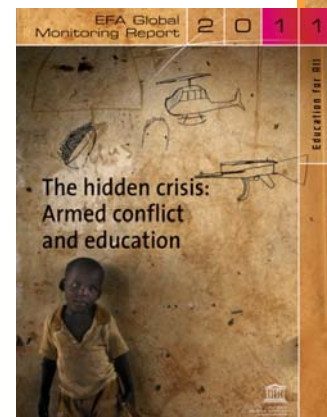
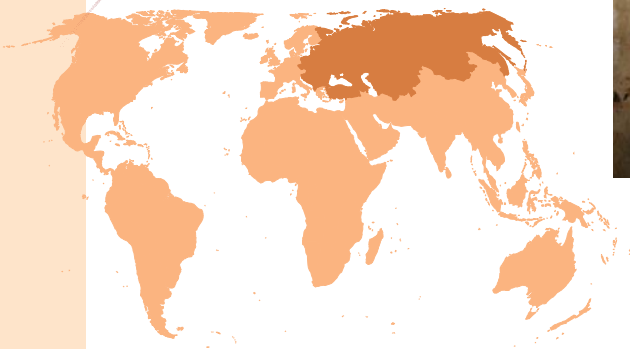


Regional overview: Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia



The past decade has seen some advances towards Education for All (EFA) in Central and Eastern Europe and in Central Asia.¹ In both regions, many countries have achieved universal primary education (UPE), literacy rates are high, gender gaps in primary and secondary education are small, and enrolment rates in pre-primary education have increased significantly. In Central Asia, many more children are moving from primary school to secondary education. Yet major challenges remain. Some countries are registering increasing numbers of children not enrolled in school. Levels of learning achievement are low in some countries and the learning needs of young people and adults suffer from neglect. While Central and Eastern Europe has stepped up its investment in education, the share of national income invested in education in Central Asia has declined to the lowest level in the world. On the other hand, external aid to basic education has increased in recent years, particularly in Central Asia.

The 2011 *EFA Global Monitoring Report* puts the spotlight on armed conflict and one of its most damaging yet least reported consequences: its impact on education.

Conflict-affected states have some of the world's worst indicators for education. The Report documents the scale of this hidden crisis in education, looks at its underlying causes and explores the links between armed conflict and education. It also presents recommendations to address failures that contribute to the hidden crisis. It calls on governments to demonstrate greater resolve in combating the culture of impunity surrounding attacks on schoolchildren and schools, sets out an agenda for fixing the international aid architecture and identifies strategies for strengthening the role of education in peacebuilding.

Goal 1: Early childhood care and education

Children's education opportunities are shaped long before they enter primary school. The linguistic, cognitive and social skills they develop through early childhood care and education (ECCE) are the foundations for expanded life chances and for lifelong learning. Indicators of child well-being are high for Central and Eastern Europe (CEE), but still comparatively low for Central Asia (CA). Large disparities exist between and within countries in both regions.

Declines in child mortality rates continue. Child mortality is a sensitive barometer of progress towards goal 1. Over the past decade, child mortality rates have fallen in all the world's regions, including CEE and CA. On average, 52 of every 1,000 children born in CA will not reach age 5, compared with 19 of every 1,000 in CEE. There are also large differences in under-5 mortality rates across countries, ranging from 5‰ in the Czech Republic and Slovenia to 32‰ in Turkey (CEE) and from 28‰ in Armenia to 78‰ in Tajikistan (CA).

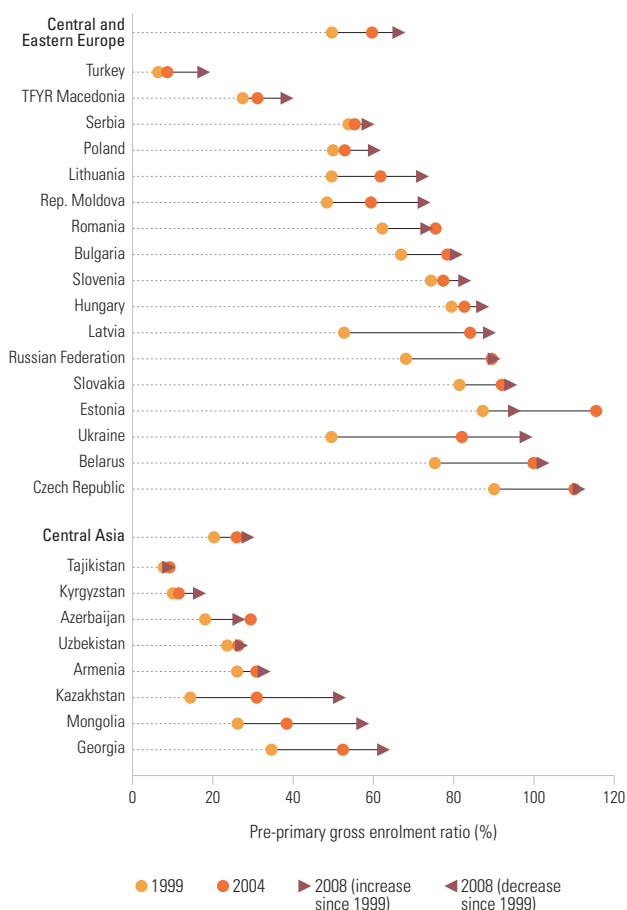
1. This is according to the EFA classification. See the table at the end for countries in the regions.

Education saves lives. The risk of childhood death is closely linked to household wealth and maternal education. In Azerbaijan, the under-5 mortality rate is 68‰ among children of mothers with no education but 58‰ for mothers having some secondary education. More educated women have better access to reproductive health information and are more likely to have fewer children and to provide them with better nutrition, all of which reduce the risk of child mortality.

Malnutrition is a major barrier for achieving EFA. Poor nutrition prevents children developing healthy bodies and minds. A sharp rise in food prices in 2008 combined with the global recession continues to undermine efforts to combat hunger in several countries in the region. On average, 19% of children under age 5 in CA are affected by moderate or severe stunting (short for their age) while the corresponding figure for CEE is 9%. The prevalence is particularly high in poorer countries: in Mongolia, 28% of children suffer from stunting and in Tajikistan the figure is 33% (CA), while in Albania 26% of children are affected (CEE).

Figure 1: Pre-primary participation has increased significantly in many countries

Pre-primary gross enrolment ratio, selected countries, 1999, 2004 and 2008



Sources: EFA Global Monitoring Report 2011, Annex, Statistical Table 3B; UIS database.

Participation in pre-primary education is far from universal. In 2008, nearly 1.5 million children in CA and more than 10 million in CEE were enrolled in pre-primary education, representing increases of 11% and 9%, respectively, since 1999. However, the regional gross enrolment ratios (GERs) of 29% in CA and 66% in CEE indicate that many children in both regions were still excluded from pre-primary education in 2008.

The rate of progress in increasing enrolment in pre-primary education has been uneven. Some countries made initial advances in the first half of the 2000s while others began to progress more recently. For example, pre-primary GERs grew faster in the first half of the decade in Georgia, Kazakhstan, Latvia and Ukraine while progress has been more rapid after 2004 in Kyrgyzstan, Mongolia and Turkey (Figure 1).

Children living with high levels of poverty are in greatest need of ECCE, yet they are least likely to attend such programmes. In Tajikistan, attendance rates in early learning programmes vary from 1.3% of children in the poorest 20% of households to almost 30% in the wealthiest quintile. Kazakhstan has a national attendance rate of 16%, but children from the wealthiest homes are more than sixteen times as likely as poor children to attend an early learning programme.

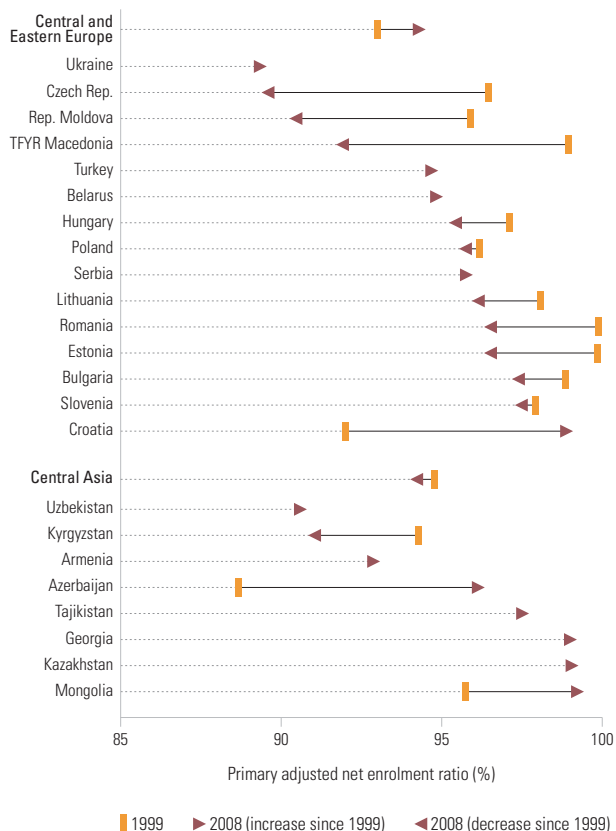
Goal 2: Universal primary education

Over the past decade, progress towards UPE has been uneven across Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia. While many countries have relatively high primary enrolment rates, in some the numbers of children not enrolled are increasing.

Progress towards UPE is limited. From 1999 to 2008, the numbers of children enrolled in primary education decreased by 5 million in CEE and by nearly 1.3 million in CA. Despite demographic changes due to declining fertility rates, the regional primary adjusted net enrolment ratios (ANERs)² remained about the same over the decade to stand in both regions at an average of 94% in 2008. However, primary ANERs declined between 1999 and 2008 in all but one of the eleven CEE countries with sufficient data, while two of the three CA countries with data registered increases.

Progress towards UPE was particularly strong in Azerbaijan and Croatia, whose primary ANERs increased by more than seven percentage points each between 1999 and 2008. Indeed, Croatia reached UPE, with an ANER of 99% in 2008. By contrast, the situation deteriorated in several countries, most dramatically in the Czech Republic and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (CEE) and in Kyrgyzstan (CA) (Figure 2).

2. The primary ANER measures the proportion of children of primary school age who are enrolled either in primary or secondary school.

Figure 2: Uneven progress towards universal primary education*Primary education adjusted net enrolment ratio, selected countries, 1999 and 2008*

Sources: EFA Global Monitoring Report 2011, Annex, Statistical Table 5 (website).

Numbers of children out of school are declining, but at varying speeds. In CEE, 1.1 million children of primary school age were not enrolled in school in 2008 (down by 32% from 1999), and the figure for CA was 322,000 (a decrease of 11%). However, in CA, after an average decline of 20,645 per year between 1999 and 2004, the number of out-of-school children rose by 15,400 annually from 2004 to 2008. Several countries have registered slippage in the rate of progress in reducing out-of-school numbers, most notably Hungary in CEE and Kyrgyzstan in CA. Out-of-school numbers in Kyrgyzstan fell by nearly 1,900 annually from 1999 to 2004, but increased by more than 4,900 per year between 2004 and 2008. By contrast, progress has recently accelerated in some countries, including Bulgaria and Romania (CEE) and Mongolia (CA).

Many children will remain out of school in 2015. Trend analysis provides insights into plausible scenarios for the numbers of children out of school in 2015. In Romania, for example, a continuation to 2015 of the trend from 1999 to 2008 would see the out-of-school number increase by 70% to 51,300. Turkey would see a 6% decline but still have 340,000 children out of school. A continuation to 2015 of the shorter 2004–2009 trend for Turkey, however, would mean a decrease of about two-thirds in the out-of-school number to just over 130,000.

Starting school at the right age is still a challenge in some countries. Getting children into primary school at the right age, ensuring that they progress smoothly and facilitating completion are key elements to advance towards UPE. Some countries in Central Asia are struggling to get children into primary school at the official starting age. In 2008, only three-quarters of children starting school in CA were of official primary school age, and the rate went as low as 54% in Armenia. However, rapid change is possible. In Georgia, the share of children starting school at the official age increased from 66% in 1999 to 97% in 2008.

High rates of survival to the last grade of primary school. Once children are enrolled at the right age, the challenge is to get them through school. On average in 2007, 97% of children starting primary school in CEE and 99% in CA reached the last grade. Mongolia saw the most significant improvement in the survival rate for either region, from 87% in 1999 to 95% in 2007.

Prospects for entry, progression and completion of primary school are closely linked to household circumstances. Children who are poor, rural or from ethnic or linguistic minorities face higher risks of dropping out. In Serbia, almost 91% of ethnic Serbs aged 17 to 22 have completed primary school, nearly seven times the completion rate of their Roma counterparts, at 13%.

Goal 3: Youth and adult learning

The skills developed through education are vital not just for the well-being of young people and adults, but also for employment and economic prosperity. Notwithstanding an increase in secondary school enrolment in recent years, many countries in Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia struggle to expand appropriate learning and life-skills programmes.

Secondary school participation has stagnated in Central and Eastern Europe, but continues to expand in Central Asia.

Despite a significant decline in the size of the secondary school age population in CEE, the region's secondary GER has increased by only 1% since 1999, to reach 88% in 2008. Nearly 1.7 million adolescents were still outside the education system in 2008. Participation levels remained relatively low in some countries in CEE, with GERs at or below 85% in the Russian Federation, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Turkey. In sharp contrast, Central Asia saw rapid expansion in secondary education, with the regional GER increasing from 86% in 1999 to 97% in 2008. Progress was most marked in Mongolia, where the secondary GER rose from 61% in 1999 to 95% in 2008.

Secondary school attendance and completion are strongly influenced by poverty, location and gender. Among 23- to

27-year-olds in Armenia, those from the wealthiest 20% of households have a secondary completion rate of 34%, compared with 8% for the poorest 20%. In Ukraine, the urban poor are 1.7 times as likely to complete secondary school as the rural poor.

Second-chance programmes can provide a skills development lifeline to youth and adults who missed out on earlier opportunities, but such programmes are scarce in some countries. Moreover, their record is mixed; in some cases, graduates gain few employable skills. Experience shows, however, that when courses are properly resourced and designed to generate skills that employers need, much can be achieved.

Both regions made strong progress in participation in tertiary education. In an increasingly knowledge-based global economy, higher education systems play a vital role in skills development. In Central and Eastern Europe, more than 21 million students were enrolled in tertiary education in 2008, up by more than two-thirds since 1999, and the region's GER rose from 38% in 1999 to 64% in 2008. Total enrolment in tertiary education in Central Asia increased by around two-thirds over the period, to 2.1 million, with the region's GER climbing from 19% to 25%.

Goal 4: Adult literacy

Literacy opens doors to better livelihoods, improved health and expanded opportunity. It empowers people to take an active role in their communities and to build more secure futures for their families. Overall adult literacy rates are high in both regions, although disparities exist across and within countries.

Adult literacy rates are high. Over the past two decades, the average adult literacy rates have increased slightly in both regions, reaching 98% in Central and Eastern Europe and 99% in Central Asia for 2005–2008. The absolute numbers of adults lacking basic literacy and numeracy skills fell by more than one-third in CEE and by more than three-fifths in CA. Yet more than 7.9 million adults were still illiterate in CEE in 2008, almost three-quarters of them in Turkey. CA had just over 362,000 illiterate adults, with more than two-fifths of them in Uzbekistan.

Disparities in literacy rates exist within countries. On average, the two regions have achieved gender parity in adult literacy, but disparities between women and men still exist in some countries. In particular, women's literacy rate in Turkey was 81% in 2007, fifteen percentage points lower than that of men. Patterns of literacy are also strongly related to wealth and household location, with poor rural women being the most marginalized. In Mongolia, 97% of women in the wealthiest households are literate, compared with 75% for the poorest households. In some countries, literacy rates among ethnic

and language minority groups can fall far behind those of larger population groups. The literacy rate among Roma women in Serbia is about 46%, compared with 78% for women in the majority Serbian population.

Effective and affordable policies and programmes exist.

Turkey's recent experience shows that literacy policy can be effective: while its adult literacy rate is still relatively low for the two regions, it has risen by more than nine percentage points in the past fifteen to twenty years. Effective literacy programmes tend to combine strong leadership with clear targets backed by financial commitments, and teach relevant skills using appropriate methods and language of instruction.

Goal 5: Gender parity and equality

The large majority of countries in Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia have achieved gender parity in primary and secondary school enrolment, though gender disparities in tertiary education remain widespread in both regions.

Gender parity in primary education has been achieved in both regions. In 2008, the ratio of girls to boys – that is, the gender parity index (GPI) – in primary education was 0.99 in CEE and at 0.98 in CA. Gender parity had been achieved at the primary school level in all countries except Latvia in CEE and Tajikistan in CA. Projections to 2015 suggest that Tajikistan's primary GPI will remain the same as in 2008, at 0.96, while projections for Latvia could not be made due to lack of sufficient data.

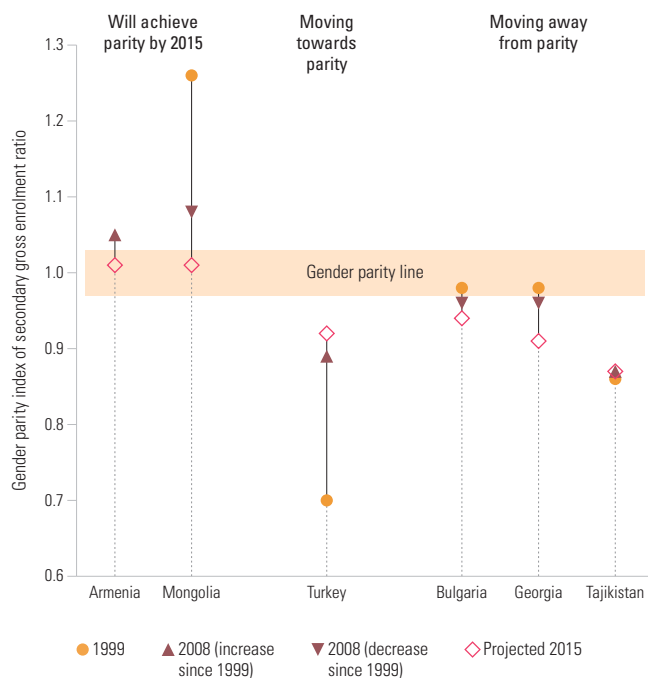
Levels of gender parity in secondary education are high. In secondary education, both regions have moved slightly farther away from gender parity but still register high levels: the secondary GPI of GER was 0.96 in CEE and 0.98 in CA in 2008.

Seventeen out of nineteen countries in CEE have achieved gender parity at the secondary level. Gender disparity to the advantage of boys is most marked in Turkey, where the secondary GPI was 0.89 in 2008. Projections to 2015 for Bulgaria and Turkey, the two countries in CEE that still need to achieve gender parity in secondary education, suggest that both will fall short of the target. Bulgaria is expected to move slightly away from the goal while Turkey is moving in the right direction.

Half of the eight countries in Central Asia with data had achieved gender parity in secondary education. For the four countries not yet at parity, the pattern of disparities is mixed: in Armenia and Mongolia, girls are more likely than boys to be enrolled in secondary education, while the opposite holds in Georgia and Tajikistan. Projections suggest that only Armenia and Mongolia will achieve parity by 2015 (Figure 3).

Figure 3: Prospects for achieving gender parity in secondary education by 2015 are low for most countries

Gender parity index of secondary gross enrolment ratios, 1999, 2008 and projected values for 2015



Notes: Only countries that did not achieve gender parity by 2008 are included. Determination of progress towards gender parity is based on the difference and direction between observed 2008 and projected 2015 values.

Sources: EFA Global Monitoring Report 2011, Annex, Statistical Table 7; UIS database.

differences in learning achievements between some countries and deep inequalities within countries. The 2006 Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) assessed reading skills of grade 4 students in forty countries across the world against four international benchmarks. In middle income countries such as Georgia in CA and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia in CEE, a majority of students had not acquired basic reading skills even after four years of primary school. In contrast, Bulgaria, Hungary and the Russian Federation were among the top performers among the forty countries, with a majority of students scoring at the two highest benchmarks.

Narrowing learning gaps requires concerted efforts. School selection processes often influence variations in performance. High-performing schools often draw students from more advantaged catchment areas. In many cases, they also apply selection criteria that have the effect of excluding children from disadvantaged homes. One recent study in Turkey using data from the 2006 OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) showed that school admission procedures led to clustering of students from similar socio-economic backgrounds in particular schools. This resulted in wide learning disparities between rich and poor students, and to peer-group effects that reinforced initial disadvantages. Managing school selection processes to achieve a more diverse social mix can help counteract sources of inequality in learning achievement.

Goal 6: The quality of education

Getting children into school is a necessary but insufficient condition for achieving Education for All. What children learn in the classroom is what ultimately counts. Levels of learning achievement vary widely across countries in both regions.

Improvement continues in numbers of pupils per teacher.

Progress in education quality depends on having sufficient teachers and ensuring that they are properly trained and supported. In 2008, Central and Eastern Europe had around 1.1 million primary school teachers, a 17% decline since 1999, while the number in Central Asia was roughly unchanged at about 330,000. Declining primary school populations lowered the pupil/teacher ratios in both regions, to 18:1 in CEE and 17:1 in CA.

Teacher recruitment in CA was stronger at the secondary level, rising by 11% between 1999 and 2008. By contrast, CEE reported an 11% decrease. The average pupil/teacher ratio in secondary education was 11:1 in both regions in 2008.

Disparities in learning achievement across countries exist.

International learning assessments have highlighted large

Financing education

Public spending on education is a vital investment in national prosperity and has a crucial bearing on progress towards the Education for All goals. Several countries in both regions backed up stronger economic growth between 1999 and 2008 with increased commitments to education, but the recent financial crisis had an impact on government spending in education in some countries. Plans to reduce fiscal deficits among donor and national governments in coming years also threaten future increases in education spending required to achieve the EFA goals in the regions' poorest countries.

National financing

Financial commitment has risen in Central and Eastern Europe.

Central and Eastern Europe reported a notable increase in the commitment to education, with education spending as a share of regional GNP rising from 4.6% in 1999 to 5.1% in 2008.³ Half the ten countries with data increased their education financing effort over the period, and in the Republic of Moldova it grew by nearly three percentage points to 7.5%.

3. All global and regional values are medians. Only countries that have data for 1999 and 2008 (or closest available year) are used to calculate regional group medians, which therefore differ from median figures reported in the annex table.

Financial commitment is low and declining in Central Asia.

CA as a whole registered a large decrease in its financial commitment: the share of national income invested in education fell from 4.0% in 1999 to 3.2% in 2008 – well below the world median value of 5%. The decline was highest in Azerbaijan, with a drop from 4.3% to 2.1%. Education spending did improve, however, in several countries, including Kyrgyzstan, with an increase from 4.3% to 6.7%.

Some governments are investing more in education.

The period from 1999 to 2008 was marked by high economic growth. The rate at which growth is converted into increased education spending depends on wider public spending decisions. In eight of the fourteen countries with data in CEE and CA, real growth in education spending was higher than economic growth rates. However, the remaining countries converted a smaller share of their growth premium into education financing. In Kazakhstan, real spending on education increased by 7.2% annually between 1999 and 2008, but economic growth averaged 10.2% a year. In Azerbaijan, the economy grew at 16.3% a year on average, yet real spending on education rose by 7.8% a year.

Although the impact of the financial crisis and higher food prices on education financing varies across poor countries, some have been badly damaged. A recent survey of actual 2009 and planned 2010 spending in twenty-eight low and lower middle income countries shows some clear warning signs for a deepening crisis in education financing. However, Mongolia and the Republic of Moldova, the only countries from the two regions included in the survey, increased education spending in 2009 – Mongolia by 14%, the Republic of Moldova by 16%. Budget allocations for 2010 in both countries were nevertheless significantly lower than actual spending in 2009, and in Mongolia even lower than in 2008.

International aid financing

Aid to education continued expanding in both regions. National policies and financing have been the main source of progress towards the EFA goals in the two regions. Yet international aid plays a key supplementary role in the regions' poorest countries. Averaged over 2007 and 2008, aid disbursements for education in CEE amounted to US\$565 million, a 69% increase from the 2002–2003 level. Aid to education to CA increased even more sharply, by 102%, to US\$225 million in 2007–2008. The largest aid recipients were Turkey in CEE at US\$177 million in 2007–2008 and Georgia in CA at US\$59 million.

Basic education has low priority in aid allocations. Aid disbursements to basic education in CEE increased from an average of US\$84 million in 2002–2003 to US\$95 million in 2007–2008. This translates into US\$10 per primary school age child, up from US\$8 in 2002–2003. Aid to basic education in CA more than doubled to nearly US\$63 million in 2007–2008, representing US\$11 per child. However, basic education has

low priority in aid allocations in both regions: in 2007–2008, only 17% of all aid to education in CEE and 28% in CA was allocated to this level.

Levels of aid vary widely by country. Aid allocations for basic education to individual countries varied considerably, ranging in Central and Eastern Europe from US\$1 per primary school age child in Ukraine to US\$100 in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, and in Central Asia from US\$1 per child in Kazakhstan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan to US\$67 in Mongolia. The allocation of aid to basic education across countries often appears arbitrary and does not always benefit the countries with the largest financing requirements. For example, external aid covered 82% of Tajikistan's education financing gap in 2007–2008 but only 18% of Uzbekistan's.

The hidden crisis – armed conflict and education

The impact of armed conflict on education has been widely neglected. This hidden crisis is reinforcing poverty, undermining economic growth and holding back the progress of nations. The 2011 *EFA Global Monitoring Report* documents the scale of the crisis, traces its underlying causes and sets out an agenda for change.

Armed conflict is a major barrier to the Education for All goals

Poor countries affected by conflict are heavily concentrated among the states farthest from reaching the EFA goals. Violent conflict also exacerbates disparities within countries linked to wealth and gender. And conflict-affected areas often lag far behind the rest of a country.

Conflicts in countries of the former Soviet Union have been marked by episodes of intense violence over competing claims to territory and government. Many of the conflicts have caused large-scale displacement, social upheaval and physical damage, along with losses in opportunities for education for some vulnerable populations. Tensions between Georgia and the autonomous regions of Abkhazia and South Ossetia led to fighting in the early 1990s and large-scale displacement. Some 300,000 Georgians fled, mostly from Abkhazia. Renewed fighting between the Russian Federation and Georgia over South Ossetia led to another wave of displacement in 2008. Today, ethnic Georgians who have returned to their homes in Abkhazia report difficulties in many aspects of their lives, including education. The quality of education is often poor. Problems include a lack of qualified teachers, dilapidated buildings, and textbook and transport costs. Around 4,000 internally displaced children within Georgia attend separate schools. Georgian parents in Abkhazia face problems in getting children educated in their mother tongue.

Most fatalities associated with armed conflict occur away from battle zones, and result from disease and malnutrition. Conflict-related sickness and hunger have had debilitating consequences for education.

Children, civilians and schools are on the front line

Today's armed conflicts are fought overwhelmingly within countries, rather than across borders, and many involve protracted violence. Although the intensity, scale and geographic extent of the violence vary, protracted armed conflicts are common.

Indiscriminate use of force and the deliberate targeting of civilians are hallmarks of violent conflict in the early twenty-first century, with direct and indirect effects on education:

- Children and schools are on the front line of armed conflicts, with classrooms, teachers and pupils seen as legitimate targets. During the civil war in Bosnia, schoolchildren in Sarajevo became targets for snipers. In one school district at the centre of the prolonged siege of the city, a survey of children aged 7 to 15 found that over 80% of children had direct experience of sniper fire. Journeys to school became a life-threatening experience.
- For those carrying out the violence, attacks on children and education were part of a wider strategy to break down community life and force ethnic displacement. Parents, for their part, recognized that school was one of the few places in which children could retain a sense of normality. Their response to the threat posed by snipers was not to abandon education, but to create classrooms in homes, cafés, garages and basements.
- Physical injury, psychological trauma and stigmatization faced by children are sources of profound and lasting disadvantage in education. In Chechnya, about 80% of children emerged from the period of conflict needing psychological support and, while thirty-one psychosocial centres have been established, there are shortages of trained counsellors.
- The use of child soldiers is reported in twenty-four countries in the world. The recruitment of child soldiers from schools is common.
- Rape and other forms of sexual violence are widely used as a war tactic in many countries. Insecurity and fear associated with sexual violence keep young girls, in particular, out of school. The international courts set up after the wars in the former Yugoslavia and the genocide in Rwanda have firmly established rape and other sexual violence as war crimes, yet these acts remain widely deployed weapons of war.

For marginalized and vulnerable households, armed conflict can block the path to more secure and prosperous livelihoods. One symptom is an increase in child labour. Armed conflict also undermines economic growth, reinforces poverty and diverts national resources from productive investment in classrooms into unproductive military spending. Many of the poorest countries spend significantly more on arms than on basic education. Kyrgyzstan spends more than three times as much on arms as on primary schools.

Diversion of national resources to the military and loss of government revenue mean that armed conflict shifts responsibility for education financing from governments to households. National governments and aid donors should urgently review the potential for converting unproductive spending on weapons into productive investment in schools, books and children.

Displaced populations are among the least visible

Displacement exposes people to the risk of extreme disadvantage in education. In several countries, including Georgia, displacement often lasts for many years. Data collected by the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) in 127 camps around the world in 2008 paint a disturbing picture of the state of education. The UNHCR snapshot of provision in camps offers a very partial picture. Many refugees live in urban settings. Many countries do not allow refugees access to public education and basic services. More generally, restrictions on refugees' employment reinforce poverty, which in turn dampens prospects for education.

Azerbaijan and Armenia have yet to resolve the conflict over Nagorno-Karabakh, almost fifteen years after signing a ceasefire agreement. Some 570,000 people remain displaced, and many children face acute difficulties in access to good quality education. In Azerbaijan, the government has made extensive efforts to address the problems of displaced children from Nagorno-Karabakh. Internally displaced students are supposed to receive free uniforms, books and access to higher education. Nevertheless, many displaced parents report having to pay for these items, and a survey in 2005 found that 58% reported being unable to send their children to school. The quality of education is also a problem, linked in some cases to the limited training available to teachers.

The reverse cycle – education's influence on violent conflict

Education is seldom a primary cause of conflict. Yet it is often an underlying element in the political dynamic pushing countries towards violence. Intra-state armed conflict is often associated with grievances and perceived injustices linked to identity, faith, ethnicity and region. Education can make a difference in all these areas, tipping the balance in favour of peace – or conflict.

Limited or poor quality provision leads to unemployment and poverty. When large numbers of young people are denied access to decent quality basic education, the resulting poverty, unemployment and sense of hopelessness can act as forceful recruiting agents for armed militia.

A 'youth bulge' adds to the urgency of building a bridge from education to employment. And unemployed educated youth also figure prominently in some armed conflicts.

Unequal access generates grievances and a sense of injustice. Inequalities in education, interacting with wider disparities, heighten the risk of conflict.

Inappropriate use of school systems reinforces prejudice and intolerance. In several armed conflicts, education has been actively used to reinforce political domination, the subordination of marginalized groups, and ethnic and linguistic segregation. One example of divided education reinforcing group-based divisions comes from Kosovo. From 1989, Serbian was the sole official language of instruction, and schools that taught in Albanian were closed. The curriculum was standardized along Serbian lines. In response, Kosovo Albanians established an extensive system of parallel schools, often in private homes, providing Albanian language instruction. From 1992, these schools operated under the auspices of a Kosovo government in exile deemed illegal by Serb authorities. The parallel education system became a centrepiece of Kosovo Albanian resistance in the lead-up to armed conflict. Segregation continues to hamper dialogue and social cohesion, with Kosovo Albanian students attending schools run by the Kosovo Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, and Kosovo Serb students attending schools run by the Serbian Ministry of Education.

Aid to conflict-affected countries

Aid can break the vicious circle of warfare and low human development in which many countries are trapped, and support a transition to lasting peace. Several problems, however, have weakened the effectiveness of the international aid effort.

The skewing of aid towards a small group of countries identified as national security priorities has led to the relative neglect of many of the world's poorest countries. Aid volatility is another concern.

The blurring of lines between development assistance and wider foreign policy or strategic goals has prompted concerns that development goals – including in education – have been subordinated to wider strategies such as winning over the 'hearts and minds' of local populations. The growing profile of the military in delivering aid has fuelled these concerns.

Responding to failures of protection

Over the past fifteen years, the United Nations has established a monitoring and reporting mechanism (MRM) that identifies grave human rights violations against children in six key areas.

Several UN Security Council resolutions have been passed aimed at strengthening protection against rape and other sexual violence in conflict-affected countries. Yet human rights provisions and Security Council resolutions offer limited protection where they are most needed, in the lives of the children and civilians on the front line. Weak coordination among UN agencies and under-resourcing contribute to the problem. Within the MRM system, reporting of attacks against schools is limited, with many incidents going unreported. Problems of under-reporting are even more evident in the area of rape and other sexual violence. There is evidence that monitoring and the identification of groups and individuals can play a role in protecting children. The application of hard law has also made a difference. The special tribunal established following the conflict in the former Yugoslavia passed sentences against individuals found guilty of crimes against humanity and war crimes, including rape and crimes of sexual violence.

Working through the UN system, governments should strengthen the systems that monitor human rights violations affecting education, support national plans aimed at stopping those violations, and impose sanctions on egregious and repeat offenders. An International Commission on Rape and Sexual Violence should be created, with the International Criminal Court directly involved in assessing the case for prosecution of state and non-state actors. UNESCO should take the lead in monitoring and reporting on attacks on education systems.

Failures of provision – fixing the humanitarian aid system

Humanitarian aid is intended to save lives, meet basic needs and restore human dignity. Humanitarian aid to education, however, is underfinanced, unpredictable and governed by short-termism, partly because many humanitarian workers do not view education as 'life-saving'. The result is that communities struggling against the odds to maintain opportunities for education are getting little support.

Shortfalls in funding of requests for education are just part of the problem. The requests themselves appear to be disconnected from any credible assessment of need or demand on the part of affected populations. The vagaries of annual budgeting compound the problems of education financing during emergencies. This is especially true in situations of long-term displacement.

One reason that education has limited visibility in humanitarian aid for conflict-affected countries is that donors sometimes question the possibility of maintaining provision. Yet international agencies can play an important role in keeping education going even in some of the most insecure environments.

When lack of security prevents non-government organizations and United Nations agencies from having a presence in a country, there are alternatives, such as distance education. UN peacekeeping forces can also help promote a more secure environment for children to attend school.

Forced displacement is a direct threat to education. Refugees have well-defined legal entitlements to basic education. In practice, though, those entitlements are often difficult to claim. Internally displaced people (IDPs) have fewer rights to formal protection than refugees. No UN agency is directly mandated to advance their interests.

There is an urgent need to strengthen current systems for assessing the education needs of conflict-affected communities. Governance arrangements for refugees and IDPs should be reformed to facilitate improved access to education.

Reconstructing education – seizing the peace premium

Post-conflict reconstruction in education poses immense challenges. Yet success in education can help build government legitimacy and set societies on course for a more peaceful future.

People whose lives have been shattered by armed conflict emerge from the violence with hope and ambition for a better future. A range of education strategies can be identified that can deliver early results.

- *Withdraw user fees:* Many post-conflict countries have abolished primary school fees, generating significant benefits.
- *Build on community initiatives:* In many conflict-affected countries, communities have stepped into the vacuum created by the failure of governments to maintain education. Supporting community efforts can deliver quick results for education and demonstrate that government is starting to work.
- *Rehabilitate schools and classrooms:* In some post-conflict environments, children are kept out of school because buildings are damaged or dilapidated. Early investment in rehabilitation can help remove this bottleneck and deliver early benefits, especially when donors support the efforts of national governments and local communities.

- *Recognize returnees' educational attainment:* Many displaced children learn a different curriculum, often in another language. Establishing systems for the certification of education obtained in other countries can ensure that the qualifications of returning refugees are recognized. Another approach is to develop cross-border examinations.
- *Provide accelerated learning programmes:* Peace offers children who have missed out on schooling a chance to make up for lost time. Accelerated programmes can help them build the basic literacy and numeracy skills they need to return to primary school or make the transition to secondary school.
- *Strengthen education and skills training in disarmament, demobilization and reintegration (DDR) programmes:* Ex-combatants, including children and young people, often lack basic literacy and other skills, and so may face limited prospects for employment and are at risk of re-recruitment. Skills training within DDR programmes can make a difference.
- *Provide psychosocial support:* Many children and young people caught up in armed conflict will have been traumatized as a result of experiencing or witnessing acts of violence, and are at increased risk of mental health problems. Reintegration programmes for ex-combatants, including child soldiers, sometimes include psychosocial support along with skills training. There are strong grounds for extending the provision of such programmes beyond ex-combatants to other vulnerable young people.
- *Recruit teachers:* After conflict, the supply of teachers – especially trained teachers – is unlikely to keep pace with demand. Teacher recruitment, training and deployment require long-term planning. But governments and donors can develop transitional strategies.

Some post-conflict states are among the strongest-performing countries in terms of progress towards goals such as UPE, and progress in education has in turn helped underpin wider post-conflict reconstruction. Countries that have made the transition from conflict into longer-term recovery have forged partnerships with donors aimed at developing and implementing inclusive education sector strategies that set clear targets, backed by secure financing commitments. Some of the successful ingredients of this transition are:

- *Strengthened national planning:* As countries move along the planning continuum, the challenge is to develop policy instruments that link goals to the provision of inputs, the development of institutions and national financing strategies.

- *Development of information systems:* Educational management information systems (EMIS) give governments a tool to track resource allocation, identify areas of need and oversee teacher remuneration (the single biggest item in the education budget).
- *Financial commitments:* Strong post-conflict performers have invariably increased public spending on education, albeit often from a low base. Strengthening the national revenue collection effort can provide a powerful impetus for increased education spending.
- *Inclusive education:* Strongly performing post-conflict countries have attached considerable weight to developing more inclusive education systems that target groups and regions badly affected by conflict.

Predictable and sustained donor support is crucial to facilitating the transition from peace to reconstruction in education. Aid effectiveness in this area has been severely compromised by a divide between humanitarian aid and development assistance.

Given that donor perception of risk is one of the barriers reinforcing the humanitarian-development divide, an obvious response is to share risk. Pooling resources and working cooperatively enables donors to spread risk and secure wider efficiency gains in areas such as fiduciary risk management, start-up costs and coordination. National pooled funds demonstrate the potential benefits of cooperation.

Global pooled funding could also play a far greater role in conflict-affected states. Ongoing reforms to the EFA Fast Track Initiative (FTI) are addressing long-standing concerns in areas such as disbursement and governance. Several conflict-affected countries are developing national plans and may seek FTI funding. If the FTI reforms were carried through and deepened, the FTI could become the fulcrum of a multilateral financing system capable of addressing the pressing needs of conflict-affected states.

Making education a force for peace

Conflict-sensitive planning in education is about recognizing that *any* policy decision will have consequences for peacebuilding – and for the prospect of averting a return to violence. There are many channels through which education can influence prospects for peace, including:

- *Language of instruction:* In some contexts the use of a single national language as the medium of instruction in schools has helped foster a sense of shared identity. In others it has helped fuel violence.

- *The curriculum:* Curriculum development and teacher training have been priorities for several education ministries in recent post-conflict settings. The teaching of subjects such as history and religion can play a role in reorienting conflict-affected societies in a peaceful direction. Dealing with issues of ethnic and religious identity confronts education reformers with tough choices and takes time. Yet experience demonstrates how education can gradually erode deeply entrenched divisions by getting students to reflect on their multiple identities, and on what unites rather than divides them. Some evidence supports the case for well-designed peace education interventions.

Brčko district in Bosnia and Herzegovina is sometimes cited as an example of successful integration in an educationally divided country. From 2001, many Bosniak, Croat and Serb students started to be educated together. Despite initial student protests (Jones, 2009), there is now a high level of support for integration. Drawing on multi-ethnic teams of teachers, practical arrangements for the three languages (which have two different scripts but are mutually intelligible) and a common curriculum for 'national subjects', Brčko district shows that integrated education can be provided without students losing their separate identities.

- *Devolution of education governance.* Decentralization and devolution are often seen as an automatic route to greater accountability, as well as to peacebuilding. That assessment is overstated. In some countries with highly devolved education systems, the weak role of central government can hamper peacebuilding efforts. In Bosnia and Herzegovina, the Dayton Agreement of 1995 sought to create a basis for nation-building through high levels of decentralization. The resulting fragmentation of education authority has made it more difficult to forge a multi-ethnic national identity (Box 1).
- *Making schools non-violent environments.* This strategy is unequivocally good for education, for children and for peacebuilding.

Unlocking the potential for education to act as a force for peace requires new approaches to post-conflict policy reforms. Education needs to be more prominent in the United Nations Peacebuilding Commission, an intergovernmental advisory committee, and the associated Peacebuilding Fund (PBF). And UNESCO and UNICEF should play a more central role in integrating education into wider peacebuilding strategies. ■

Box 1: Fragmented governance, fragmented education in Bosnia and Herzegovina

If the voters of tomorrow are educated according to the norms of nationalist division and exclusionary ethnic principles, [Bosnia and Herzegovina] will remain at constant risk of further fragmentation or dissolution.

(OSCE Mission to Bosnia and Herzegovina, 2010)

Under the 1995 Dayton Agreement, which aimed to allow separate 'national identities' to coexist within a single border, Bosnia and Herzegovina emerged with a governance structure highly decentralized along ethnic, linguistic and religious lines. The danger is that the education system may reinforce social divisions, with adverse consequences for peacebuilding.

The Dayton Agreement has had far-reaching consequences for education, including the absence of an effective central education authority. Today, there are effectively thirteen separate ministries of education: one for each of ten cantons in the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina plus an overarching Federal Ministry of Education and Science, one for the Republika Srpska, and one for the District of Brčko.* A state-level Education Agency was established in 2008, but is not yet fully operational.

Most schools are segregated by ethnicity, religion and language. In some areas, this is a result of geographic

segregation caused by ethnic cleansing and displacement. Even in areas with greater ethnic mixing, parents are wary about the security of their children in schools dominated by another community. Rather than enrol children in the nearest school, many parents seek to place children in schools associated with their 'national identity', often some distance away. A small number of schools – less than 3% – operate a 'two schools under one roof' policy, but children from different groups have separate teachers, learn at different times and have different curricula.

Such fragmentation creates several concerns for education governance. The absence of a strong federal ministry hampers the development of national planning systems, undermining efforts to address problems in education quality and curriculum reform. The lack of a centralized system for allocating funds also contributes to wide geographic variations in student performance, undermining prospects for greater equity. Perhaps most important of all, rigid separation of schools and pupils does not help children develop the sense of multigroup identity upon which lasting peace and security will ultimately depend.

* Brčko is a neutral, self-governing administrative unit, under national sovereignty and international supervision. It is formally part of both the Republika Srpska and the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Glossary

Early childhood care and education (ECCE).

Programmes that, in addition to providing children with care, offer a structured and purposeful set of learning activities either in a formal institution (pre-primary or ISCED O) or as part of a non-formal child development programme. ECCE programmes are usually designed for children from age 3 and include organized learning activities that constitute, on average, the equivalent of at least 2 hours per day and 100 days per year.

EFA Development Index (EDI).

Composite index aimed at measuring overall progress towards EFA. At present, the EDI incorporates four of the six EFA goals, each proxied by one indicator: universal primary education, adult literacy, gender parity and equality, and education quality. The index value is the arithmetic mean of the four indicators. It ranges from 0 to 1.

Gender parity index (GPI).

Ratio of female to male values (or male to female, in certain cases) of a given indicator. A GPI of 1 indicates parity between sexes; a GPI above or below 1 indicates a disparity in favour of one sex over the other.

Gross enrolment ratio (GER).

Total enrolment in a specific level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population in the official age group corresponding to this level of education. The GER can exceed 100% because of early or late entry and/or grade repetition.

Gross national product (GNP).

The value of all final goods and services produced in a country in one year (gross domestic product) plus income that residents have received from abroad, minus income claimed by non-residents. Gross national income is the more recent denomination of the same term.

Net enrolment ratio (NER).

Enrolment of the official age group for a given level of education, expressed as a percentage of the population in that age group.

Net intake rate (NIR).

New entrants to the first grade of primary education who are of the official primary school entrance age, expressed as a percentage of the population of that age.

Purchasing power parity (PPP).

An exchange rate adjustment that accounts for price differences between countries, allowing international comparisons of real output and income.

Survival rate by grade.

Percentage of a cohort of students who are enrolled in the first grade of an education cycle in a given school year and are expected to reach a specified grade, regardless of repetition.

Table 1: Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia, selected education indicators

Country or territory	Total population (000)	GNP per capita PPP (US\$)	Compulsory education Age group	EFA Development Index (EDI)	Adult literacy				
					Adult literacy rate (15 and over)				
					Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	
					1985–1994 ¹		2005–2008 ¹		
Central and Eastern Europe									
Albania	3 143	7 950	6-13	99	0.99	
Belarus	9 679	12 150	6-14	0.981	98	0.97	100	1.00	
Bosnia and Herzegovina	3 773	8 620	98	0.96	
Bulgaria	7 593	11 950	7-16	0.970	98	0.99	
Croatia	4 423	18 420	7-15	0.990	97	0.96	99	0.98	
Czech Republic	10 319	22 790	6-15	0.969	
Estonia	1 341	19 280	7-15	0.984	100	1.00	100	1.00	
Hungary	10 012	17 790	7-16	0.982	
Latvia	2 259	16 740	7-15	...	99	0.99	100	1.00	
Lithuania	3 321	18 210	7-16	0.982	98	0.99	100	1.00	
Montenegro	622	13 920	7-14	
Poland	38 104	17 310	7-15	0.981	
Republic of Moldova	3 633	3 210	7-15	0.955	96	0.96	98	0.99	
Romania	21 361	13 500	7-14	0.965	97	0.96	98	0.99	
Russian Federation	141 394	15 630	6-15	...	98	0.97	100	1.00	
Serbia	9 839	11 150	7-14	0.973	
Slovakia	5 400	21 300	6-16	
Slovenia	2 015	26 910	6-15	0.989	100	1.00	100	1.00	
TFYR Macedonia	2 041	9 950	6-15	0.962	94	0.94	97	0.97	
Turkey	73 914	13 770	6-14	0.919	79	0.76	89	0.84	
Ukraine	45 992	7 210	6-17	0.964	100	1.00	
Central Asia									
Armenia	3 077	6 310	7-15	0.970	99	0.99	100	1.00	
Azerbaijan	8 731	7 770	6-16	0.983	100	0.99	
Georgia	4 307	4 850	6-12	0.979	100	1.00	
Kazakhstan	15 521	9 690	7-17	0.994	98	0.97	100	1.00	
Kyrgyzstan	5 414	2 140	7-15	0.970	99	1.00	
Mongolia	2 641	3 480	7-15	0.971	97	1.01	
Tajikistan	6 836	1 860	7-15	0.977	98	0.98	100	1.00	
Turkmenistan	5 044	6 210	7-15	100	1.00	
Uzbekistan	27 191	2 660	7-17	0.968	99	0.99	
	Sum	Median			Weighted average				
Central and Eastern Europe	400 181	13 920	96	0.96	98	0.97	
Central Asia	78 762	4 850	98	0.98	99	1.00	
Countries in transition ⁵	311 290	6 260	98	0.98	100	1.00	
Developed countries ⁵	993 639	28 470	99	0.99	99	1.00	
Developing countries	5 430 213	3 940	67	0.76	79	0.86	
World	6 735 143	6 290	76	0.84	83	0.90	

Adult literacy				Early childhood care and education				Country or territory
Adult illiterates (15 and over)				Child survival and well-being		Pre-primary education		
Total (000)	% Female	Total (000)	% Female	Under-5 mortality rate (%)	Moderate severe and stunting (%)	GER		
1985–1994 ¹		2005–2008 ¹		2005–2010	2003–2008 ¹	Total (%)	Total (%)	
Central and Eastern Europe								
...	...	24	66	18	26	42	...	Albania
166	87	21	64	12	4	75	102	Belarus
...	...	78	88	15	10	...	12	Bosnia and Herzegovina
...	...	116	62	15	9	67	81	Bulgaria
120	82	48	81	8	1	40	51	Croatia
...	5	3	90	111	Czech Republic
3	79	2	55	10	...	87	95	Estonia
...	8	...	79	87	Hungary
11	80	4	55	11	...	53	89	Latvia
44	76	8	54	12	...	50	72	Lithuania
...	10	7	Montenegro
...	8	...	50	60	Poland
113	82	49	71	23	10	48	73	Republic of Moldova
589	78	439	66	18	13	62	73	Romania
2 284	88	559	71	16	13	68	90	Russian Federation
...	14	7	54	59	Serbia
...	8	...	81	94	Slovakia
7	60	5	52	5	...	74	83	Slovenia
87	77	50	77	17	11	27	38	TFYR Macedonia
7 442	75	5 951	83	32	10	6	18	Turkey
...	...	122	71	15	3	50	98	Ukraine
Central Asia								
31	77	11	71	28	18	26	33	Armenia
...	...	33	81	53	25	18	26	Azerbaijan
...	...	9	64	36	13	35	63	Georgia
278	82	43	74	30	18	14	52	Kazakhstan
...	...	27	66	46	18	10	17	Kyrgyzstan
...	...	53	41	44	28	26	57	Mongolia
68	74	15	73	78	33	8	9	Tajikistan
...	...	18	71	64	19	Turkmenistan
...	...	153	69	58	19	24	27	Uzbekistan
Sum	% F	Sum	% F	Weighted average	Median	Weighted average		
12 353	79	7 960	80	19	9	50	66	Central and Eastern Europe
932	77	362	67	52	19	20	29	Central Asia
3 893	85	1 061	71	31	18	46	65	Countries in transition ⁵
10 050	63	8 358	59	7	...	73	79	Developed countries ⁵
872 565	63	786 386	64	79	29	27	39	Developing countries
886 508	63	795 805	64	71	26	33	44	World

Table 1 (continued)

Country or territory	Primary education									
	NER		Out-of-school children ²		GPI of GER		Survival rate to last grade		Pupil/teacher ratio ³	
	Total (%)	Total (%)	Total (000)	Total (000)	(F/M)	(F/M)	Total (%)	Total (%)		
	1999	2008	1999	2008	1999	2008	1999	2007	1999	2008
Central and Eastern Europe										
Albania	100	...	1	...	0.99	...	92	...	23	...
Belarus	...	94	...	19	0.99	1.02	99	100	20	15
Bosnia and Herzegovina	1.01
Bulgaria	97	96	4	7	0.98	1.00	93	94	18	16
Croatia	85	90	18	2.1	0.99	1.00	100	100	19	17
Czech Republic	96	90	23	49	0.99	0.99	98	99	18	18
Estonia	96	94	0.2	2.6	0.97	0.99	99	98	16	12
Hungary	88	90	14	18	0.98	0.99	97	99	11	10
Latvia	97	...	2	...	0.98	0.96	97	96	15	11
Lithuania	95	92	4	5	0.98	0.98	99	98	17	13
Montenegro
Poland	96	96	133	109	0.98	1.00	98	97	...	11
Republic of Moldova	93	88	11	15	1.00	0.98	95	96	21	16
Romania	96	90	2	30	0.98	0.99	96	93	19	16
Russian Federation	0.99	1.00	95	95	18	17
Serbia	...	95	...	12	0.99	1.00	...	98	...	17
Slovakia	0.99	0.99	97	97	19	17
Slovenia	96	97	2	3	0.99	0.99	100	...	14	17
TFYR Macedonia	93	87	1.3	9	0.98	1.00	97	97	22	18
Turkey	...	95	...	361	0.92	0.97	...	94
Ukraine	...	89	...	170	0.99	1.00	97	97	20	16
Central Asia										
Armenia	...	84	...	8	...	1.02	...	98	...	19
Azerbaijan	89	96	82	16	1.00	0.99	97	99	19	11
Georgia	...	99	...	3	0.98	0.98	99	95	17	9
Kazakhstan	...	90	...	8	1.01	1.00	...	99	...	16
Kyrgyzstan	88	84	27	38	0.99	0.99	95	98	24	24
Mongolia	93	89	10	2	1.02	0.99	87	95	32	31
Tajikistan	...	97	...	17	0.95	0.96	97	99	22	23
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan	...	88	...	210	1.00	0.98	100	99	21	18
	Weighted average		Sum		Weighted average		Median		Weighted average	
Central and Eastern Europe	92	93	1 685	1 148	0.97	0.99	97	97	18	18
Central Asia	90	90	364	322	0.99	0.98	97	99	21	17
Countries in transition ⁵	89	91	1 312	827	0.99	0.99	97	98	20	17
Developed countries ⁵	97	95	1 777	2 539	1.00	1.00	98	98	16	14
Developing countries	80	87	103 180	64 117	0.91	0.96	...	83	27	28
World	82	88	106 269	67 483	0.92	0.97	90	93	25	25

Secondary education				Education finance					Country or territory
GER				Total public expenditure on education as % of GNP	Total aid disbursements to education ⁴ (Constant 2008 US\$ millions)	Total aid disbursements to basic education ⁴ (Constant 2008 US\$ millions)	Total aid disbursements to basic education per primary school age child (Constant 2008 US\$)		
Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)						
1999		2008		1999	2008	2008	2008		
Central and Eastern Europe									
74	0.95	66	4	20	Albania
85	1.05	95	1.02	6.0	5.2	22	1	4	Belarus
...	...	90	1.02	43	5	28	Bosnia and Herzegovina
91	0.98	89	0.96	...	4.3	Bulgaria
84	1.02	94	1.03	22	1	8	Croatia
83	1.04	95	1.01	4.1	4.9	Czech Republic
93	1.05	99	1.03	6.9	5.4	Estonia
93	1.02	97	0.98	5.0	5.7	Hungary
88	1.04	98	1.03	5.8	5.2	Latvia
95	1.00	99	1.00	...	4.9	Lithuania
...	5	2	51	Montenegro
99	0.99	100	0.99	4.7	5.1	Poland
83	0.98	88	1.03	4.6	7.5	29	8	49	Republic of Moldova
79	1.01	92	0.99	...	4.4	Romania
...	...	85	0.97	...	4.0	Russian Federation
93	1.01	89	1.03	...	4.7	62	13	43	Serbia
85	1.02	92	1.01	4.2	3.8	Slovakia
99	1.03	97	0.99	...	5.3	Slovenia
82	0.97	84	0.97	32	15	140	TFYR Macedonia
68	0.70	82	0.89	3.0	2.9	143	19	3	Turkey
98	1.03	94	0.98	3.7	5.4	79	3	2	Ukraine
Central Asia									
91	...	88	1.05	2.2	2.9	26	5	44	Armenia
78	0.99	106	0.98	4.3	2.1	11	2	5	Azerbaijan
79	0.98	90	0.96	2.0	2.9	84	29	101	Georgia
92	1.00	99	0.98	4.0	3.2	20	2	2	Kazakhstan
83	1.02	85	1.01	4.3	6.7	22	8	19	Kyrgyzstan
61	1.26	95	1.08	6.0	5.2	34	14	58	Mongolia
74	0.86	84	0.87	2.1	3.6	14	8	12	Tajikistan
...	3	0.3	0.9	Turkmenistan
86	0.98	101	0.98	28	3	1	Uzbekistan
Weighted average				Median		Sum		Weighted average	
88	0.97	88	0.96	...	5.0	549	76	8	Central and Eastern Europe
86	0.99	97	0.98	4.0	3.2	250	72	13	Central Asia
91	1.01	91	0.98	4.0	3.8	338	70	9	Countries in transition ⁵
100	1.01	101	1.00	5.0	5.2	235	40	...	Developed countries ⁵
51	0.88	62	0.95	4.5	4.2	9 030	3 889	7	Developing countries
59	0.91	67	0.96	4.7	4.8	11 410	4 709	8	World

Notes:

Data in italics are for 2006.

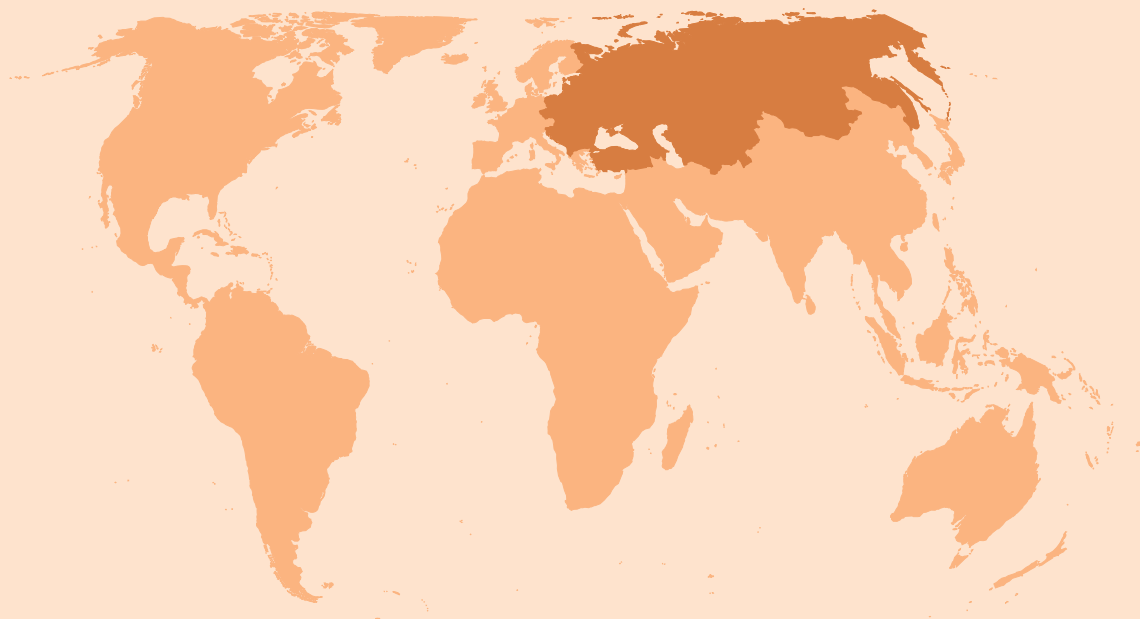
Data in bold italics are for 2007.

Data in bold are for 2009 or 2008 for survival rate to last grade.

The averages are derived from both published data and broad estimates for countries for which no recent data or reliable publishable data are available.

1. Data are for the most recent year available during the period specified.**2.** Data reflect the actual number of children not enrolled at all, derived from the age-specific or adjusted net enrolment ratio (ANER) of primary school age children, which measures the proportion of those who are enrolled either in primary or in secondary schools.**3.** Based on headcounts of pupils and teachers.**4.** Values for total aid disbursements to education and to basic education for regional and other country groups do not always sum up to world totals because some aid is not allocated by region or country.**5.** For total aid disbursements, only countries eligible for official development assistance are included.

Regional Overview: Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia



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