in public schools. Under this initiative the Ministry was supported by a European Union (EU) project, which provided reading and mathematics materials and cupboards to all primary schools (600 schools) in the country, from Grade 1 to Grade 4. These materials acted as a good foundation for further development.

These initiatives gradually led to the institutionalization of the Free Textbook and Stationery programme, to ensure that every child has a book to him/herself.

Pedagogical Training and Monitoring of Teachers

In service workshops were held for primary school teachers, including professional lesson plans and the importance of marking homework to track individual pupils' performance. In addition, school inspectors visited all low performing schools and offered additional in-service training to teachers as required.

Results

All primary schools have classroom libraries and children are allowed to borrow books, take them home and receive learning assistance, even at home. In addition, the government revised its book rental policy and now procures textbooks for all primary pupils. The current pupil-textbook ratio in Swaziland at the primary level is 1:1, and every child has all the exercise books needed for school. The proportion of pupils owning a reading textbook increased from 74.3 percent in 2000 to 99.2 percent in 2007, with roughly the same impact being observed in mathematics where textbook ownership increased from 74.7 percent in 2000 to 99.8 percent in 2007.

With the further impact of a school feeding programme implemented by the government with assistance from partners to provide all children with at least one full nutritious meal per day, these

changes resulted in increased attendance and reduced drop-out rates, as well as having a positive impact on children's performance at school. Indeed, the SACMEQ III evaluation carried out in 2007 showed improved achievement levels for Swaziland in both reading and mathematics: the reading score increased by 19 points, to 549, and the country's mathematics average score increased by 34 points, to 549. Thus, 93 percent of primary Grade 6 pupils achieved the minimum level in reading (making Swaziland the 1st country out of 14 participating in this respect) and 56 percent in math (placing Swaziland in 5th position, almost on par with the 3rd and 4th countries).

Lessons Learned

Encouraging children to read and practice mathematics during their spare time improves performance. Providing extra reading materials for children to use in school and also allow them to take home improves their literacy and numeracy levels. Swaziland considered research in ensuring that all pupils get a solid foundation in the first four years of their education – this indicates that it is necessary to always monitor and evaluate education system performance so as to improve its effectiveness. School feeding is also very important in third world countries, where for some children it is the only daily meal: it encourages children to stay in school, improving survival rates. Child-centered approaches also contribute to improve children's performance.

9: THE PURSUIT OF EFA GOALS IN CABO VERDE – Specific Issues Faced by a Small Island State

The ten islands of Cabo Verde, an archipelago state off the Western coast of Africa, cover barely 433 km². Its geographic characteristics and highly limited water resources make education system management particularly costly, given the need for regional delegations, multiple infrastructure and social equipment, as well as the posting of teachers to all the islands. Furthermore, the country faces ongoing challenges linked to sustainable food production, nutrition, hygiene, sanitation and the lack of safe water, factors that all have a negative impact on enrollment and pupils' results. These primarily affect agricultural areas where poverty is highly concentrated and where children play a traditional role in domestic chores, agriculture, cattle-breeding and water collection. Nevertheless, in 2000, when the National EFA Plan was elaborated, universal primary education had already been achieved (net enrollment rate of 96.2 percent) and only 5 percent of the population aged 15 to 24 years was illiterate.

Paradoxically, the number of qualified teachers was insufficient (33.3 percent) and the better qualified ones were mainly found in urban areas. School infrastructure was inadequate for the growth of the education system, with only 420 schools in 2001 and multiple cases of triple classroom shifts (one classroom for three groups). Furthermore, pro-education socioeconomic compensation mechanisms failed to eliminate disparities in access to compulsory schooling, especially in peripheral areas and the more disadvantaged communities. Finally the education system's sustainable development also implied the modernization of the administrative and pedagogical management of schools and the improvement of educational quality.

Actions

To address these issues, Cabo Verde elaborated and approved a National EFA Plan in 2002, complemented by a 10-year Education Strategic Plan in 2003, with well defined policy options and measures, including in particular:

- The reorganization and intensification of teacher training, as well as the improvement of their working conditions;
- The reconversion of the school social action system, with the adoption of a socioeducational support policy; and
- The elaboration and improvement of pedagogical material and the adaptation of curricula.

Infrastructure

To facilitate access to local education services, significant and gradual efforts were devoted to the reclassification, enlargement and construction of basic and secondary schools, as well as technical and vocational training institutes and several universities, including a public one. Overall, 127 schools were reclassified and 21 enlarged, implying the construction and equipment of 147 classrooms on the islands of São Vicente, São Nicolau, Maio, Santiago, Fogo and Brava. In addition, nine new basic

education schools were built on the islands of Santiago (7), Santo Antão and Fogo. The programme included sport facilities, toilet blocks, kitchens and access to safe water.

Governance

The adopted strategy relied on good management, rigor and transparency, the recognition of local skills and the pursuit of strategic partnerships. Governance was reinforced through the training of the education system's administrative staff, as well as the definition and approval of a modern regulatory framework. Thus, the country adopted the School Management Law, the Law for the Recovery of School Fees and Emoluments in Favor of School Attendance, and implemented a coordination, supervision and control mechanism, from the grassroots (school delegations) to the highest level (General Education Inspectorate). Secondary schools were given administrative autonomy and allowed to raise their own resources, their accounts being audited by the General Education Inspectorate and the treasury.

The quality of the education system was strengthened in particular through the promotion of innovation through the use of information and communication technologies, and the facilitation of math and science subject teaching.

Family Participation

To make access to education more equitable, the definition of socioeducational programmes targeting the most vulnerable families was fine-tuned. A hot meal is offered to most preprimary children and to all basic education pupils, through the national school feeding programme. A school health programme has more recently been coupled to this, in an attempt to enhance educational inclusion and promote the quality of results.

However, despite the fee-free nature of basic education and government financing the production or subsidizing textbooks, families' contributions to the cost of education (for supplies and books, school uniforms, and through a symbolic participation to school meals) is a policy choice that aims to avoid generating dependency. Thus, 4 percent of national recurrent basic education spending is covered by families (CSR, 2011). This reflects the fact that Cape Verdeans generally consider education to be a sound investment in the social and economic future of their children, and have great faith in education (88.3 percent of families, according to the 2014 GPS study).

New Technologies

Since 2009, the introduction of the *Mundu Novu* programme promotes teachers' knowledge and creativity while simultaneously making learning more attractive and practical. It consists in the modernization of teaching and school management processes, through information and communication technologies. In this context, the Ministry of Education and Sport has already trained 3,593 teachers nationwide thanks to digital media (equivalent to 61 percent of staff), produced multimedia teaching materials and developed a distance-learning system, with the training of technicians and facilitators. In terms of equipment, 16 interactive blackboards, 44 computer labs (700 computers) and over 1,000 laptops for teachers and pupils have been distributed, as well as other equipment (screens, projectors and so on), benefitting over 30,000 pupils.

Results

After ten years of implementation of the mentioned policies and strategies, clear changes have occurred throughout the Cape Verdean education system's subcycles. Data indicate an overall improvement of indicators and the achievement of several goals:

- For preprimary, the national enrollment rate for the 2012/13 school year was 71 percent (65 percent for children aged 4 to 5 years and 80 percent for the last year of preprimary).
- The probability of access to the first year of basic education is 99.8 percent (CSR, 2011).
- Only 4 percent of pupils cover more than 3 km to get to school.
- The basic education enrollment rate was 93.1 percent in 2013 and the completion rate of 91.3 percent.
- The majority of basic education teachers (95.5 percent in 2011/12) are trained, as well as most secondary school teachers (86.3 percent).
- 86.3 percent of pupils that complete six years of basic education access the secondary level.
- The literacy rate for youth aged 15 to 24 years reached 96.9 percent in 2010, with barely a 1 percent gap between men and women.

Lessons Learned

To achieve these results, Cabo Verde has gone to great pains to mobilize budgetary and extra-budgetary resources, devoting 23 percent of the government budget to education. Political stability, the implementation of coherent and sequential education policy measures, good governance and the co-participation of families in education financing have been other general success factors. In addition:

- To expand the coverage of preprimary, at least for the last two years (4/5 year olds), strengthening public-private partnerships has been fundamental.
- Quality has improved through the supervision and control of the system, in particular thanks to institutional assessments and assessments of the performance of teachers and headmasters, as well as through particular focus on school management, providing appropriate training in this area.
- The use of new technologies, for distance learning, education system management and especially the ongoing training of teachers, has helped to reduce the costs related to insularity and enhance equity in qualified teacher postings throughout the country's townships and islands.

Cabo Verde intends to pursue its investment in curricular innovation at the basic and secondary education levels, giving priority to competency-based approaches, and strengthening civic education, artistic education, languages, and practical exercises in math and science subjects.

10: EDUCATION FOR ALL IN KENYA - Promoting Peace Building in and through Education for All

Since independence in 1963, Kenya has often experienced sporadic violence in different parts of the country resulting from cattle rustling, land disputes, ethnic clashes, terrorism and disputed elections. The worst election-related violence was experienced in December 2007 and early 2008, following contested presidential results. It has also led to the destruction of schools, the disruption of learning and the displacement of communities in affected areas. Many of the gains the country had registered in access, retention and quality were severely eroded.

Acknowledging conflict as a major impediment to the realization of EFA, the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology determined to promote peace-building through education.

Actions

A Peace Education Programme was initiated in 2008 to strengthen education sector responses to peace building through policy and programmatic interventions, complementing existing initiatives for promoting peace in and through education, such as the Life skills Education (LSE) programme of early 2007 (that includes teaching of skills that promote peace and peace education as core living values).

The Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MOEST) subsequently developed the following strategies and activities to implement the programme:

- Development and dissemination of an Education Sector Policy on Peace education;
- Development of peace education materials;
- Training of education officials on peace education;
- Training of teachers on peace education to strengthen the delivery of existing content in the curriculum (such as Life skills Education);
- Establishment of Peace clubs in schools and provision of management guidelines;
- Outreach activities to promote peace among communities and build school /community relations;
- Welfare initiatives to promote care and empathy among learners;
- Environmental activities, such as tree nurseries, planting and care within schools and on community land;
- Integration of peace themes into music, drama and sports;
- Psycho- social interventions in support of teachers and learners affected by conflict;
- Promotion of community dialogue through education;
- National Peace Education campaign in schools ahead of the 2013 elections; and
- Sharing of experiences and expertise through the Inter-Country quality Node (ICQN).

Results

The education sector now has a comprehensive policy framework to strengthen a sector-wide contribution to peace building in and through education: (i) through peace education, young people have been equipped with skills to live with diversity in society; (ii) the capacity of teachers to handle life skills and educate for peace and conflict resolution has been enhanced; (iii) the peace education programme has strengthened linkages between schools and communities; and (iv) campaigns have given children and youth a voice regarding the future of their country.

Lessons learned

The education sector clearly provides a powerful entry point to promote peace building. However, curriculum-based interventions alone are not sufficient to promote peace building through education. Ministries of Education need to focus on education policies, systems and structures with a view to making them more conflict sensitive. Peace building through education largely depends on political goodwill and effective partnerships between the Ministry of Education and a broad range of actors, including other line ministries, communities, civil society and development partners.



Teacher training in peace education



Peace-zone school tree planting campaign



The retired President relaying the Peace Torch for children to share with the nation



Art therapy session on pupils perceptions of conflict, in the Tana Delta District

11: EDUCATION FOR ALL IN ZANZIBAR – The Challenges of Education Provision in a Semi-Autonomous Region

The archipelago of Zanzibar, about 40km off the coast of mainland Tanzania, comprises two main islands (Unguja and Pemba) and a number of other smaller islets, and is divided into 5 regions, 10 districts and 50 constituencies. Population stood at 1.3 million in 2012, growing at 2.8 percent per year, with 18.6 percent of primary-school age, 51.6 percent of women and 53.7 percent living in rural areas. Zanzibar joined Tanganyika in 1964 to form the United Republic of Tanzania, but retains autonomy over all non-union matters, through its own government (the Revolutionary Government of Zanzibar), parliament (House of Representatives), judiciary and executive (Revolutionary Council).

Zanzibar thus has an independent Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (MoEVT), and provides 12 years of compulsory basic education (2 years of preprimary, 6 years of primary and 4 years of ordinary secondary). Under the 2006 Education Policy, which aims to expand access and equity as well as improve the quality and effectiveness of education, several programmes have been launched and implemented with the collaboration of development partners (World Bank, USAID, Swedish International Development Agency, UNESCO, UNICEF, BADEA and others).

Action and Results

Goal 1: Since preschool education became compulsory for all children aged 4-5 years, access has grown rapidly: the gross enrolment rate (GER) increased from 13 percent in 2001 to 33 percent in 2013. In addition to the preprimary classes offered by primary schools, the number of preprimary centers has grown from 121 in 2001 to 278 in 2014, thanks mainly to private sector investment. The 2010 Health Policy has furthermore contributed to reduce child mortality rates over 2002-10, from 141 to 73 deaths per 1,000 live births, thanks to routine immunization and improved nutrition.

In addition to the inappropriate state of infrastructure and learning environments, especially in community-based centers, the ECD sector faces a specific challenge in the low qualification of preprimary teachers, due to the absence of appropriate teacher training. MoEVT plans to create dedicated ECD training centers, offer ECD training through existing institutions and set minimum entry requirements, as well as develop in-service upgrading courses for existing teachers.

Goal 2: Primary education has expanded through the construction of new schools and the rehabilitation of existing classrooms by the government, as well as the completion of classrooms initiated by communities, and the provision of 'second chance' education for out-of-school youth. As a result, the primary net enrollment rate has increased from 76 percent to 84 percent and the survival rate to Grade 7 from 74 percent to 80 percent.

Nevertheless, significant challenges remain, impacting on pupil performance, including: (i) class composition (overcrowding due to the large class teaching approach with several teachers per class, and double shifts); (ii) a shortage of math and science teachers; (iii) low teaching time due to teacher absenteeism; (iv) high drop-out and child labor rates in coastal areas; and (v) low coverage of inclusive education, due to some head teachers perceiving it as an extra burden and the shortage of learning materials for children with special needs. The building of teacher residential quarters in

schools is to be promoted to reduce teachers' travel time (some live up to 40km away) and improve effective contact time in class, and parental sensitization campaigns will encourage the timely enrollment of children in school to ensure UPE is achieved.

Goal 3: For EFA Goal 3, Zanzibar has focused on: (i) life skills education, through the introduction of different school-based approaches (peer education, Sara communication initiatives, moral ethics and environmental studies), the development of a single common life skills manual and the deployment of teacher counselors; and (ii) lifelong learning, to improve technical and vocational training, especially for out-of-school youth. TVET was promoted through a specific Vocational Training Policy in 2005, the establishment of a vocational training authority, and the construction of two model vocational training centers, in 2009.

Various challenges continue to hinder progress however. The absence of a national life skills policy, of dedicated teaching, and of appropriate school-based extracurricular activities and clubs hinder its proper development and ownership by teachers. On the other hand, the integrated and coordinated provision of TVET is weak, as institutions depend on various ministries (Agriculture, Health, Water, Trade and Tourism), the alignment of training provision with labor market needs is still not sufficient, due to the incomplete initial assessment and piecemeal implementation of the policy, and training is predominantly theoretical and classroom-based, due to VET institutions' very limited resources.

Goal 4: Adult literacy (15 years and above) has improved considerably, from 72 percent in 2002 to 83 percent in 2010 (88 percent for men against 77 percent for women), but is much higher in urban districts (94 percent) than in rural ones (62 percent in Micheweni and Mkoani districts, despite remarkable improvements).

The youth literacy rate (15-24 years) has declined however, from 85 percent to 75 percent, due in particular to high dropout and out-of-school, especially in rural districts. In response to this, the government has introduced 'second chance' education, giving children aged 9-13 years a one-year course (a condensed version of the primary curriculum for Grades 1-3) to enable their mainstreaming back into formal education, and children aged 14 years and above three years of skills training in various areas (tailoring, electrical installation, carpentry, ICT, etc.) before their mainstreaming into vocational training institutions to acquire further entrepreneurial skills.

Goal 5: Considerable progress has been made in terms of equity in Zanzibar, thanks to policies and guidelines which all stress equal education rights and opportunities, regardless of sex, ethnicity and socio-economic status. In particular, several initiatives have targeted girls' education, including the provision of girls-only classes in some schools, science camps for girls and the nomination of a gender focal person within MoEVT, contributing to the achievement of gender parity at all levels from preprimary to secondary. Furthermore, inclusive education for children with special needs has been introduced.

Girls are still under-represented in higher education however, and there is a persistent gender gap in terms of pupils' performance at O' and A' Level Secondary, due to dropout, early marriage, sexual harassment, the lack of conducive and safe learning environments and inadequate gender policies.

Goal 6: Quality has been greatly enhanced thanks to a comprehensive approach: (i) the competency-based review of curricula, from preprimary to secondary; (ii) the procurement of teaching and learning materials, including textbooks (every child now has one) and laboratory equipment; (iii) the introduction of teacher upgrading programmes, the establishment of the State University of Zanzibar and the effective use of teacher centers to enhance performance; (iv) the development of Basic Education Standards, to facilitate effective monitoring, strengthen management at all levels and ensure international standards are met; (v) the ongoing assessment of students' performance through examinations; and (vi) the improvement of school facilities to make them safe and learner-friendly, in particular through the construction of new toilets and the provision of safe water.

Challenges remain however, such as the organization of classes to reduce double shifting, increase effective learning time and improve curriculum completion, and the further expansion of learning facilities, especially libraries and laboratories.

Conclusion

A strong political will and commitment coupled with the support and dedication of all education stakeholders have enabled Zanzibar to expand the provision of early childhood education, strengthen primary access, improve the transition rate to secondary, create more conducive school learning environments, institute a quality assurance system through strengthened monitoring under an autonomous inspectorate body, mainstream gender issues in core MoEVT functions, provide equal opportunities to children with special needs, and reduce illiteracy.

However, the education system in Zanzibar continues to face some key challenges:

- The elimination of persistent regional and district-level disparities, in particular in ECCE and literacy;
- The improvement of learning environments to make them more conducive, through the better provision of latrines, drinking water and adequate learning materials;
- The strengthening of the monitoring and evaluation system, that is still not fully effective or consistent; and
- The better coordination of education services at the regional and district levels, in particular to effectively streamline teacher training facilities.

Annexes

Annex 1: Global EFA Coordination

Following the Dakar Forum, most SSA countries elaborated 10-year education sector development plans and EFA plans, often combined in a single document. However, their implementation was complicated by considerable delays in their elaboration, a notorious lack of financial and quality human resources, as well as countries' lack of experience in terms of the conception, implementation and monitoring and evaluation of the sector plans. To provide countries with complementary technical support, development partners elaborated and implemented their own sector development plans.

It was therefore naturally necessary to design coordination and monitoring and evaluation mechanisms and arrangements, to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of execution, ensure greater coherence among the different players involved in the process and to harmonize their interventions. Given the plethora of bodies and players, as well as of their field operational processes and variable country contexts, this coordination has represented a great challenge. To respond to this, a number of initiatives have been launched at the international, regional and national levels.

International Coordination

High-Level Group on EFA

UNESCO, in its capacity as education sector lead agency, was given the mandate during the Dakar Forum to create and lead a High-Level Group on Education for All (HLG-EFA). This group is a decision-making, guidance and EFA action coordination body at the highest level, including representatives of governments, development agencies, United Nations, civil society and the private sector. It aims to strengthen the political will and the technical and financial means for EFA, and accounts for the international community's respect of its commitments undertaken in Dakar in 2000.

The group is supported by a technical group, which draws up proposals on the broad direction to follow as well as recommendations in the areas considered to be of priority for collective action. The debates within these two bodies have been largely nourished by the EFA Global Monitoring Reports (GMR), published by an independent unit based in UNESCO's head office, that present the progress achieved towards the EFA goals every year.

Over the 2001-11 period, the working group has held ten sessions, three of which have been staged in SSA: Abuja, Nigeria (2002); Dakar, Senegal (2007); and Addis Ababa, Ethiopia (2010). This last session recognized some of the deficiencies and dysfunctions that the group is prone to, previously

highlighted by par numerous studies, and leading to the Addis Ababa Declaration, that aims for its revival.²⁵ The main dysfunctions relate to:

- EFA coordination, considered insufficiently receptive to the needs countries express;
- The fragmentation of coordination mechanisms and existing initiatives;
- The lack of clarity in the roles assigned to each partner and lead agency, mainly due to differences in their respective priorities; and
- The weak links between education goals and countries' broader development goals.

International Advisory Panel (IAP)

The panel convenes twenty odd representatives of key organizations involved in EFA coordination activities. It was created in 2007 by UNESCO's Director General with the objective of holding consultations throughout the year, preparing and following up on the sessions of the aforementioned groups and providing UNESCO with advice on EFA coordination.

The E-9 Initiative

The E-9 Initiative was launched by UNESCO in collaboration with other EFA coordination agencies in New Delhi in 1993, during the Summit of the Leaders of the Nine High-Population Countries. It provides a framework and network for policy dialogue, information sharing and monitoring for the nine member countries, which include two SSA countries (Nigeria and Ethiopia).

National and Regional Coordination

National Coordination

At the country level, coordination mechanisms vary according to the challenges imposed by EFA and the resulting priorities. Typically, these mechanisms include: (i) an EFA coordinator; (ii) a national EFA forum, including education stakeholders, linked to the regional EFA forum; (iii) a local donor coordination group (that can be linked to the GPE); (iv) a government-development partners coordination body; and (v) the United Nations country team. The examples of some countries such as Kenya and Mozambique show that effective coordination of EFA, or of education more broadly speaking, has helped to harness support for national efforts, develop education systems and encourage progress towards the achievement of EFA goals.

²⁵ See for instance: "Reviving the Global Education Compact - Four Options for Global Education Funding," (D. Bermingham, Center for Global Development, USA, 2010); "Strategies for Financing of Education - A Global View," (N. Burnett, Results for Development Institute, 2010); and "Enhancing Effectiveness of EFA Coordination," (UNESCO, 2010).

Regional Coordination

The mandate of regional and subregional bodies includes the coordination of appropriate networks, the definition and monitoring of regional and subregional objectives, advocacy, policy dialogue, the promotion of partnerships, technical cooperation, sharing best practices and lessons learned, monitoring and reporting for accountability, as well as the promotion of resource mobilization. These bodies usually adopt the shape of regional EFA forums, which should not only create networks linking the national forums and regional and subregional organizations, but also encourage the involvement of the main EFA players.

Big Push Steering and Coordination Committee

In 2012, on the basis of the Addis Ababa Declaration's recommendations, a conference was held in Johannesburg with the aim of reviving the regional coordination of EFA in SSA. Participation was broad, with representatives of 36 SSA countries, regional economic communities, United Nations agencies, the African Union, the African parliament, the African Academy of Languages (ACALAN), the Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA), CONFEMEN, the Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE), the African Network Campaign on Education for All (ANCEFA) and several international NGOs.

Following this meeting, a small and simple subregional coordination committee was created, comprising UNESCO Dakar, UNICEF, UNFPA, ADEA, CONFEMEN, FAWE and ANCEFA. Its activities led to the launch of an initiative called the *Big Push*. This initiative's main goal was to support willing countries in the elaboration and implementation of acceleration frameworks for one or several EFA goals, selected by the countries, by 2015. The implementation of these acceleration frameworks required having previously requested the support of UNESCO and its partners. Nine countries adhered to the initiative: Angola, Côte d'Ivoire, Niger, Senegal, Chad, Lesotho, Swaziland, Zambia and Uganda. A second wave was planned, covering a dozen further countries, but the initiative was not pursued.

Technical Support Bodies

The Global Partnership for Education (ex EFA Fast-Track Initiative)²⁶

The Global Partnership for Education (GPE), formerly known as Education for All Fast-Track Initiative (EFA-FTI) was established in 2002 to accelerate progress towards the goal of universal primary education by 2015. The Global Partnership for Education has grown from 7 developing country partners in 2002 to 59 in 2014, 39 of which are in SSA. Its members also include prominent multilateral partners (UNESCO, UNICEF and the World Bank), donors, foundations, teacher

²⁶ This part is based on <http://www.unesco.org/new/en/unesco/partners-donors/the-actions/education/cooperation-with-the-world-bank-in-the-framework-of-gpe-global-partnership-for-education/> and <https://www.globalpartnership.org/about-GPE> (seen on 25 October 2014).

organizations, civil society organizations, local education groups and the private sector. It is the 4th largest donor for basic education in low and middle-income countries, providing funding and technical assistance to support the development and implementation of full-coverage and high-quality education sector plans.

The GPE helps partners address barriers faced by out-of-school children, helping countries to build safe and accessible schools where they can learn and reach their potential. The GPE's approach aims to empower developing countries so they can assess their education priorities and better invest in the future of their children, through the development of innovative solutions, communication practices and knowledge sharing among all partners.

GPE Mission: To galvanize and coordinate a global effort to deliver a good quality education to all girls and boys, prioritizing the poorest and most vulnerable.

In addition to expanding funding and support to education in GPE countries, the GPE's areas of focus include: supporting fragile and conflict-affected states to develop and implement their education plans; promoting girls' education; increasing basic numeracy and literacy skills at the primary level; and improving education quality through teacher effectiveness, by training, recruiting, retaining and supporting them.

The FTI underwent a mid-term review and its results were considered to be satisfactory overall. The name change in September 2011, from the EFA-FTI to GPE, reflects the lessons learned by the FTI to better capitalize on the strengths of the partnership, particularly in terms of country-level collaboration, harmonization and support mechanisms. Although a paradigm shift has occurred with the rebranding, the GPE focusing more on targeting the countries in greatest need than the FTI did on those having elaborated a "credible" sector plan, the GPE Compact explicitly links increased donor support for education to recipient countries' policy performance and accountability for results. As such, the GPE aims to accelerate progress toward the EFA goals by promoting:

- Further development effectiveness and more efficient aid for basic education;
- Sound sector policies in education;
- Adequate and sustainable domestic financing for education;
- Sustained increases in aid for basic education; and
- Increased accountability for sector results.

The close engagement with the GPE over the EFA 2000-15 period is one of the salient features of UNESCO's cooperation with the World Bank, which hosts the GPE.

CONFEMEN and SACMEQ

The *Programme d'Analyse des Systèmes Éducatifs de la CONFEMEN* (PASEC) and the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) produce technical tools to monitor the performance of education systems in the francophone and anglophone countries of SSA, through the assessment of pupils' learning outcomes. These tools have constituted invaluable knowledge bases on educational quality, improving knowledge of progress towards the achievement of EFA goals since 2000, providing grounds to compare the performance of education systems and helping EFA coordination and implementation bodies to make decisions and define the directions and reforms that promote the achievement of its goals.

The PASEC programme carries out three types of assessment: (i) diagnostic assessments, that are based on a sample of primary Grade 2 and Grade 5 pupils; (ii) thematic assessments, that usually focus on the teacher issue and are based on a sample of teachers; and (iii) the monitoring of the schooling careers of primary pupils, that review repetition and dropout issues. Since its creation two decades ago, PASEC has carried out 35 national assessments in almost twenty African countries.

SACMEQ is a consortium of sixteen education ministries of Southern and East African countries. It was created in 1995, under the impulse of IIEP/UNESCO, as a common framework to measure educational quality, to strengthen planning capacities and improve education quality monitoring. Since 2000, the SACMEQ II, III and IV assessments have provided valuable data helping to axe education reforms on the traditional areas of reading and math, as well as on learning conditions and their impact on pupils' results, pupils' and teachers' knowledge of HIV&AIDS and on the reduction of gender disparities in learning outcomes.

Among others, these initiatives have contributed to weave relationships based on trust, cooperation and partnership between SSA countries' education system players. Without a doubt, the PASEC and SACMEQ assessments have often been instrumental in drawing the attention of the various EFA coordination bodies at the international, regional and national levels to the dysfunctions and gaps noted in the achievement of the goals, and to enact the required correction measures.

However, although those responsible for these two large programmes have worked towards a degree of reconciliation in their approaches over the past fifteen years, the inability to produce relatively common measures of learning outcomes at the continental level, or more simply, to develop a global learning assessment programme for SSA pupils, represents one of the failures of EFA over the period.

International Development Programmes and Initiatives for EFA²⁷

In addition to the GPE, the Dakar framework for action led to the birth and revival of several other international development programmes and initiatives, aiming to promote basic education for all. These initiatives and programmes found fertile ground in Sub-Saharan Africa, playing an important part over the past fifteen years, both in terms of advocacy and social mobilization, as well as in terms of policy makers' and development agencies' accountability with respect to the commitments made at the Dakar Forum.

Some of these programmes have developed to the point of becoming inescapable resources for all players involved in the pursuit of EFA:

- The International Network on Education in Emergencies (INEE), born of the beacon programme created after the Dakar Forum, has contributed to the development of standard tools to address education needs in emergency contexts, which have shaken the area.
- The United Nations Girls' Education Initiative (UNGEI), which has undertaken activities to promote of girls' education and document good practices in this area.
- The Interagency Programme on the Impact of HIV&AIDS, which has supported education systems in the fight against the pandemic in Sub-Saharan Africa.
- Education First, launched in 2012 by the UN Secretary General, aims to accelerate progress towards the achievement of the EFA goals and the MDG goals relating to education. It also aims to place education, its quality, relevance and transformational power at the heart of the post-2015 global development agenda, by mobilizing additional and sufficient resources through sustained international advocacy.

Advocacy and Policy Dialogue Initiatives

United Nations and African Union Decades

The value of these decades is undoubtedly their potential to sensitize public opinion to a critical international issue. This in turn helps to focus international action and cooperation on the issue, to mobilize greater political will and new players, to reinforce the efficiency of the relevant programme implementation and to mobilize further resources.

During the period since the Dakar Forum, three new decades relating directly to EFA have been launched:

- The United Nations Literacy Decade (2003-12)
- The United Nations Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (2005-14)
- The Second Decade for Education in Africa (2006-15)

²⁷ See UNESCO's EFA Global Monitoring Report 2013/2014 "Teaching and Learning: Achieving Quality for All" (UNESCO, 2014).

In the course of the Literacy Decade, countries' perception of literacy has evolved, often departing from the traditional concept to the benefit of "functional literacy," with concrete policies and programmes that respond to various needs imposed by the modern world. Furthermore, the role of the private sector and civil society has grown, providing innovating services, organizing policy dialogue and contributing to sensitization and resource mobilization. Universities, research institutes and members of parliament have also become key partners. The LIFE programme (Literacy for Empowerment), launched by UNESCO in 2005, has accompanied 18 SSA countries whose literacy rate was below 50 percent or whose illiterate adult population was greater than 10 million, in carrying out diagnostic analyses and in formulating national literacy policies and strategies.²⁸

The Decade of Education for Sustainable Development's goal was to integrate the principles and approaches to sustainable development in all aspects of education and learning, to promote more sustainable and fair societies for all. The final assessment carried out in 2014 underlined the fact that the reorientation of education policies, programmes and plans to integrate sustainable development is a process well underway in most of the member countries having produced a report, including in Sub-Saharan Africa. Conversely, education, public awareness and training are now inescapable strategies for any national sustainable development plan.

The Second Decade for Education in Africa was launched by the African Union according to its vision whereby every citizen should contribute to building an integrated, prosperous and peaceful continent, following the First Decade of 1997-2006. The mid-term review indicates that one of the limitations faced is the fact that the regional economic commissions, which are the main executive arms of the AU, do not all have functional education units, limiting their potential to support and monitor the implementation of the Decade.

The Role of NGOs

International nongovernmental organizations (INGOs) have played an important part in campaigns for education, this since the Dakar Forum where they weighed heavily on the debates and formulation of the six EFA goals. The participation of INGOs in international efforts for EFA has in particular translated into the creation of a coherent and independent network of national and international NGOs with a common EFA agenda, and into the greater visibility and attention paid to education by the international community, not least during the G7 countries' debates on the financing of EFA. INGOs have thus cut out a place for civil society in the planning and monitoring of national and international education policies, which now represents a considerable force behind EFA.

²⁸ "Implementation of the International Action Plan for the United Nations Literacy Decade and Specific Recommendations for the Period Following the Decade" (UNESCO, 2013).

In recognition of their role, UNESCO has created a consultation framework with NGOs, the Collective Consultation of NGOs on EFA (CCNGO/EFA). This mechanism aims to ensure the commitment and participation of civil society in the formulation, implementation and monitoring of education development strategies, and to facilitate reflection, permanent dialogue and joint UNESCO-NGO actions in the field of EFA. Currently, the network comprises close to 300 member NGOs worldwide. Its representatives are invited to regional and international EFA meetings, including those of the Working Group and the High Level Group. Global Campaign for Education is one of the key INGOs, created in 1999. Its members belong to a wide spectrum of civil society organizations at the national, regional and international levels, to teacher unions or children's rights protection movements, and are devoted to promoting education as a basic human right.

In Sub-Saharan Africa, the most active networks in harnessing support for the EFA goals are the African Network Campaign on Education for All (ANCEFA) and the Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE). These networks contribute to the work of the EFA Working Group and participate in the meetings of the CCONG/EPT.

Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA)

ADEA is first and foremost a policy dialogue forum on education and training in Africa. The association, created in 1988 to strengthen interagency cooperation, has gradually become a Panafrican institution. In 2008, the office of its minister was fused with that of the COMEDAF's minister (the AU Conference of Ministers of Education), in line with the decision of the African Union's 10th summit held in January 2008. After sixteen years spent within UNESCO's International Institute for Education Planning (IIEP), ADEA relocated in 2008 to the premises of the African Development Bank.

ADEA's stakeholders interact through a network of workgroups for reflection, the sharing of experiences and action-research into priority education issues. Since the Dakar Forum, ADEA has held five biennial and triennial meetings in addition to over twenty ministerial meetings on themes such as contract teachers, educational quality, postprimary education, youth employment, and the knowledge, competences and qualifications that are required for sustainable development.

These workgroups have published a broad range of documentary resources over the EFA period, elaborated in collaborative fashion, from retrospective case studies of national experiences to practical manuals aimed at technicians and policy makers. Five cross-country quality poles, created more recently, are more focused on capacity-building and knowledge sharing between technical and policy-making peers, addressing the challenges of early childhood care and education and of the teaching of math and science subjects, among others.

The assessment of the ADEA programme carried out in 2010 underlines the fact that for the most part, the workgroups are effective in terms of providing technical assistance and contribute to the development of their respective thematic areas in Africa. However, the main challenge the institution

faces, as is the case of many others working in this area, is the need to more clearly demonstrate the fundamental role of policy dialogue in achieving sustainable change for education in Africa.

CONFEMEN and SACMEQ

CONFEMEN works towards the promotion of education and technical and vocational training in its 44 member states, 25 of which are located in Sub-Saharan Africa. Based in Africa, CONFEMEN aims to be a space of shared values, expertise and solidarity between countries from the North and the South that share a common language. In addition to the PASEC programme (see above), its main missions are to share information, study issues of common interest and facilitate consultations between ministers and experts. It seeks to find common ground and to formulate recommendations to support regional and international education policies.

Over the years, SACMEQ has also become a major forum to share experiences and expertise as well as of policy dialogue for education, in particular based on the empirical data drawn from its assessments of education systems' performance and quality.

Conclusion

The international commitments made in Dakar in 2000 have translated into an unquestionable drive in Sub-Saharan Africa, in particular through the relay of initiatives and partnerships launched at the international level. A number of local and concerted actions have also been undertaken, often relying on existing organizations and institutions, to which the Dakar Forum gave a new lease of life through common convening goals and the encouragement of greater intellectual and technical collaboration.

One of the key strengths of the mentioned programmes and organizations has been their ability to captivate the attention of national and regional civil societies and coalesce their efforts around concerted actions, aiming on the one hand to demand of policy makers that they honor their commitments in terms of education and literacy, on the other to assess the progress achieved and that to still be achieved, and finally to share their findings in all EFA monitoring fora.

Unfortunately, few reviews enable the identification of the more effective initiatives and the measures required to strengthen their impact in SSA. It is indeed difficult to establish relationships between international initiatives and their impacts at the country level. It is also complex to determine if and how, during the implementation of EFA, countries have replicated experiences, good practices and lessons learned, to focus on the achievement of one or several of the EFA goals. In the same line of thought, it is difficult to convincingly establish if resources have been sufficient, if they have been well used and what real impact they have had on the coordination and implementation of actions for the achievement of EFA goals. Of course, coordination has both a technical and a political dimension, which increases the complexity of the exercise.

For SSA, the following findings can however be underlined:

- The recommendations formulated by the EFA High Level Group and Working Group were not sufficiently communicated to countries, making their incorporation into sector plans difficult, obviously limiting the scope of their implementation;
- Political will for EFA has lacked strength in many SSA countries;
- Communication deficits between the various coordination levels (global, regional and national) are noted, obstructing the exchange of ideas, good practices and promising experiences as well as their adoption at the national level;
- The regional coordination structure has not been fully effective, which has hindered the dissemination of recommendations at the subregional and national levels;
- At the national level, although national EFA coordination bodies have been created, their operations have been inadequate;
- Numerous national EFA plans have been elaborated, but their implementation has been heavily compromised by the lack of financial and human resources;
- The review of sector plans, strategies and programmes has often lacked regularity, and their results have not been fully utilized; and
- The multiplicity of steering and coordination bodies has been a factor significantly contributing to their relative ineffectiveness.

Annex 2: Country Data Tables – Key EFA Indicators

Country	Goal 1: ECCE				Goal 2: UPE			
	Preprimary GER (%)				PCR (%)			
	Year	Value	Year	Value	Year	Value	Year	Value
Angola	2000	27.0	2011	89.6	2001	37.0	2010	48.5
Benin	2001	3.0	2012	11.6	2001	40.3	2012	71.5
Botswana	2005	15.0	2007	15.8	2000	91.3	2009	94.7
Burkina Faso	2000	2.0	2012	3.5	2001	27.4	2012	54.9
Burundi	2000	1.0	2012	5	2001	24.3	2012	62.2
Cameroon	2000	12.0	2012	29.8	2000	51.4	2012	72.8
Cabo Verde	2000	54.0	2012	74.7	2000	103.2	2012	99.4
CAR	2002	2.0	2011	5.7	2002	31.0	2012	45.3
Chad	2003	1.0	2012	1.5	2000	22.4	2012	35.3
Comoros	2000	2.0	2010	5.1	2002	61.8	2010	63.2
Congo	2000	3.0	2012	13.8	2000	49.0	2012	73.0
Côte d'Ivoire	2000	3.0	2012	4.8	2000	49.0	2012	60.9
Djibouti	2000	1.0	2012	6.6	2001	31.0	2012	83.2
DRC	2000	1.0	2012	4.3	2001	29.0	2012	72.8
Equatorial Guinea	2000	27.0	2012	53.5	2001	46.1	2012	54.8
Eritrea	2000	5.0	2012	12.6	2000	38.0	2012	31.2
Ethiopia	2000	2.0	2012	17.7	2001	19.3	2012	54.5
Gabon	2000	15.0	2011	35.3	2002	74.4	2005	86.0
Gambia, The	2003	17.0	2010	36.4	2001	70.6	2012	72.4
Ghana	2000	50.0	2012	113.9	2001	68.0	2012	98.2
Guinea	2003	8.0	2011	15.1	2000	32.1	2012	61.5
Guinea Bissau	2000	3.0	2010	5	2000	26.0	2010	62.0
Kenya	2000	43.0	2009	52.4	2000	74.0	2006	96.0
Lesotho	2000	19.0	2010	35.7	2000	63.0	2012	71.2
Liberia	2000	58.0	2008	141	2000	21.2	2011	65.2
Madagascar	2000	3.0	2011	10.7	2001	35.6	2012	69.5
Malawi	2000	2.0	2007	23	2000	62.6	2011	47.6
Mali	2000	2.0	2011	4.9	2000	32.0	2012	58.7
Mauritius	2000	91.0	2012	112.6	2000	104.1	2012	99.1
Mozambique					2000	16.6	2012	54.9
Namibia	2000	36.0	2006	30.1	2000	77.0	2012	90.0
Niger	2000	1.0	2012	6.9	2000	18.4	2012	55.5
Nigeria	2001	8.0	2010	13.4	2003	77.4		
Rwanda	2000	3.0	2012	14.5	2000	20.7	2012	75.0
Sao Tomé and Príncipe	2001	37.0	2012	61.8	2002	64.2	2011	115.8
Senegal	2000	3.0	2012	13.8	2000	39.1	2012	60.5
Seychelles	2000	139.0	2011	92.8	2000	112.9		
Sierra Leone	2000	4.0	2012	9.2	2000	45.0	2012	72.4
Somalia								
South Africa	2000	33.0	2012	78	2000	87.1	2009	94.8
South Sudan							2009	8.0
Swaziland	2004	16.0	2011	25.9	2000	61.7	2011	76.3
Togo	2000	2.0	2012	17.4	2000	63.2	2012	79.0
U. R. Tanzania	2003	27.0	2012	39.7	2001	62.9	2012	87.5
Uganda			2010	14.7	2001	61.5	2011	55.0
Zambia					2000	63.0	2012	94.2
Zimbabwe	2003	43.0			2001	89.2	2003	80.0
West Africa	15*	9.0	14*	16.4	14*	42.5	14*	67.7
East Africa	10*	14.1	11*	25.3	11*	45.0	9*	63.2
Southern Africa	5*	24.9	3*	69.3	9*	68.8	8*	76.2
Central Africa	10*	6.4	10*	13.1	10*	34.1	9*	64.0
Sub-Saharan Africa	40*	11.1	38*	19.9	44*	46.8	40*	66.6

Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.

Note: * Number of countries included in the computation of the indicator by region and for SSA.

Country	Goal 3: Education Needs of Youth				Goal 4: Adult Literacy			
	Lower Secondary Completion Rate (%)				Adult Literacy Rate, 15+ Years (%)			
	Year	Value	Year	Value	Year	Value	Year	Value
Angola	2002	17.8			2001	67.4	2011	70.4
Benin	2001	17.6	2011	40.8	2002	34.7	2010	42.4
Botswana	2000	88.8	2007	84.2	2003	81.2	2011	85.1
Burkina Faso	2001	8.0	2012	19.9	2003	21.8	2007	28.7
Burundi	2001	9.1	2012	20.2	2000	59.3	2010	67.2
Cameroon	2003	22.2	2011	52.5	2001	67.9	2010	71.3
Cabo Verde	2001	61.0	2012	85.6	2000	74.8	2011	84.9
CAR	2002	7.0	2012	13.0	2000	48.6	2011	56.6
Chad	2000	8.6	2012	16.0	2000	25.7	2011	35.4
Comoros	2002	27.1	2010	34.0	2004	72.4	2011	75.5
Congo	2000	30.0	2012	51.0	2004	84.4	2007	86.8
Côte d'Ivoire	2000	26.8	2012	33.8	2000	48.7	2011	56.9
Djibouti	2002	20.5	2012	55.2				
DRC	2001	18.0	2012	41.9	2001	67.2	2010	66.8
Equatorial Guinea	2002	31.9	2012	33.9	2000	87.0	2011	94.2
Eritrea	2000	24.5	2012	33.3	2002	52.5	2011	68.9
Ethiopia	2001	11.0	2012	25.7	2004	35.9	2007	39.0
Gabon	2001	34.0	2005	48.0	2004	77.4	2011	89.0
Gambia, The	2001	41.5	2012	64.7	2000	36.8	2011	51.1
Ghana	2000	52.6	2012	66.5	2000	57.9	2009	71.5
Guinea	2000	14.3	2011	31.5	2003	29.5	2010	25.3
Guinea Bissau	2000	13.0	2010	35.0	2000	37.0	2011	55.3
Kenya	2003	22.0	2006	50.3	2000	73.6	2010	87.4
Lesotho	2000	26.0	2012	41.7	2001	82.2	2010	89.6
Liberia	2000	13.0	2011	42.0	2004	52.0	2010	60.8
Madagascar	2001	13.0	2012	33.4	2000	70.7	2009	64.5
Malawi	2002	20.0	2011	19.1	2005	69.9	2010	74.8
Mali	2000	16.0	2011	43.1	2003	24.0	2011	33.4
Mauritius	2000	76.1	2012	84.3	2000	84.3	2011	88.8
Mozambique	2000	3.9	2012	23.7	2003	48.2	2010	56.1
Namibia	2000	53.0	2012	58.0	2001	85.0	2010	88.8
Niger	2001	4.0	2012	13.2	2001	9.4	2007	30.4
Nigeria	2003	34.8	2007	28.4			2010	61.3
Rwanda	2001	9.0	2012	37.7	2000	64.9	2010	71.1
Sao Tomé and Príncipe	2003	19.8	2011	45.2			2009	72.2
Senegal	2000	13.8	2012	34.8	2002	39.3	2009	49.7
Seychelles	2001	104.3	2008	112.5	2002	91.8	2011	91.8
Sierra Leone	2000	24.0	2012	55.6	2004	34.8	2011	43.3
Somalia			2007	8.6	2004	24.0		
South Africa	2000	77.0	2004	78.0	2005	87.1	2011	93.0
South Sudan			2009	1.0			2009	27.0
Swaziland	2000	33.3	2011	45.2	2000	79.6	2011	87.8
Togo	2000	21.6	2012	41.9	2000	53.2	2011	60.4
U. R. Tanzania	2001	7.5	2012	43.4	2002	69.4	2010	73.2
Uganda	2000	14.9	2011	27.0	2002	68.1	2010	73.2
Zambia	2000	25.9	2011	62.4	2002	69.1	2010	71.2
Zimbabwe	2002	51.0					2011	83.6
West Africa	14*	23.2	14*	39.0	12*	38.9	13*	53.6
East Africa	11*	13.9	9*	31.3	8*	71.9	9*	77.2
Southern Africa	8*	27.2	6*	34.0	6*	74.2	9*	81.1
Central Africa	10*	17.5	8*	38.6	7*	60.4	9*	69.2
Sub-Saharan Africa	43*	18.6	37*	35.3	33*	57.9	40*	68.6

Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.

Note: * Number of countries included in the computation of the indicator by region and for SSA.

Country	Goal 5: Parity and Equity				Goal 6: Educational Quality					
	GPI for Primary (Index)				Grade 5 Pupils Achieving the Minimum PASEC Score (%)**			Grade 6 Pupils Achieving the Minimum SACMEQ Score (%)**		
	Year	Value	Year	Value	Year	Lecture	Math	Year	Lecture	Math
Angola			2010	0.81						
Benin	2000	0.69	2012	0.91	2005	26.4	30.4			
Botswana	2000	1.00	2009	0.96				2007	75.8	43.7
Burkina Faso	2000	0.71	2012	0.96	2007	38.2	52.7			
Burundi	2000	0.80	2012	1.01	2009	53.4	66.4			
Cameroon	2000	0.85	2012	0.89	2005	71.2	63.5			
Cabo Verde	2000	0.97	2012	0.90						
CAR	2001	0.68	2012	0.75						
Chad	2000	0.61	2012	0.78	2010	37.2	42.4			
Comoros	2000	0.85	2012	0.91						
Congo	2000	0.93	2012	1.10	2007	37.4	43.6			
Côte d'Ivoire	2000	0.75	2012	0.86	2009	38.2	25.4			
Djibouti	2000	0.73	2012	0.91						
DRC	2002	0.78	2012	0.89	2010	48.0	64.4			
Equatorial Guinea	2000	0.95	2012	0.99						
Eritrea	2000	0.82	2012	0.86						
Ethiopia	2000	0.65	2012	0.93						
Gabon	2000	1.00	2011	0.97	2006	84.0	70.4			
Gambia, The	2000	0.87	2012	1.06						
Ghana	2000	0.93	2012	0.95						
Guinea	2000	0.69	2012	0.84						
Guinea Bissau	2000	0.67	2010	0.87						
Kenya	2000	0.99	2009	0.98				2007	80.2	61.6
Lesotho	2000	1.04	2012	0.97				2007	47.5	18.9
Liberia	2000	0.72	2011	0.92						
Madagascar	2000	0.96	2012	1.00						
Malawi	2000	0.96	2012	1.04				2007	26.7	8.3
Mali	2000	0.74	2012	0.90						
Mauritius	2000	1.00	2012	0.99				2007	78.8	73.2
Mozambique	2000	0.75	2012	0.92				2007	56.5	25.9
Namibia	2000	0.98	2012	0.97				2007	61.3	18.4
Niger	2000	0.69	2012	0.85						
Nigeria	2000	0.80	2010	0.91						
Rwanda	2000	0.97	2012	1.02						
Sao Tomé and Príncipe	2001	0.94	2012	1.00						
Senegal	2000	0.86	2012	1.09	2007	45.6	62.0			
Seychelles	2003	1.01	2011	1.06				2007	78.1	57.7
Sierra Leone	2001	0.68	2012	1.00						
Somalia			2007	0.55						
South Africa	2000	0.95	2012	0.95				2007	51.7	30.9
South Sudan			2011	0.66						
Swaziland	2000	0.94	2011	0.90				2007	93.0	55.6
Togo	2000	0.78	2012	0.92	2010	26.6	42.7			
U. R. Tanzania	2000	0.99	2012	1.04				2007	89.9	57.0
Uganda	2000	0.94	2011	1.02				2007	54.2	25.1
Zambia	2000	0.93	2012	1.00				2007	27.4	8.2
Zimbabwe	2000	0.97	2006	0.99				2007	62.8	42.7
West Africa	15*	0.77	15*	0.93						
East Africa	11*	0.90	12*	0.95						
Southern Africa	9*	0.95	8*	0.97						
Central Africa	9*	0.84	10*	0.82						
Sub-Saharan Africa	44*	0.85	45*	0.94						

Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.

Note: * Number of countries included in the computation of the indicator by region and for SSA.

** For PASEC, 40% of correct answers; for SACMEQ, Level 4 (Reading for meaning: "Reads on or reads back in order to link and interpret information located in various parts of the text;" Beginning numeracy: "Translates verbal or graphical information into simple arithmetic problems. Correctly uses multiple different arithmetic operations.")

Country	EDI (Index)				Upper Secondary Completion Rate (%)			
	Year	Value	Year	Value	Year	Value	Year	Value
Angola			2011	43.6				
Benin	2000	22.0	2012	44.6	2001	6.4	2011	19.5
Botswana	2000	82.1	2011	84.7	2000	44.6	2007	53.7
Burkina Faso	2000	13.7	2012	32.1	2001	2.7	2012	6.5
Burundi	2000	27.1	2012	56.8	2001	2.7	2012	5.9
Cameroon	2000	45.6	2012	60.1	2002	9.0	2011	25.0
Cabo Verde	2000	81.4	2012	83.6	2001	33.8	2012	52.1
CAR	2000	58.1	2012	72.7	2002	2.0	2012	6.7
Chad	2000	11.7	2012	22.5	2000	5.9	2012	14.6
Comoros	2000	53.0	2012	57.9	2002	16.4	2010	32.9
Congo	2000	55.0	2012	69.6	2000	15.0	2012	21.8
Côte d'Ivoire	2000	32.3	2012	45.2	2000	11.1	2012	20.3
Djibouti					2002	7.6	2012	26.7
DRC	2000	23.2	2012	34.0	2001	16.0	2012	22.3
Equatorial Guinea	2000	55.7	2012	66.1			2012	25.6
Eritrea	2000	31.3	2012	35.9	2001	9.0	2011	13.9
Ethiopia	2000	14.2	2012	36.1	2005	3.0	2010	5.7
Gabon	2000	69.8	2011	82.1	2001	17.0	2005	25.0
Gambia, The	2000	39.8	2012	51.4	2001	16.0	2012	30.3
Ghana	2000	52.3	2012	77.2	2000	14.3	2012	39.6
Guinea	2000	17.3	2012	29.6	2000	5.9	2011	18.0
Guinea Bissau	2000	17.4	2011	45.6	2000	5.0	2010	22.0
Kenya	2000	66.7	2010	87.7	2003	21.0	2005	23.0
Lesotho	2000	63.9	2012	73.4	2000	14.0	2012	28.8
Liberia	2000	21.3	2011	51.7	2000	17.4	2011	29.6
Madagascar	2000	42.4	2012	59.6	2001	5.3	2012	15.0
Malawi	2000	57.2	2012	51.0	2000	17.4	2012	15.2
Mali	2000	16.3	2012	34.0	2000	6.0	2011	12.3
Mauritius	2000	89.5	2012	91.3	2000	27.8	2012	52.0
Mozambique	2000	18.9	2012	44.4	2000	1.2	2012	9.8
Namibia	2000	74.6	2012	84.2	2000	29.4	2012	36.7
Niger	2000	6.9	2012	30.1	2000	2.5	2012	3.1
Nigeria					2003	25.8		
Rwanda	2000	32.0	2012	65.6	2001	7.0	2008	13.0
Sao Tomé and Príncipe			2012	81.2	2003	12.0	2011	12.3
Senegal	2000	27.7	2012	43.7	2000	6.3	2012	18.2
Seychelles	2000	93.6	2011	91.2	2001	88.0	2008	86.5
Sierra Leone	2000	23.3	2012	49.0	2000	15.0	2012	34.1
Somalia							2007	3.8
South Africa	2000	80.6	2012	88.9	2000	47.9	2004	43.9
South Sudan			2011	8.4				
Swaziland	2000	60.8	2011	71.5	2000	24.0	2011	33.9
Togo	2000	41.3	2012	58.8	2000	4.8	2012	19.3
U. R. Tanzania	2001	31.6	2012	57.8	2001	3.0	2012	4.5
Uganda	2000	54.7	2011	55.5	2000	5.8	2011	9.9
Zambia	2000	55.7	2012	77.4	2000	12.0	2011	28.1
Zimbabwe	2000	84.4	2011	76.2	2002	6.0		
West Africa	14*	26.7	14*	49.7	14*	8.7	14*	20.4
East Africa	10*	42.1	11*	58.0	10*	10.1	7*	9.7
Southern Africa	9*	63.9	9*	71.6	8*	10.2	6*	17.7
Central Africa	8*	35.1	10*	55.6	8*	12.0	8*	20.1
Sub-Saharan Africa	41*	38.3	44*	57.1	40*	10.2	35*	17.2

Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.

Note: * Number of countries included in the computation of the indicator by region and for SSA.

Country	TVET Enrollment (% of General Secondary)				TVET Learners per 100,000 inhabitants			
	Year	Value	Year	Value	Year	Value	Year	Value
Angola	2000	19.8	2010	29.9	2000	505	2010	1,917
Benin	2000	8.9	2011	7.7	2000	308	2011	659
Botswana	2000	6.5	2007	5.3	2000	601	2007	496
Burkina Faso	2000	8.0	2012	4.0	2000	135	2012	169
Burundi	2003	8.3	2012	4.2	2001	77	2010	246
Cameroon	2003	18.7	2012	21.0	2000	909	2011	1,918
Cabo Verde	2001	2.4	2012	2.7	2000	209	2012	331
CAR			2012	11.0	2001	136	2012	85
Chad	2000	2.4	2012	1.5	2000	26	2012	55
Comoros	2000	0.4	2005	0.4	2000	21	2012	53
Congo	2000	12.4	2012	10.1	2000	739	2012	792
Côte d'Ivoire	2000	6.8	2012	5.0	2000	275	2012	255
Djibouti	2000	6.7	2012	4.2	2000	173	2012	314
DRC	2001	9.7	2012	3.1	2002	871	2012	1,115
Equatorial Guinea	2000	5.9			2000	236		
Eritrea	2000	0.9	2012	1.3	2000	32	2012	41
Ethiopia	2000	1.3	2012	15.1	2000	12	2012	342
Gabon	2000	7.1	2009	3.3	2000	520	2009	377
Gambia, The			2010	9.6			2010	727
Ghana	2000	1.3	2012	3.9	2000	75	2012	315
Guinea	2003	1.4	2012	5.0	2000	145	2012	291
Guinea Bissau	2000	3.0	2010	1.1	2000	71	2010	55
Kenya	2000	0.5	2009	0.5	2000	29	2009	39
Lesotho	2000	1.8	2010	2.0	2000	71	2010	125
Liberia	2000	33.3	2011	7.4	2000	1,558	2011	431
Madagascar	2005	4.6	2012	2.0	2005	155	2012	125
Malawi			2007	2.2			2007	35
Mali	2000	12.8	2012	20.0	2000	312	2012	1,298
Mauritius	2000	9.5	2012	9.0	2000	842	2012	923
Mozambique	2000	16.2	2012	4.4	2000	110	2012	128
Namibia								
Niger			2012	5.9	2001	182	2012	146
Nigeria			2007	4.3			2007	178
Rwanda	2000	24.7	2011	12.2	2000	414	2012	549
Sao Tomé and Príncipe	2002	5.1	2011	7.8	2002	261	2011	551
Senegal	2000	1.8	2008	4.1	2000	45	2008	196
Seychelles								
Sierra Leone	2001	20.5	2010	8.0	2001	499	2009	480
Somalia								
South Africa	2000	4.8	2012	5.1	2000	442	2012	471
South Sudan	2000	8.5	2009	5.9			2009	33
Swaziland	2001	0.6			2001	32		
Togo	2000	5.8	2011	5.1	2000	313	2011	528
U. R. Tanzania	2002	26.7	2012	18.8			2012	526
Uganda	2000	5.1	2008	5.0	2000	116	2008	178
Zambia								
Zimbabwe								
West Africa	12*	6.2	13*	6.9	13*	235	13*	421
East Africa	8*	2.6	8*	6.9	8*	83	9*	292
Southern Africa	5*	5.1	3*	4.9	5*	366	3*	375
Central Africa	10*	20.7	9*	18.3	10*	694	9*	1,147
Sub-Saharan Africa	35*	8.3	33*	9.6	36*	356	34*	606

Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.

Note: * Number of countries included in the computation of the indicator by region and for SSA.

Higher Education (Students per 100,000 Inhabitants)				
Country	Year	Value	Year	Value
Angola	2002	84	2010	339
Benin	2000	377	2011	1,079
Botswana	2000	608	2006	857
Burkina Faso	2000	97	2012	411
Burundi	2000	103	2010	355
Cameroon	2000	439	2011	1,103
Cabo Verde	2000	185	2012	2,344
CAR	2000	176	2012	277
Chad	2000	75	2011	202
Comoros	2000	129	2012	975
Congo	2000	458	2012	906
Côte d'Ivoire	2000	676	2009	708
Djibouti	2000	30	2011	653
DRC	2000	214	2012	778
Equatorial Guinea	2000	194		
Eritrea	2000	105	2010	210
Ethiopia	2000	103	2012	756
Gabon	2001	622	2009	1,471
Gambia, The	2000	97	2010	447
Ghana	2005	559	2012	1,164
Guinea	2000	153	2012	782
Guinea Bissau	2000	38	2010	351
Kenya	2000	285	2009	422
Lesotho	2000	241	2012	1,243
Liberia	2000	1,525	2008	408
Madagascar	2000	198	2012	405
Malawi	2000	34	2011	79
Mali	2000	192	2012	655
Mauritius	2000	1,024	2012	3,240
Mozambique	2000	64	2011	462
Namibia	2001	691	2008	934
Niger	2001	64	2012	139
Nigeria	2003	931	2005	997
Rwanda	2000	121	2012	673
Sao Tomé and Príncipe	2002	120	2011	1,040
Senegal	2003	472	2010	711
Seychelles		,	2012	114
Sierra Leone	2000	163	2011	451
Somalia				
South Africa	2000	1,420	2006	1,536
South Sudan			2009	283
Swaziland	2000	445	2011	735
Togo	2000	281	2012	1,015
U. R. Tanzania	2001	68	2012	374
Uganda	2000	230	2011	824
Zambia	2000	243	2005	229
Zimbabwe	2000	371	2012	685
West Africa	13*	338	13*	719
East Africa	10*	160	11*	609
Southern Africa	8*	203	5*	444
Central Africa	10*	224	9*	680
Sub-Saharan Africa	41*	217	38*	636

Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.

Note: * Number of countries included in the computation of the indicator by region and for SSA.

Country	GPI – Lower Secondary (Index)		GPI – Upper Secondary (Index)		GPI – Higher Education (Index)	
	Year	Value	Year	Value	Year	Value
Angola	2010	0.26	2010	0.12	2010	0.82
Benin	2011	0.68	2011	0.43		
Botswana						
Burkina Faso	2012	0.86	2012	0.56	2012	0.48
Burundi	2012	0.80	2012	0.57	2010	0.53
Cameroon	2012	0.95	2012	0.90	2011	0.73
Cabo Verde	2012	1.04	2012	1.34	2012	1.33
CAR	2012	0.50	2012	0.57	2012	0.36
Chad	2012	0.50	2012	0.36	2011	0.24
Comoros						
Congo	2012	0.98	2012	0.60	2012	0.63
Côte d'Ivoire	2012	0.68	2012	0.63		
Djibouti	2012	0.79	2012	0.74	2011	0.67
DRC	2012	0.67	2012	0.54	2012	0.54
Equatorial Guinea	2012	0.94	2012	0.75		
Eritrea	2012	0.79	2012	0.75	2010	0.38
Ethiopia	2012	0.88	2012	0.77	2012	0.46
Gabon						
Gambia, The	2012	1.03	2012	0.90		
Ghana	2012	0.94	2012	0.86	2012	0.59
Guinea	2012	0.65	2012	0.56	2012	0.36
Guinea Bissau	2010	0.69	2010	0.67		
Kenya						
Lesotho	2012	1.35	2012	1.41	2012	1.42
Liberia	2011	0.83	2011	0.76		
Madagascar	2012	0.98	2012	0.93	2012	0.92
Malawi	2012	0.91	2012	0.75	2011	0.65
Mali	2012	0.79	2012	0.56	2012	0.41
Mauritius	2012	1.07	2012	1.14	2012	1.28
Mozambique	2012	0.91	2012	0.91	2011	0.60
Namibia	2012	1.12	2012	1.15		
Niger	2012	0.69	2012	0.46	2012	0.39
Nigeria						
Rwanda	2012	1.13			2012	0.78
Sao Tomé and Príncipe	2011	1.17	2011	1.10	2012	0.82
Senegal	2012	0.98	2012	0.79	2010	0.57
Seychelles	2011	1.03	2011	1.20	2012	3.09
Sierra Leone	2012	0.91	2012	0.75		
Somalia						
South Africa	2012	0.97	2012	1.12		
South Sudan						
Swaziland	2011	0.97	2011	0.99	2011	0.99
Togo	2012	0.66	2012	0.42	2012	0.27
U. R. Tanzania	2012	0.90	2012	0.47	2012	0.55
Uganda	2011	0.90	2011	0.68	2011	0.27
Zambia	2011	0.85	2011	0.92		
Zimbabwe					2012	0.77
West Africa	14*	0.83	14*	0.75	8*	0.64
East Africa	9*	0.96	8*	1.01	9*	0.81
Southern Africa	7*	1.01	7*	1.07	5*	0.99
Central Africa	9*	0.78	9*	0.58	8*	0.63
Sub-Saharan Africa	39*	0.88	38*	0.84	30*	0.73

Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.

Note: * Number of countries included in the computation of the indicator by region and for SSA.

Annex 3: Methodological Considerations

Timeframe Covered by the Report

This assessment report, elaborated from July 2014 onwards, represents an almost final evaluation of the level of achievement of the EFA goals, one year from the horizon set in 2000, of 2015. However, considering the time involved in the production and publication of national statistics, the report effectively reviews progress towards EFA over the period from 2000 to 2012.

Data Sources

The report has a participatory nature, and seeks to best reflect and value each country's context and progress. In processing data, priority has been given to national policies. The analysis is based on two types of sources: national education statistics, that represent the main source of data for Sections 1 and 2 of the report; and country responses to surveys carried out in 2012 and 2014, that are the main source for Sections 3 and 4.

The indicators offered are therefore computed giving priority to the data provided directly by countries (such as demographic data), complemented by those of the UNESCO Institute for Statistics and other institutions. For each country they reflect the effective education system structure (for instance, the length of the primary cycle retained for the computation of the primary completion rate might be of 5, 6, 7 or 8 years, depending on the country – See Annex 5).

Analysis by Region

The analysis by region (West Africa, East Africa, Southern Africa and Central Africa) carries several limitations, such as: (i) countries' characteristics within a same region are very diverse, which limits the representativity of the averages; (ii) some analyses performed at the country level cannot be carried out by region because of the non systematic nature of specific data collection (such as household surveys, data on learning outcomes or literacy); (iii) where data are not available for all countries of a given region, or are available for different countries at the start and end of the period, the averages are even less reliable.

Statistical analysis at the regional level is therefore severely limited in the choice of available indicators. As a result, in Sections 1 and 2 of this study, the following guidelines have been followed for the computation of averages:

- Dates close to the reference years (the oldest country data from 2000 to 2003 for the baseline and the most recent country data from 2009 to 2012 for the end of period) are used to achieve relatively high country coverage and therefore maximize geographical representativity.

- Regional indicators that encompass a demographic element have been weighted with national population data (such as gross enrollment, access and survival rates), whereas systemic indicators (such as the share of recurrent public expenditure devoted to education) are simple arithmetic means of the countries for which information is available.
- Simple arithmetic means are only computed if data are available for at least a third of a region's (or SSA's) countries, and they are always flagged as being purely indicative when based on data for under half of countries. Historical comparisons are therefore only provided when at least a third of countries is considered in both the baseline and end-of-period averages, and any substantial difference in the number of countries included in each is also flagged.
- Weighted averages only include the data for some countries whose demographic weight within a region is substantial if data are available for both the start-of-period and the end-of-period, to avoid any bias in the historical trends: Nigeria for West Africa, Ethiopia for East Africa, South Africa for Southern Africa and DRC for Central Africa, countries that represent at least a third of the total population of their respective regions.

It is important to keep these points in mind when reviewing the results presented.

The number of responses to the country questionnaires (see below) did not provide sufficient representativity at the regional level to enable a disaggregated analysis for Sections 3 and 4, to conduct meaningful and differentiated analysis, or to identify areas of convergence and trends. Moreover, all the questions included in the 2014 survey had a purely national focus, offering no scope for countries to share their views on education performance at the regional level. In these sections, the analysis is therefore carried out for Sub-Saharan Africa as a whole.

Considerations for Each EFA Goal

Goal 1: The available data for the early childhood care and protection (ECCE) subsector, that covers children aged 0 to 8 years, are often limited to preprimary education. However, even for this education level, the scarcity of data does not permit the computation of detailed indicators to account for the type of institutions created (from basic playschools to real preprimary education) or even to check the extent to which a given term refers to similar institutions in different countries. These statistics, and even the work produced on the basis of household surveys, even more rarely enable the analysis of beneficiary children's characteristics. Finally, it should also be noted that families and communities play an important part in terms of informal ECCE, which will not be reflected in the indicators used here.

Goal 2: In many countries the first measures implemented to support the development of primary education (abolishing fees or extending the abolition of fees), created situations of late entry (that are in part related to a generational catch-up phenomenon) or early access that mean that gross

enrollment rates mix several cohorts of children. In these circumstances, the indicator can adopt values higher than 100 percent, but a value of 100 percent does not necessarily mean that all children of a generation have access to school.

Goal 3: The phrasing of Goal 3 is fairly ambiguous, which makes a precise statistical measurement of its achievement more complex.

Goal 5: Although gender disparities may be relatively modest compared to those related to area of residence and household income, it is not possible to detail the evolution of these economic and geographic disparities due to the absence of data for most countries.

Goal 6: SACMEQ assessments are periodic, including all partner countries at the same time in common tests that appraise primary Grade 6 pupils' competency levels in reading and math. The basic competency level is Level 4 (Reading for meaning: "Reads on or reads back in order to link and interpret information located in various parts of the text;" Beginning numeracy: "Translates verbal or graphical information into simple arithmetic problems. Correctly uses multiple different arithmetic operations.")

The PASEC assessments are more analytical and focused on research into the factors of quality at the national level. They nevertheless provide comparability between countries given that some tests are given in the context of national assessments of primary Grade 2 and Grade 5 pupils. The basic competency level is set at 40 percent of correct answers, those pupils achieving lower scores being considered to have failed.

These assessments provide reasonable comparability among countries, but the data are obtained at different points in time and their representativity for some regions is limited. The SACMEQ III (2007) data cover the 9 countries of Southern Africa and 5 of the 13 countries of East Africa (two further countries, Madagascar and the Comoros, participate in the PASEC), whereas the PASEC VII, VIII and IX (2004-10) programme results provide data for 5 of the 15 countries of West Africa, and 6 of the 10 countries of Central Africa.

Analysis of Country Responses to the EFA Surveys

To enhance the legitimacy of their responses to the questionnaires, countries were encouraged to form or convene sector teams to prepare their answers, including national education ministry officers, civil society representatives and members of technical and financial partner agencies.

Given the limited sample of responses to the 2014 survey, the analysis in Sections 3 et 4 is also based on the responses to the 2012 survey. The full sample therefore includes 36 countries. However, due to differences in the structure, scope and questions of the two surveys, different country samples are used for different sections and parts of this report:

- A. Sample of 21 countries (close to half of SSA countries), for all the numerical variables (closed questions with answers given on a scale) of the 2014 survey, or all the countries having answered these questions.

- B. Sample of 36 countries for most of the text variables, or all the countries having answered these questions in 2014 (21 countries) and all the other countries having answered the 2012 questionnaire (15 countries). The responses to the 2012 questionnaire of those countries having also completed the 2014 survey are therefore not generally processed.
- C. Sample of 34 countries for the future priority goals (question 1.5 of the 2012 questionnaire - See Section 4), or all countries having answered this question. Indeed, the answers to question 3.2 of the 2014 questionnaire were unusable.

Sample A (2014 Questionnaire)	Sample B	Sample C (2012 Questionnaire)
Angola	Angola (Q. 2014)	Angola
Benin	Benin (Q. 2014)	Benin
Botswana	Botswana (Q. 2012)	Botswana
Burkina Faso	Burkina Faso (Q. 2014)	Burkina Faso
Burundi	Burundi (Q. 2012)	Burundi
Cameroon	Cabo Verde (Q. 2012)	Cabo Verde
(Congo*)	Cameroon (Q. 2014)	Cameroon
Côte d'Ivoire	Chad (Q. 2012)	Chad
	Congo (Q. 2012)	Congo
	Côte d'Ivoire (Q. 2014)	Côte d'Ivoire
	DRC (Q. 2012)	DRC
	Eritrea (Q. 2012)	Eritrea
	Gabon (Q. 2012)	Gabon
Gambia, The	Gambia, The (Q. 2014)	Gambia, The
Ghana	Ghana (Q. 2014)	Ghana
	Guinea (Q. 2012)	Guinea
	Guinea Bissau (Q. 2012)	Guinea Bissau
Kenya	Kenya (Q. 2014)	Kenya
Lesotho	Lesotho (Q. 2014)	Lesotho
Liberia	Liberia (Q. 2014)	Liberia
	Malawi (Q. 2012)	Malawi
Mali	Mali (Q. 2014)	
Mauritius	Mauritius (Q. 2014)	
Namibia	Namibia (Q. 2014)	Namibia
Niger	Niger (Q. 2014)	Niger
	Nigeria (Q. 2012)	Nigeria
Sao Tomé and Príncipe	Sao Tomé and Príncipe (Q. 2014)	Sao Tomé and Príncipe
Senegal	Senegal (Q. 2014)	Senegal
	Seychelles (Q. 2012)	Seychelles
	Sierra Leone (Q. 2012)	Sierra Leone
	South Africa (Q. 2012)	South Africa
Swaziland	Swaziland (Q. 2014)	Swaziland
	Togo (Q. 2012)	Togo
U. R. Tanzania	U. R. Tanzania (Q. 2012)	U. R. Tanzania
Uganda	Uganda (Q. 2014)	Uganda
	Zambia (Q. 2012)	Zambia
Sample Size: 21 * Number of Respondents: 22	Sample Size: 36	Sample Size: 34 Number of Respondents: 34

Note: * In response to the 2014 survey, Congo used an open format, meaning it could not be included in the analysis of the Sample A responses.

The analysis of the closed questions (Sample A) consisted in the compilation of average scores for each factor included in the questionnaire (questions 1.1 to 1.7 and 2.1 to 2.10 – See Annex 4), that reflect both the number of countries having expressed a favorable or unfavorable opinion, as well as the level of their approval or disapproval. These scores have been adjusted for blanks to reflect the overall sample size (21 countries).

The scores, based on responses according to a scale ranging from -3 to +3, allow for a purely comparative interpretation of results and their individual values have no particular meaning.

In the processing of country responses to the 2014 survey, some limitations were faced:

- Question 3.1: The question was misinterpreted, most countries having provided 3 or 4 answers (consolidation, pursuit, readjustment, management of consequences), making the results unusable.
- Question 3.2: A single variable was created for the *Timeframe* column, given that the dates provided rarely vary among cycles, and then only marginally.
- Question 3.3: The responses for the *Annual Policy Cost* are of value for country-level analysis, but the amounts indicated are neither comparable nor can they be combined, given that the development context of each country's education system is distinct, populations vary considerably, and so on. Furthermore the sample of effective answers to this question is only composed of 7 countries. These answers have therefore not been processed.

Annex 4: Country Questionnaire

EFA Questionnaire 2014

Section 1: Achievement of Education for All (EFA) Goals

1.1 *Global EFA Policy*: Overall, have the following items been strengths or weaknesses of the EFA policy in your country since 2000?

	Baseline Situation	Teachers' Commitment	Families' Commitment	Government Commitment (Education)	Government Commitment (Other)	Political Commitment	Social Commitment	National Financing	External Financing	Donor Relations
Strengths 1 to 3+										
Weaknesses 1 to 3-										
Trends (↗, ↘, →)	n/a									

1.2 *EFA Goal 1 (Early Childhood Education and Care)*: Have the following items been strengths or weaknesses of the EFA policy in your country since 2000?

	Baseline Situation	Teachers' Commitment	Families' Commitment	Government Commitment (Education)	Government Commitment (Other)	Political Commitment	Social Commitment	National Financing	External Financing	Donor Relations
Strengths 1 to 3+										
Weaknesses 1 to 3-										
Trends (↗, ↘, →)	n/a									

Comment on the national policy pertaining to Goal 1 over the period (successes/failures/lessons learned for the future, and so on):

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1.3 EFA Goal 2 (Universal Primary Education). Have the following items been strengths or weaknesses of the EFA policy in your country since 2000?

	Baseline Situation	Teachers' Commitment	Families' Commitment	Government Commitment (Education)	Government Commitment (Other)	Political Commitment	Social Commitment	National Financing	External Financing	Donor Relations
Strengths 1 to 3 +										
Weaknesses 1 to 3 -										
Trends (↗, ↘, →)	n/a									

Comment on the national policy pertaining to Goal 2 over the period (successes/failures/lessons learned for the future, and so on):

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1.4 EFA Goal 3 (Education Needs of all Youth and Adults): Have the following items been strengths or weaknesses of the EFA policy in your country since 2000?

	Baseline Situation	Teachers' Commitment	Families' Commitment	Government Commitment (Education)	Government Commitment (Other)	Political Commitment	Social Commitment	National Financing	External Financing	Donor Relations
Strengths 1 to 3 +										
Weaknesses 1 to 3 -										
Trends (↗, ↘, →)	n/a									

Comment on the national policy pertaining to Goal 3 over the period (successes/failures/lessons learned for the future, and so on):

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1.5 EFA Goal 4 (Improve the Level of Adult Literacy): Have the following items been strengths or weaknesses of the EFA policy in your country since 2000?

	Baseline Situation	Teachers' Commitment	Families' Commitment	Government Commitment (Education)	Government Commitment (Other)	Political Commitment	Social Commitment	National Financing	External Financing	Donor Relations
Strengths 1 to 3 +										
Weaknesses 1 to 3 -										
Trends (↗, ↘, →)	n/a									

Comment on the national policy pertaining to Goal 4 over the period (successes/failures/lessons learned for the future, and so on):

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1.6 EFA Goal 5 (Gender Parity in Primary and Secondary Education): Have the following items been strengths or weaknesses of the EFA policy in your country since 2000?

	Baseline Situation	Teachers' Commitment	Families' Commitment	Government Commitment (Education)	Government Commitment (Other)	Political Commitment	Social Commitment	National Financing	External Financing	Donor Relations
Strengths 1 to 3 +										
Weaknesses 1 to 3 -										
Trends (↗, ↘, →)	n/a									

Comment on the national policy pertaining to Goal 5 over the period (successes/failures/lessons learned for the future, and so on):

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Main Lessons Learned (Positive and Negative)

Positive Lessons

Negative Lessons

Section 2: Opinions on the Global EFA Framework and its Components

The EFA framework is defined as the set of actions implemented to promote and finance EFA, from the precise setting of EFA goals and modalities in 2000, through to the cooperation and financing framework established: international coordination of initiatives, local coordination of donors (harmonization, alignment and so on), new financing structures such as the Fast Track Initiative and its procedures (sectoral analysis, credible sector plan, monitoring framework).

On the scale below, please indicate by a tick your opinion of each of the following items describing the global EFA framework (-3 is total disagreement and +3 is total agreement, with more or less positive or negative positions in between).

-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3
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2.1 Has the EFA framework reflected your country's vision of the development of the education system?

-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3
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Please help us better understand your answer by giving some brief comments:

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2.2 Has the EFA framework been helpful in determining and conducting national education policy?

-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3
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Please help us better understand your answer by giving some brief comments:

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2.3 Were the goals set (6) relevant to the development of your country?

-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3
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Please help us better understand your answer by giving some brief comments:

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2.4 Existence of quantified targets:

-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3
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Please help us better understand your answer by giving some brief comments:

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2.5 The ambitious character of these goals, in the light of your situation:

-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3
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Please help us better understand your answer by giving some brief comments:

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2.6 The requirement of a credible plan:

-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3
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Please help us better understand your answer by giving some brief comments:

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2.7 Cooperation framework with development partners:

-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3
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Please help us better understand your answer by giving some brief comments:

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2.8 The level of external financing:

-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3
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Please help us better understand your answer by giving some brief comments:

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2.9 The procedures of development partners:

-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3
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Please help us better understand your answer by giving some brief comments:

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2.10 The EFA Fast Track Initiative, today replaced by the Global Partnership for Education:

-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3
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Please help us better understand your answer by giving some brief comments:

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Section 3: National Education Strategy for the Post-2015 Period

3.1 Your stance on past EFA policy (tick the box best fitting your answer):

	Building on Past Achievements	Pursuit of EFA Goals	Readjusting EFA Goals and Setting New Priorities	Managing the Consequences of Past Choices (Post Primary Enrollment, Quality)	Others (state)
Rather yes					
Rather no					

3.2 State your precise goals and timeframes

Level/Type of Education	Global Goals (Post-2015)			Operational Goals (Indicators)	Timeframe (Year)
	Access	Equity	Quality		
Preprimary					
Primary					
Lower Secondary					
Basic Education					
Upper Secondary					
TVET					
Higher Education					
Literacy and Adult Education					
Strengthening Contemporary Education Values ¹					

¹ Education for sustainable development; values education; education for peace and so on.

3.3 Your National/External Financing Choices

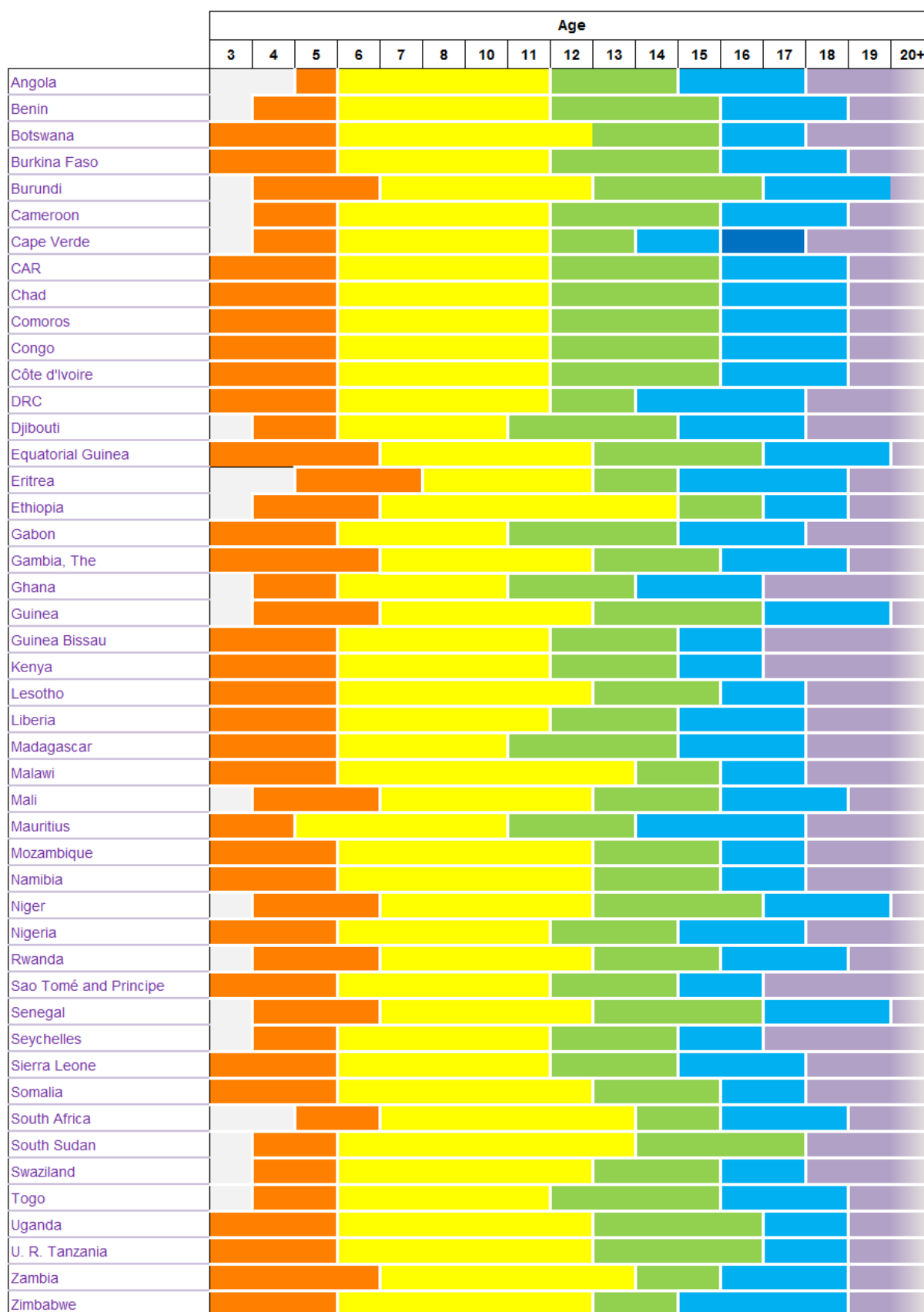
Level/Type of Education	Global Goals (post-2015)	Annual Cost Estimate for this Policy	% of External Financing Sought
Preprimary			
Primary			
Lower Secondary			
Basic Education			
Upper Secondary			
TVET			
Higher Education			
Literacy and Adult Education			
Strengthening Contemporary Education Values			

3.4 Your wishes in terms of international coordination/cooperation:

Would you like to see another international EFA framework set up to determine education policy post-2015?

	Yes, by extending the existing EFA framework	
	Yes, but significantly modifying the existing framework (specify the changes you expect)	Procedures..... Means..... Other.....
	Yes, by linking it to a national framework based on national challenges and constraints faced by the country	
	No, a national framework is sufficient	Specify.....

Annex 5: The Structure of Education Systems in SSA



Legend ■ Preprimary ■ Primary ■ Lower Secondary ■ Upper Secondary ■ Further Secondary ■ Higher

Source: IIEP/Pôle de Dakar Indicator Database.

Annex 6: List of SSA Countries Having Conducted CSR-Type Sector Analysis

Country	Year
Benin	2002, 2009 et 2012
Burkina Faso	2000 et 2010
Burundi	2007 et 2012
Cabo Verde	2011
Cameroon	2003 et 2013
Central African Republic	2008
Chad	2007 et 2014
Comoros	2011
Congo	2010
Côte d'Ivoire	2005 et 2011
Democratic Republic of Congo	2005 et 2014
Djibouti	2009
Ethiopia	2005
Gabon	2012
Gambia, The	2011
Ghana	2011
Guinea	2005
Guinea Bissau	2010
Kenya	2004
Lesotho	2005
Liberia	2010
Madagascar	2001 et 2008
Malawi	2004 et 2010
Mali	2007 et 2010
Mozambique	2003
Namibia	2005
Niger	2000, 2004 et 2012
Nigeria	2004
Rwanda	2003, 2011 et 2013
Sao Tomé and Príncipe	2012
Sierra Leone	2007 et 2012
South Sudan	2012
Swaziland	2006 et 2010
Togo	2003, 2007 et 2013
United Republic of Tanzania	2011
Zambia	2004

Source: World Bank, UNICEF and UNESCO/IIEP/Pôle de Dakar.



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Cultural Organization

Dakar
Regional Office



United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization



International Institute
for Educational Planning

Pôle de Dakar
EDUCATION SECTOR ANALYSIS