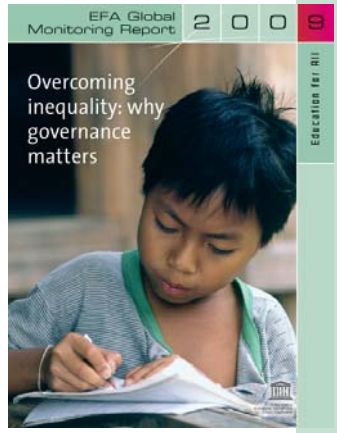
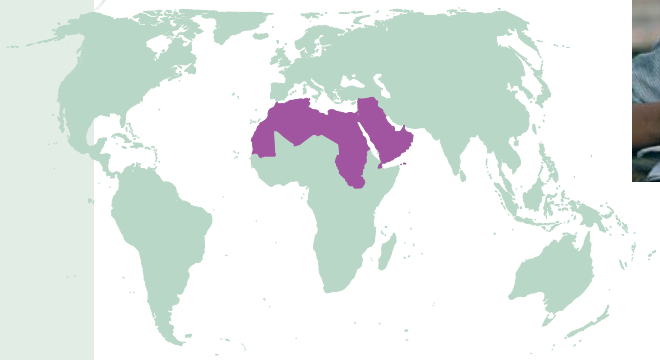
United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization



Regional overview: Arab States



Overall, the Arab States,[1] like sub-Saharan Africa, and South and West Asia, still lag behind other regions in terms of distance from the EFA goals. The same is true for many of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in areas such as child mortality and nutrition. Progress in education could help unlock progress on the MDGs, but will require a strengthened commitment to equity.

Persistent inequalities are hindering progress towards the EFA goals globally, regionally and nationally. The EFA Global Monitoring Report 2009 *finds that disparities based on wealth, location, gender or disability deny millions of children a good-quality education. Focusing on those being left behind, the Report highlights the role of education governance in overcoming these disparities. It shows that current approaches to education governance reform all too often fail the poor and disadvantaged. This regional overview for the Arab States reveals that, while the region as a whole continues to advance towards most of the EFA goals, wide disparities within countries are holding back overall progress.*

EFA progress and challenges

Early childhood care and education: a long way to go

The path towards education for all starts long before primary school. Adequate nutrition, good health and a language-rich home environment during the early years are vital for later success in education and in life. Yet millions of children in the Arab States lack these advantages, suffering from poor health and limited access to pre-school programmes.

Child mortality is one of the most sensitive barometers of the well-being of children under 5. It captures premature death and provides a view of the health and nutritional status of the next generation of primary school-age children. High levels of child mortality and malnutrition not only represent a great development challenge in their own right, but are also symptoms of wider problems that directly affect education.

- As the *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2008* reported, child mortality in the Arab States has improved in the past decade, with the average under-5 mortality rate estimated at 54 per 1,000 births for 2005–2010. The vast majority of these deaths result from poverty-related infectious disease, hunger and inadequate access to basic services such as clean water and sanitation. Under-5 mortality rates vary widely within the region: while they are at or below 10‰ in Kuwait, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates – not far from the developed country average – in Djibouti, Iraq and Sudan more than 100 of every 1,000 children born do not reach age 5 (126 in Djibouti). There are also disparities within countries: being poor and living in a rural area dramatically reduce the prospect of surviving to age 5.

- Malnutrition is a serious health epidemic and one of the biggest barriers to achieving universal primary education (UPE). On average, one-quarter of children under 5 in the Arab States suffer from moderate or severe stunting, a rate below the developing country average (32%). However, in Djibouti, Mauritania, Sudan and Yemen the situation remains

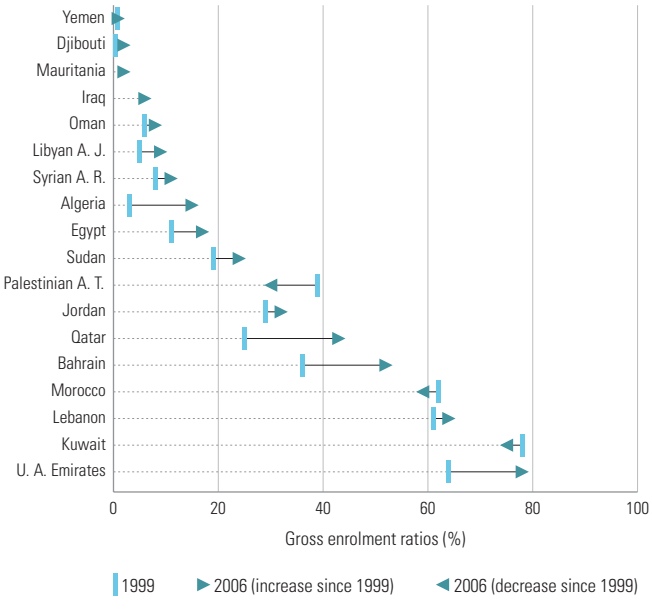
1. This is according to the EFA classification. See table 2 at the end of this document for a list of countries and territories in the region.

a concern, with moderate or severe stunting affecting between one-third and more than half of children. In Sudan and Yemen, in particular, the problem begins early, as over 30 children per 100 are born underweight. Malnutrition, such as iodine or iron deficiency, affects a child's physical and mental capacity, and is one of the main reasons children perform poorly in school and fail to achieve their learning potential. The international food crisis could dramatically worsen prospects for achieving the MDGs. In many countries people living on less than US$1 a day spend over 60% of their income on food, leaving them highly vulnerable to even modest price increases. In Yemen, for instance, rising food prices have reduced the real income of the poorest 20% of households by 12%.

- Institutional arrangements, capacity and quality of service for children under 3 are limited in the region: among the thirteen countries with data, only seven officially provide services in early childhood care and education (ECCE) for the youngest.

- Some 3 million children were enrolled in pre-primary education in the Arab States in 2006, an increase of 26% from 1999 (Figure 1). However, coverage remained very low, with a gross enrolment ratio (GER) of 18%, one of the lowest in the world. Out of eighteen Arab States with data, six had coverage rates below 10%,[2] and in Algeria, Egypt and the Syrian Arab Republic the GER was below 20%. On the other hand, children in Kuwait, Lebanon and the United Arab Emirates were more likely to be enrolled in pre-primary school, with the GER above 60%. Most countries increased participation in pre-primary education between 1999 and 2006, with significant improvement (above twelve percentage points) in Algeria, Bahrain, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates.

Figure 1: Changes in pre-primary education gross enrolment ratios between 1999 and 2006



2. Djibouti, Iraq, the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Mauritania, Oman and Yemen.

- Pre-primary participation in the Arab States is strongly concentrated in private institutions. The median percentage of private total enrolment was 76% in 2006, but in Bahrain, Morocco, Oman and the Palestinian Autonomous Territories virtually all enrolled children attended private institutions.

- Good-quality ECCE provision can equip children with cognitive, behavioural and social skills that improve access, retention and learning outcomes in primary education. The interaction of children with carers and teachers is the key determinant of quality in ECCE programmes. International research also points to the importance of class or group size, the adult/child ratio, teacher quality, curriculum and the availability of learning materials.

- While ECCE provision in low-income countries is constrained by a lack of resources, it is further limited by government neglect – notably with respect to the poor. There are marked disparities in pre-primary education attendance within countries. Preliminary analysis of data from the latest round of Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS3) for seventeen countries in several regions points to large gaps in pre-school attendance of 3- and 4-year-olds: the children who stand to benefit most from early childhood programmes – those who are poor and rural – are at the bottom of the distribution range. In the Syrian Arab Republic the attendance rate for the wealthiest 20% is five times the level for the poorest 20%. Detailed household surveys from Egypt provide an insight into the barriers facing disadvantaged households, highlighting the importance of access to pre-school facilities and of cost (Box 1).

Universal primary education: nations at the crossroads

Progress towards UPE in the Arab States has been steady since 1999. Still, with only six years to 2015, many governments may not fulfil their pledge to achieve UPE unless urgent policy measures are undertaken. The twin challenge is to accelerate increases in access and to strengthen retention so that all children start and complete a full primary cycle.

- The numbers of children entering primary school have climbed since the World Education Forum in Dakar in 1999. In 2006, just over 7 million children entered primary school for the first time – an increase of about 14% since 1999. More remarkably, the gains were driven by some of the

Box 1: In Egypt, national progress but with the poor left behind

Egypt has embarked on an ambitious programme to expand pre-school provision, focusing on children aged 4 and 5. The increase in coverage has been considerable, but has not significantly reduced large pre-school disparities that threaten to aggravate inequalities at the primary level and beyond. The GER for pre-primary education increased from 11% in 1999 to 17% in 2007. However, the 2005-2006 Egypt Household Education Survey revealed that only 2% of children from the poorest 20% of households ever attended pre-school. By contrast, 40% of children from the richest quintile had completed two years of pre-school. Two barriers stand out. For parents in the poorest three quintiles, lack of access is the most commonly cited factor. In the poorest 40%, around one-third of parents cite affordability as a major problem.

Achieving greater equity will require public policy action on several fronts. Providing kindergartens in the poorer districts of cities, small towns and rural areas is an urgent priority. Removing cost barriers will require either targeted transfers to poor households or free provision, or some combination of both. Free school meals could provide another incentive: only 10% of 4- and 5-year-olds in kindergarten receive free food at school.

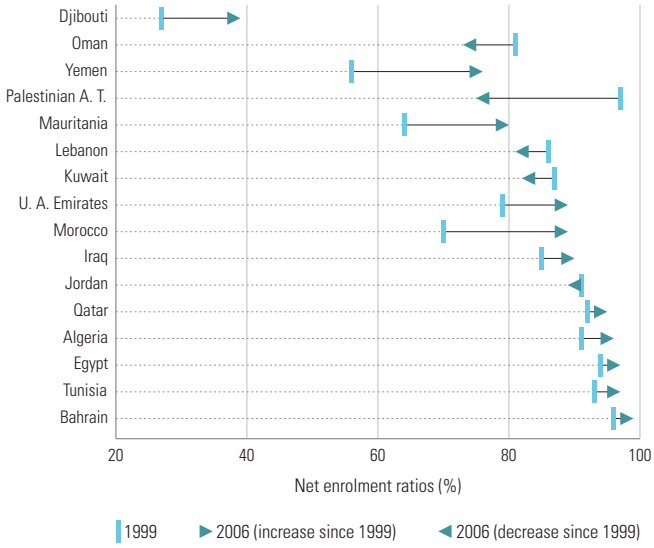
poorest countries in the region. Djibouti, for instance, increased the number of entrants by 81%, although it remained the country with the lowest gross intake rate (GIR) in the region (52% in 2006); and in Yemen the GIR increased from nearly 76% to 112% during the period.

- Existing gains will be hard to maintain due to continued demographic pressure. The primary school-age cohort in the region is expected to grow by 4 million by 2015, meaning incremental pressure on financial, physical and human resources.

- The net enrolment ratio (NER) is one of the most robust benchmarks for UPE. The region's average NER in primary education grew faster in 1999–2006 than in 1991–1999, increasing by about 8% to reach 84% (Figure 2). Djibouti, Mauritania, Morocco and Yemen, which had the region's lowest NERs in 1999, registered strong progress, with increases in NER above ten percentage points between 1999 and 2006. On the other hand, participation in primary school education declined in some countries/territories, particularly Oman and the Palestinian Autonomous Territories.

- The level of participation in primary education varied significantly within the region, from Djibouti with its NER of less than 40% to near achievement of UPE in Bahrain, Egypt and Tunisia.

Figure 2: Changes in primary education net enrolment ratios between 1999 and 2006



- Improvements in primary school participation are reflected in a decline of over 2 million in the number of out-of-school children between 1999 and 2006. Particularly noteworthy was the progress made by Algeria, Morocco and Yemen. In 1999, Morocco had nearly 1.2 million primary school-age children not enrolled in primary or secondary education, but by 2006 had decreased the number to 429,000. Despite this overall progress, some 5.7 million children were still out of school in the region in 2006 – almost a quarter of them concentrated in Iraq and Yemen.

- 'Out-of-school children' is a blanket category with a complex underlying story. Not all children in the category are in the same position. Analysis of enrolment data by age suggests that around half the 5.7 million children out of school in 2006 had never enrolled and might never do so without new policies and incentives; more than one-third might eventually enrol as late entrants; and about 18% had enrolled but dropped out. Gender also has a bearing on the profile of out-of-school children. Limits on girls' access to school are of particular concern in the Arab States. In 2006, more than 60% of the primary school-age children not in school in the region were girls, and 53% of them have never been enrolled, compared with 39% for boys. Girls' access to school remains a big issue in Yemen, where 72% of those not in school are unlikely to enrol, compared with 39% for boys.

- Projections of the out-of-school population give reason for concern. Yemen, for example, reduced the number of out-of-school children from 1.4 million in 1999 to just over 900,000 in 2006 (still the highest number of out-of-school children in the region), and the reduction is expected to continue.

Yet this will not be sufficient for Yemen to achieve the 2015 UPE target without increased effort. Iraq, another country with a large number of children who are missing out on school (just over 500,000 in 2006), is also not on track to achieve UPE by 2015, when it is expected to have 246,000 children not enrolled.

Progression through school: repetition, dropout, low survival rates

Getting children into school is a necessary condition for achieving UPE, but not a sufficient one. What counts is completion of a full primary cycle. Though access to and participation in primary schooling are improving in the Arab States, in many countries students are locked into cycles of repetition and dropout, which are mutually reinforcing because repetition is often a prelude to dropout. The region's median percentage of repeaters for all grades was 4% in 2006. However, relatively high repetition levels were endemic in some countries, with the percentage of primary school repeaters above 10% in Algeria, Mauritania and Morocco. The end of grade 1 is a critical point in some countries. In Algeria, nearly 13% of students repeated the first year of primary education, and in Morocco the figure was 16%.

- Early and late school entry and grade repetition affect the age distribution of children in school, so only a small proportion of children attend the appropriate class for their age in many developing countries. For example, in Egypt household survey data show that under-age children account for 25% of primary school pupils. In many countries, under-age pupils are far more likely to repeat early grades – an outcome with important implications for class size and education quality.

- The level of school retention is relatively high in the Arab States, compared with other developing regions. The median survival rate to the last grade of primary education was 92% in 2005. Important variations were observed among countries, however. The survival rates to the last grade were quite low in Mauritania (45%) and Yemen (59%), and had fallen substantially since 1999, meaning large shares of children enrolled in these countries never completed primary education, which is a concern. On the other hand, almost all children who had access to primary education achieved the last grade in Bahrain, Egypt, Oman, the Palestinian Autonomous Territories and the United Arab Emirates. Yet many children reaching the last grade prove unable to negotiate this hurdle. In Mauritania, for example, fewer than half the children who survive to the last primary grade actually complete it.

- In sum, several countries in the region (Iraq, Mauritania, Morocco, Sudan, Yemen) face massive challenges in retaining students through a complete primary school cycle and thus urgently need to adopt strategies to expand access to out-of-school children and improve quality standards to retain them once they are enrolled.

Disparities within countries

Disparities within countries are rampant. Such gaps can predetermine opportunities for education and hinder progress towards UPE. When it comes to UPE, rich and poor live in different worlds. In many countries around the world, including in the Arab States, children from the richest 20% of households are more likely to attend primary school than children from the poorest quintile.

- Disparities based on wealth do not exist in isolation. They interact with wider inequalities and markers for disadvantage related to gender, location, language and other factors. In many countries living in a rural area carries a marked handicap in terms of opportunities for education. Rural children are less likely to attend school, and more likely to drop out, than their urban cousins. Children in rural areas were found to be at a particular disadvantage if they lacked access to school instruction in their mother tongue. Disparities faced by slum dwellers are also particularly marked. Slums are often characterized by high levels of poverty, poor child health and limited participation in education. Cultural factors such as religion and ethnicity can also affect both the demand for schooling and the supply. Disadvantage spans many dimensions. Being poor is a universal marker for restricted opportunity in education. Being rural and poor is a double disadvantage in many countries. Being poor, rural and female is a triple barrier to equal opportunity.

- Breaking down these inequalities is a key to accelerated progress towards UPE. Reaching this goal will require the development of policies targeting the poor and the marginalized. This means targeting hard-to-reach households in remote rural areas and urban slums that face multiple disadvantages, including chronic poverty, high mortality, and poor heath and nutritional status.

- Every country faces its own distinctive set of challenges in achieving UPE. Three of the most common are child labour, nutrition and health issues, and disability.

  – *Child labour* not only violates a children's right to education, it is also associated with delays in school entry, reduced school attendance and early dropout. School attendance figures provide stark evidence of the trade-off between child labour and UPE. Working children face an attendance disadvantage ranging from 12% in Yemen to 48% in Iraq. When schools are unavailable or distant, when the cost of schooling is high and the perceived quality low, children are more likely to work than go to

school. In other cases, household poverty and associated labour demand 'pull' children into labour markets. Practical measures are needed, first to reduce the pressures that force poor households to augment income or labour supply through child work and, second, to strengthen incentives for sending children to school. Other incentives, such as school meal programmes, financial incentives targeting disadvantaged groups, social protection measures and conditional cash transfer programmes, can also play an important role.

– *Inadequate nutrition and poor health* continue to track children after they enter school, trapping them in a vicious cycle of cumulative disadvantage. Reversing this cycle requires public health interventions, some of which can be initiated through schools.

– In many developing countries *children with disabilities* are still among the most marginalized and least likely to attend school. Speeding up progress towards UPE will require policies focused on facilitating access for children with disabilities, as well as political leadership to change public attitudes.

Secondary education and beyond

Increasing access to secondary and tertiary education supports government commitments to EFA, provides further incentives for children to complete primary school, expands the supply of qualified teachers, and improves knowledge levels and skills training for the labour market. While participation in post-primary education is expanding, access remains limited in several Arab States. Within-country disparities in participation and completion tend to reinforce existing social inequalities.

- Participation in primary education is expanding, yet access to secondary and tertiary education remains limited for most young people in many Arab States. For the school year ending in 2005, the regional median transition rate from primary to secondary was 92%. The transition rates were low in Algeria (76%), Djibouti (73%), Iraq (70%), Mauritania (48%) and Morocco (77%). On the other hand, almost pupils who reached the last primary school grade made the transition to lower secondary school in Kuwait, Oman, the Palestinian Autonomous Territories, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates. Countries recording significant increases in the transition rate from primary to secondary between 1999 and 2005 include Djibouti (from 42% to 73%), Sudan (from 78% to 97%), the Syrian Arab Republic (from 69% to 96%) and Tunisia (from 68% to 88%).
- In 2006, some 28 million students were enrolled in secondary education, an increase of 24% since 1999. The average secondary GER rose from 60% to nearly 68% and the NER from 52% to 59%. Participation in secondary school improved in the great majority of countries with data available. In particular, the secondary NERs increased by more than ten percentage points in Oman, the Palestinian Territories Autonomous, Qatar, the Syrian Arab Republic and the United Arab Emirates.
- Regional figures conceal significant differences between countries, with secondary NERs ranging from 16% in Mauritania and 22% in Djibouti to nearly 90%, or more, in Bahrain, the Palestinian Autonomous Territories and Qatar.
- Technical and vocational education and training (TVET) occupy an important position in secondary education. Of the more than 28 million students enrolled in secondary schools in the region in 2006, 12% were in TVET programmes.
- The transition from lower to upper secondary is a dropout point in many education systems. Lower secondary education is frequently part of a compulsory basic education cycle, whereas the onset of upper secondary typically marks the end of compulsory schooling and consists of diverse programmes and more specialized instruction. Differences in participation rates between the two levels are especially prominent in the region: in 2006, the average GER was much higher in lower secondary education (81%) than in upper secondary education (54%). The gap was particularly marked in Algeria, the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Morocco, the Syrian Arab Republic and Tunisia.
- Within-country inequalities in secondary education are even more marked than inequalities among countries. In many developing countries, secondary net attendance rates, as well as survival rates, are significantly lower among poorer households than among richer ones.
- Tertiary education has expanded rapidly since the Dakar conference. Some 7 million students in the Arab States were enrolled in tertiary education in 2006 – 36% more than in 1999. Even so, participation in tertiary education remained low, with a GER of 22% in 2006.
- At the country level, enrolment in tertiary education institutions varies from less than 10% in Djibouti (2.4%), Mauritania (3.5%) and Yemen (9.4%) to about 48% in Lebanon and the Palestinian Autonomous Territories.

Learning needs of young people and adults

Most of the Arab States have yet to seriously address the challenging tasks that EFA goal 3 entails: meeting the diverse learning needs of young people and adults through lifelong learning programmes and skills acquisition.

- The unmet need for such programmes reflects the experiences of millions of youth in the region who never attended school or who dropped out and never acquired basic skills, and nearly 58 million adults who have been denied the right to literacy. Given the understandable pressure to extend the cycle of basic education and expand secondary education, there is a clear risk that the disparity between governments' commitments to formal and non-formal education will be further accentuated in coming years.

- Many governments give too little priority to the learning needs of youth and adults in their education strategies and policies. Inadequate public funding hampers provision and weak monitoring obscures learning deficits among adults. The fact that no quantitative targets were established at Dakar, apart from the main literacy target, contributes to a lack of urgency.

- Adult learning programmes are found in a myriad of formal, informal and non-formal settings. Across developing countries, non-formal education programmes differ in terms of objectives, target groups, content, pedagogy, scale and provider type. Many large-scale literacy programmes, often extending to life skills (e.g. in health and civic rights), livelihoods (income generation, farming) and/or equivalency education, are supported by international non-government organizations (NGOs) and bilateral and multilateral agencies. Some countries see non-formal provision principally in terms of adult literacy, while others take a broader view, stressing flexibility and programme diversity to complement formal education.

- There is a strong case to be made for clarifying the purpose of lifelong learning provision, improving data flows and, critically, strengthening political commitment. As a first step towards more effective monitoring, improved information is needed about how different stakeholders define adult learning needs, which groups are targeted, what types of skills are taught, how programmes are implemented and whether they are sustainable given current funding sources.

Adult literacy

Reading, writing and calculating are essential skills for living in today's world. Literacy and numeracy enhance self-esteem, contribute to empowerment and educational attainment, improve health, increase employment opportunities and lower child mortality. Despite these advantages for individuals and societies, literacy remains a neglected goal. Barriers to widespread literacy include insufficient access to education of good quality, weak support for young people exiting the school system, poor funding and administrative fragmentation of literacy programmes, and limited opportunities for adult learning. Many of these barriers disproportionately affect marginal and vulnerable groups, and exacerbate socio-economic inequalities.

- Adult illiteracy remains a challenge in many Arab States. In 2000–2006 around 58 million adults – 28% of the region's adult population – were unable to read and/or write, with understanding, a simple statement in a national or official language. More than two-thirds of them were women. In absolute numbers the challenge of adult illiteracy was greatest in Algeria, Egypt, Morocco and Sudan, which together accounted for more than two-thirds of the adult illiterates in the region. The absolute number of adults lacking basic literacy skills had increased since 1985–1994, reflecting continued population growth. Unless governments in the region take urgent steps, the scale of the problem will have changed very little by 2015, when it is projected that 53 million adults will still be illiterate.

- Between 1985–1994 and 2000–2006, the average adult literacy rate increased from 58% to 72%. The rise was more pronounced among women, with the average rate climbing from 46% to just over 61%. Despite this progress, adult literacy rates in the region remain below the developing country average of 79%.

- Ample disparities in adult literacy characterize the region. While Mauritania, Morocco, Sudan and Yemen had adult literacy rates between 55% and 61% in 2000–2006, well below the region's average, Jordan, Kuwait, the Palestinian Autonomous Territories, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates reported literacy rates of 90% or above.

- With continued expansion of formal education, literacy rates of young adults (aged 15 to 24) improved from 76% in 1985–1994 to 86% in 2000–2006.

- National literacy rates conceal major within-country disparities, especially those linked to gender, poverty, place of residence, ethnicity, language and disability. Despite some improvement over time, striking gender disparities still characterize the Arab States, whose average GPI in adult literacy was 0.75 in 2000–2006. There is a pressing need to

address women's literacy needs, particularly in Egypt, Morocco, Sudan and Yemen, whose GPIs were below the regional average. In Yemen, only 51 women were literate per 100 men.

- In addition to gender, disparities in adult literacy revolve around other markers of disadvantage, such as poverty, place of residence, caste, ethnicity, language and age. In general, illiteracy rates tend to be highest in the countries with the greatest poverty. The link between poverty and illiteracy is also observed at the household level, with the literacy rates of the poorest households substantially lower than those of the wealthiest. Achieving the EFA adult literacy goal implies paying sustained attention to inequalities. It also means developing the literate environment – promoting the availability and use of multilingual written materials and new technology, which encourage literacy acquisition, a reading culture, improved literacy retention and access to information.

Gender parity and equality

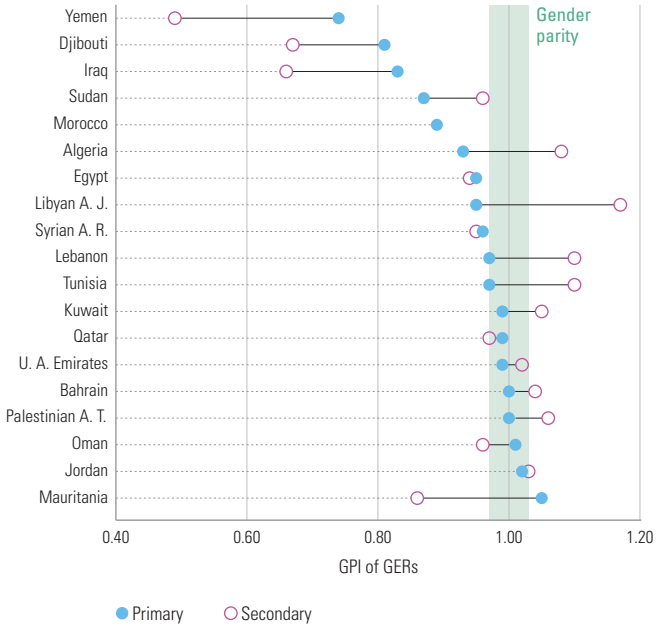
The Dakar Framework for Action to achieve the EFA goals sets out a two-part gender equity agenda: first, to achieve gender parity in school participation and, second, to improve gender equality in educational opportunities and outcomes.

- There has been sustained progress towards gender parity in education in the Arab States. However, the goal of eliminating gender disparities by 2005 in primary and secondary education was not achieved in most countries; only Jordan, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates were at parity at both levels. Gender gaps persist in many countries, particularly at higher education levels.

- Although more than half the Arab States with data available had yet to achieve gender parity in primary education by 2006, disparities in school participation between boys and girls had narrowed in most countries since 1999 (Figure 3). Some countries which have made progress in primary school coverage have done so through an emphasis on including more girls. Examples include Djibouti, where the GPI of GER improved from 0.71 in 1999 to 0.81 in 2006; Morocco (from 0.81 to 0.89); and, especially, Yemen (from 0.56 to 0.74). On a less positive note, some countries moved in the wrong direction. For example, the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya and Mauritania registered gender parity in 1999 but not in 2006.

- In most Arab States girls are less likely to repeat grades in primary education. However, the situation was less marked as regards school retention. There were as about as many countries where girls had a greater chance of reaching the final primary school grade as countries where their survival rate to the last grade was lower than that of boys in 2005.

Figure 3: Gender disparities in primary and secondary gross enrolment ratios, 2006



In Iraq, Mauritania, Morocco and Yemen, boys had a greater chance of reaching the final grade, while girls' survival rates to the last grade were higher in Algeria, Kuwait and Lebanon.

- Gender disparities were more widespread in higher levels of education. Of the eighteen countries with data available only three were at gender parity in secondary education: Jordan, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates. There were nearly as many countries with gender disparities at the expense of boys (seven) as at the expense of girls (eight). Girls' enrolment rates were much lower than those of boys in secondary education in Djibouti, Iraq and Yemen (GPI of GER below 0.70, or even 0.50), while more girls than boys were enrolled in Lebanon, the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya and Tunisia (GPI of 1.10 or more). Gender disparities in secondary education narrowed in the great majority of countries, especially Mauritania and Yemen. While Tunisia was at gender parity in 1999, the situation of boys worsened and the GPI reached 1.10 in 2006.

- The participation of women in tertiary education improved substantially over 1999–2006, with the GPI of tertiary GER increasing from 0.74 to 1.00. However, the regional average masks very different realities at country level. Women's participation rates surpass those of men in ten of the fifteen countries with data, with the highest levels in Bahrain, Kuwait and Qatar (GPI of GER above 2.00 in 2006). In contrast, women in Mauritania and Yemen have less chance of participating in tertiary education (GPI below 0.50).

- Within countries there is a strong association between poverty and gender inequalities in education. Gender differences in net attendance rates tend to be wider for poorer households than for richer ones, with the disadvantage being greater in secondary than in primary education. Poverty often interacts with wider social, economic and cultural factors to disadvantage girls. An important research exercise has shown that being born into a group that is indigenous, a linguistic minority, of low caste or geographically isolated can magnify disadvantage.

- Cultural attitudes and practices that promote early marriage, enforce the seclusion of young girls or attach more value to boy's education are all barriers to gender equity. Distance to school can also have an impact and is negatively related to girls' enrolment. Overcoming these inequalities requires gender-sensitive public policy and governance initiatives, such as removing fees and providing incentives for girls to be in school. It also implies removing cultural barriers to equity, which requires long-term provision of good-quality public education and strong commitments by political leaders, backed by legislation enforcing the equal rights of girls.

- Reducing gender disparities in formal education does not automatically translate into gender equality in educational opportunities and outcomes. Girls and boys achieve very different outcomes in school, not just in overall performance but also by subject. Education systems and classroom practices partly explain these differences, but such school-based factors interact with wider social, cultural and economic forces that structure expectations, aspirations and performance along gender lines. Four distinctive themes emerge from recent research and assessments:

  – *Girls continue to outperform boys in reading literacy and language arts.* This effect holds across a diverse group of countries, including those with significant gender disparities in school participation, such as Morocco.

  – *Historically, boys have outperformed girls in mathematics in all primary and secondary education grades – but that picture is changing.* Girls are outperforming boys in mathematics in a growing number of countries, including Bahrain and Jordan (eighth grade, in the 2003 Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study, TIMSS).

  – *The science gap is often small, though boys tend to maintain an advantage.* Recent science assessments continue to report cases in which boys hold an advantage over girls, but more often than not the difference is statistically insignificant.

  – *Girls and boys favour different subjects in tertiary education.* Despite the increase in female participation in tertiary education, some subject areas remain male domains. In the Arab States, the median share of females enrolled in engineering, manufacturing and construction was 31% in 2006. Women were much better represented in fields long considered feminine, such as education (70%), and humanities and the arts (74%). Recent studies indicate complex socialization processes influence gender differences in choice of subject area. These include poor career counselling, lack of role models, negative attitudes from families, fear of mathematics and fear of being in the minority.

- Social conditioning and gender stereotyping can limit ambition and create self-fulfilling expectations of disparities in outcomes. Recent research underlines a strong association between the degree of gender equality in society at large and the size of gender gaps in mathematics achievement. Teacher attitudes and practices that translate into different treatment of boys and girls can also affect cognitive development and reinforce gender stereotyping. So can gender bias in textbooks.

- Female teachers can serve as role models for young girls, potentially countering gender stereotypes. In the Arab States, female teachers are overrepresented in lower levels of education while the reverse is true at higher levels. They also tend to be clustered in urban schools. A recent survey in eleven middle-income countries shows that pupils in rural primary schools are more likely than urban pupils to be taught by male teachers. This is particularly the case in Tunisia. Rural girls thus have less chance of contact with female role models who might raise their expectations and self-confidence.

- The presence of female teachers may also help increase girls' access to school in countries where high gender disparities prevail. Yet this does not always guarantee gender equality in socialization and learning processes. Teachers of either sex may discriminate informally, reinforcing gender disparities and undermining learning outcomes for disadvantaged groups. Such behaviour can affect learning opportunities if, for example, girls or minority students are seated far from the teacher, do not receive textbooks or are not called on in class. In Yemen, researchers observed that primary school girls were typically seated at the rear of the classroom – an arrangement not conducive to effective participation. Greater attention to gender training for teachers would help, but in many countries the gender dimension in teacher training takes a back seat to the teaching of reading and mathematics when it comes to efforts to improve classroom and teacher practices.

Quality of education

The ultimate aim of EFA is that children acquire the basic skills they need to enrich their lives, expand their opportunities and participate in society. The quality of the education they receive – in terms of what they learn and under what conditions, and the crucial role of teachers – is key.

Learning outcomes

- Millions of children in the developing world attend primary schools, often for several years, without mastering basic skills. Assessments of more complex abilities, such as conceptualization, critical thinking and problem-solving, are equally disturbing. For example, in Egypt close to 10,000 fourth grade students in seven governorates were assessed in Arabic, mathematics and science. In all three subjects only one-fifth to one-quarter of students demonstrated an ability to answer questions involving critical thinking and problem-solving.

- Concern about low learning levels is based both on national surveys and on international assessments. The latter show most developing countries still far behind developed ones. Results from the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2006, which tested 15-year-old students in science, indicated that substantial proportions of students in the participating Arab States (44% in Jordan, 79% in Qatar and 63% in Tunisia) scored at or below level 1, the lowest level in the PISA science ranking, compared with fewer than 10% in Canada and Finland. Fewer than 1% of the students in each of the three Arab countries attained proficiency levels 5 and 6, the highest levels, compared with 15% or more in several Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries.

- Other international assessments point in a similar direction. In the 2003 TIMSS, half of all grade 8 students achieved the intermediate benchmark (a score of 475), compared with 17% of those from the nine participating Arab States.[3]

- The 2006 Progress in Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS), testing fourth graders in reading, also revealed large disparities between developed and developing countries. The percentage of students demonstrating basic reading ability – i.e. reaching level 1, the lowest benchmark – ranged from 26% in Morocco to more than 95% in most of North America and Western Europe. The share of students performing at or above the intermediate benchmark, level 2, was over 75% in most OECD countries but less than 20% in developing countries, including Morocco.

- The PIRLS results also showed huge disparities in achievement within countries: in Morocco, for instance, high-scoring pupils reached levels comparable to those of some of the best pupils in high-achieving countries. Within-country disparities in learning achievement exist at every level: between regions, communities, schools and classrooms. Research drawing on data from international, regional and national assessments identifies major factors influencing within-country disparities: student background, the education system and school context.

  – *Student background.* Apart from inherent ability, student achievement is the product of social, economic and cultural circumstances, such as household income, parental education, gender, ethnicity, home language and other family characteristics. These student endowments significantly influence how much children actually learn and the extent of variation in learning outcomes.

  – *Education system.* The organization of the education system includes the mix of students, grade promotion, ability grouping, multigrade teaching and school-leaving exams, to name a few. Whereas policies such as extended ECCE provision can increase equity, others, such as highly selective academic streams, can lead to greater disparities.

  – *School context.* An effective school learning environment relies on basic infrastructure, professional leadership, motivated teachers, sufficient instructional time[4] and learning materials, nourished children ready to learn and the use of performance-enhancing monitoring and evaluation. Yet many essential resources, such as electricity, seats, desks, textbooks and libraries, are scarce in some countries.[5] Distance and well-being are also serious problems. For example, teachers in Tunisia report that one in seven children has to walk more than 5 km to attend school and some come to school with an empty stomach.

- In many developing countries key school resources are unequally distributed between urban and rural areas. Poor children are more likely to attend inadequately equipped schools, which exacerbates other inequalities. Clearly, governance decisions concerning school infrastructure, classroom processes and the recruitment, deployment and effectiveness of teachers, as well as the student body composition, matter a great deal for learning.

3. Bahrain, Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, the Palestinian Autonomous Territories, Saudi Arabia, the Syrian Arab Republic and Tunisia.

4. Many factors influence instructional time. Armed conflict, ethnic violence, natural disasters and inclement weather can affect the number of days schools are open in some regions and communities. Significant disparities between schools are reported. In a recent study, grade 4 teachers in village schools in Tunisia reported teaching significantly fewer annual hours of mathematics and reading than teachers in town schools, despite uniform country guidelines.

5. In Tunisia again, nearly half of students attend schools with no libraries. Textbook provision and contents also remain problems.

Teachers

For students to perform well, an adequate supply of well-trained and motivated teachers is needed, coupled with reasonable pupil/teacher ratios (PTRs). Teachers, and the ways they are recruited, trained and deployed among schools, play an important role in improving student learning and reducing disparities.

- The number of teachers working in primary education in the Arab States grew by about 18% to 1.8 million between 1999 and 2006. However, PTRs are a more useful benchmark than numbers for measuring teacher provision. There is broad consensus that a PTR of 40:1 is an approximate ceiling for a primary school learning environment of good quality. While the region's average PTR remained virtually unchanged in 2006, at 22:1, a few countries registered more pronounced changes. Some countries increased the number of teachers in primary education substantially at a time when enrolment rates were growing, and managed to reduce PTRs. In Djibouti, for example, the number of children enrolled in primary schools increased by 41% between 1999 and 2006, but thanks to an even higher increase in the number of teachers, from 966,000 to 1.6 million, the average PTR fell from 40:1 to 34:1. Mauritania is another country where the situation improved, with the PTR dropping from 47:1 to 41:1 even as total enrolment rose nearly 35%.

- In 2006, all primary school teachers were trained in more than half the Arab States with data. However, this overall picture masks situations like that in Lebanon, where just 13% of primary school teachers were trained, resulting in one trained teacher per 110 pupils.

- Excessive PTRs, shortages of trained teachers and questions about teachers' skills in some countries point to wide-ranging governance problems. Teacher shortages often result from inadequate investment in education and questionable incentive structures for recruitment and retention. At primary school level in particular, teacher training is often fragmented and incomplete – in some cases, non-existent.

- National PTRs often mask large disparities within countries, again influenced by location, income and type of school. While urban PTRs tend to be higher than rural ones, untrained teachers are often concentrated in poor rural areas. Many countries show a marked gap between government and non-government provision. Because children from poorer households are more likely to attend government schools, unequal PTRs both reflect and reinforce wider inequalities.

- Excessive PTRs and shortages of trained teachers are only part of the problem. Other factors affecting the quality of teaching and learning include teacher absenteeism, low teacher morale related to poor salaries and working conditions, and the effect of HIV/AIDS on teacher mortality rates.

The EFA Development Index

The EFA Development Index (EDI) is a composite measure that captures overall progress. Ideally, it should reflect all six Dakar goals, but due to serious data constraints, it currently focuses only on the four most easily quantifiable EFA goals, attaching equal weight to each measure: UPE, adult literacy, gender parity and quality, each proxied by one relevant indicator.[6]

For the school year ending in 2006 the EDI could be calculated for fifteen of the twenty Arab States:

- Bahrain and the United Arab Emirates were close to achieving the four quantifiable EFA goals, with EDI values above 0.95.
- Nine countries were midway to achieving EFA, with EDI values ranging from 0.80 and 0.94. Most of these countries showed uneven progress. For example, while participation in primary education is high in Algeria, Egypt and Tunisia, the low adult literacy rates pulled down the index.
- Djibouti, Iraq, Mauritania and Yemen are lagging, with EDI values below 0.80. Although some have made important progress since 1999, they still face multiple challenges: low education participation; widespread adult illiteracy, gender disparities and inequalities; and poor education quality.
- Analysis of changes in the EDI between 1999 and 2006 could be carried out only for Bahrain, Iraq, Mauritania, the United Arab Emirates and Yemen. All showed improvement. In Yemen, significant increases in the total primary NER, adult literacy rate, gender parity and equality more than compensated for a large drop in the survival rate to grade 5 (-24%), leading to overall EDI improvement of 10%. The United Arab Emirates also saw a significant increase in its EDI value (7.8%), thanks mainly to improvements in primary school participation, adult literacy and school retention.

Table 1: Mean distance from the four EFA goals

EFA achieved *(EDI between 0.97 and 1.00)*	**Close to EFA** *(EDI between 0.95 and 0.96)*
None	Bahrain, United Arab Emirates (2)
Intermediate position *(EDI between 0.80 and 0.94)*	**Far from EFA** *(EDI below 0.80)*
Algeria, Egypt, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Oman, Palestinian Autonomous Territories, Qatar, Tunisia (9)	Djibouti, Iraq, Mauritania, Yemen (4)

6. UPE (goal 2) is proxied by the total NER (includes children of primary school age who are enrolled in either primary or secondary education); adult literacy (goal 4) by the literacy rate of those aged 15 and above; gender parity and equality (goal 5) by the gender-specific EFA index (GEI), an average of the GPIs for primary and secondary GERs and for the adult literacy rate; and quality of education (goal 6) by the survival rate to grade 5. The EDI value for a given country is an arithmetic mean of the four proxy indicators. It falls between 0 and 1, with 1 representing full EFA achievement.

Raising quality and strengthening equity: why governance matters

Education governance is not an abstract concept. It is about ensuring that children have access to well-resourced schools that are responsive to local needs. It is also concerned with ensuring that teachers are trained and motivated, and that teachers and schools are accountable to parents and communities for improving learning outcomes. Education governance is about how policies are formulated, priorities identified, resources allocated, and reforms implemented and monitored.

Governance reform is a prominent part of the EFA agenda. The Dakar Framework for Action set out broad principles, which include creating responsive, accountable and participatory education systems. The widely held conviction is that moving decision-making away from remote government agencies and making the process more localized and transparent will improve education service providers' responsiveness to the needs and concerns of the poor. However, experience in both developed and developing countries points to highly variable results. Two key findings emerge. First, there is no blueprint for good governance: each country has to develop national and local solutions to governance problems. Second, governments around the world have attached insufficient weight to equity in the design of governance reforms. There is an urgent need to ensure that the interests of the poor, marginalized and vulnerable are placed firmly at the centre of the governance agenda.

The 2009 Report focuses on four areas that highlight some of the most important currents in governance reform.

Financing education for equity

- Additional funding is needed if the world is to achieve the Dakar goals. But increasing funding is part of a broader set of education policy challenges. Countries also need to improve efficiency and develop strategies addressing inequalities in education finance if EFA is to be achieved.
- Increased public spending is not guaranteed to improve access, equity or learning outcomes. But chronic and sustained underfinancing is a sure route to limited, poor-quality provision.
- Technical efficiency provides an indicator of the cost associated with turning finance into quantitative and qualitative outcomes. In many countries, corruption is a major source of both inefficiency and inequity – the former because it means more public money provides fewer inputs

and the latter because the costs of corruption invariably fall most heavily on the poor. Monitoring the use of funds through public expenditure tracking can help reduce corruption.

- Public spending on education has the potential to redress inequalities but often reinforces them instead. Governments have developed various approaches aimed at making spending more equitable, such as school grants and formula funding linked to need. However, outcomes have been mixed.

- Financial decentralization can widen the gaps between rich and poor areas. Central governments need to retain a strong role in redistributing financial resources from richer to poorer areas, or financing gaps in education are likely to grow.

Choice, competition and voice: school governance reform and EFA

- School governance reforms aim to strengthen the voices of the poor and increase their choices by transferring responsibility to communities, parents and private providers. An overarching lesson from experience is that these reforms are not a substitute for government's responsibility to ensure that the public education system is of good quality.

- School-based management describes a range of reforms that aim to give teachers, parents and communities more autonomy over decision-making in schools. In some cases, these reforms have improved learning achievements and strengthened equity. More widely, though, there is limited evidence of improvements in either learning outcomes or teaching practices.

- Encouraging the participation of parents and communities in decision-making can make schools more responsive to local needs. However, it does not follow that this will overcome wider inequalities. In reality, local power structures associated with poverty and social inequality can still limit the influence of the poor and marginalized.

- Expanding school choice is widely viewed as an incentive for improved school performance. Some governments use vouchers and other instruments to facilitate transfers from public to private providers, or contract out the management of government schools to non-public providers. However, these reforms have not unambiguously raised academic achievement standards. Often, they have widened inequalities.

- Low-fee private schools are changing the education landscape in some parts of the world. Their rapid growth is a symptom of failure in the availability or quality of government schools. However, they risk widening the gap between those who can and cannot afford to pay. There are also questions about the quality of education they provide.

Strengthening teacher governance and monitoring

- Many school systems fail to provide an education that meets even the most basic standards for quality and equity. To address this, attention needs to be paid to teacher recruitment, deployment and motivation, together with effective use of information from learning assessments and school supervision.

- From one perspective, teacher salaries are viewed as crowding out spending on learning materials and other aspects of education provision. From an alternative perspective, they are seen as too low, even near or below the poverty line in some countries, with obvious implications for teacher motivation and standards.

- Hiring contract teachers can help address teacher shortages at lower cost. However, relying on contract teachers can weaken quality by lowering the standard of the teaching staff or reducing overall teacher morale.

- Teacher deployment is often inequitable within countries, which can worsen inequality in learning. Prioritizing training of teachers from under-represented groups, together with local recruitment, can make a difference.

- Some governments see performance-related pay as a strategy to improve teacher performance, including by reducing teacher absenteeism. But there is little evidence that it produces positive results – and some evidence that it has perverse effects, such as encouraging teachers to focus on the best-performing students.

- Using information from learning assessments to monitor quality standards and equity is one of the keys to improved learning outcomes. Increasingly, information from learning assessments is being used to identify problems and inform policy, with encouraging results.

- School supervision is an essential aspect of monitoring, not only to oversee teacher and school performance but also to identify and support needed quality improvements.

An integrated approach to education and poverty reduction

- Sustained progress towards EFA depends on the effective integration of education planning with wider poverty reduction strategies, for an obvious reason: poverty, poor nutrition and ill health are significant barriers to success in education.
- Poverty reduction strategy papers (PSRPs) have failed to make the link between education and poverty reduction, with a weak relationship to the EFA agenda, limited consideration of equity in target-setting, a disconnect from broader governance reform and poor integration of cross-sector approaches.
- Social protection programmes are making a strong contribution to education by addressing problems in health, nutrition and child labour.
- Political commitment, together with consultation processes that provide opportunities for civil society organizations to participate in policy discussions, is crucial. The challenge is to extend participation to make sure the voices of the poor and vulnerable are heard.

Financing education

National finance

- Data on public expenditure on education are available for only ten of the Arab States. Half of these spent less than 5.0% of GNP on education in 2006, but variation within the region was wide, ranging from 1.6% in the United Arab Emirates to 7.7% in Tunisia.
- Most countries with data increased the share of national income devoted to education between 1999 and 2006. This was particularly the case for Lebanon and Oman. Despite a 0.8 percentage point increase in the latter, the percentage of GNP on education remained low (2.8% in 2006).
- The share of education in total public expenditure is a more direct measure of government commitment to education. The Arab States allocated a greater proportion of total government expenditure to education than other regions, with a median value of about 21% in 2006. The share varied widely within the region, from 10% in Mauritania to 31% in Oman. In the latter, the percentage had increased substantially, by ten percentage points, since 1999.
- How governments allocate resources within the education sector is also important. In Mauritania, Morocco and Oman, the proportion of public current expenditure allocated to primary education ranged from 45% to 62%. On the other hand, the share was only 21% in Kuwait. There are huge gaps in spending per primary school student among the countries with data. In 2006, this unit cost, expressed at purchasing power parity in constant 2005 US dollars, ranged from US$224 in Mauritania to US$2,204 in Kuwait – well below the median for developed countries (US$5,100).

International aid

- Total commitments of official development assistance (ODA) for Arab States have increased significantly since 1999, from US$6.7 billion in 1999–2000 to US$29.6 billion in 2005. Although still high, total ODA commitments in 2006 fell to US$16.7 billion. Much of the growth, and the latest drop, were driven by debt relief – particularly that directed to Iraq. Debt relief component constituted 48% of total ODA for the region in 2005.
- Total aid to education for the region has also followed an increasing trend since 1999. However, the share of aid for education in total ODA fell from 16% in 1999–2000 to 6% in 2005–2006, as most aid was aimed elsewhere.[7]

7. Two-year averages are used to dampen the effect of volatility of aid commitments.

- These trends present greater variation at country level. The growth of total aid to education between 1999–2000 and 2005–2006 was very significant in some countries, such as Jordan, where it more than quadrupled, and Mauritania, where it more than doubled.

- Greater attention to countries affected by conflict is reflected in recent volumes of aid commitments. In Sudan, total aid to education amounted to US$106 million in 2005–2006, which was over five times higher than in 1999–2000. But while development assistance to the country has been increased, it has not been with a specific focus on education. At 8%, the share of education in total ODA for Sudan in 2006 was low and very similar to the share in 1999–2000. In Iraq, total aid commitments to education rose over twelve times between 1999–2000 and 2005–2006. By the end of the period, however, the share of education in total ODA had dropped from 7% to 1%.

- Aid to basic education in the region grew faster than total aid to education between 1999–2000 and 2005–2006. Despite a weakening of the pace of increase from 2005 to 2006, the share of aid to basic education in total aid to education went from 29% in 1999–2000 to 34% in 2005–2006.

- Some of the countries which registered increases in total aid to education oriented this assistance to basic education. Jordan and Mauritania are examples. So is Egypt, where aid to basic education has more than doubled since 1999–2000. Other countries which have reoriented aid towards basic education are Djibouti, Iraq, Oman, the Palestinian Autonomous Territories, Saudi Arabia and Yemen.

- The priority that countries give to basic education can be observed by grouping them according to the share of basic education in total aid to education in 2005–2006:

  – Countries where the share is *less than 25%* include Algeria, Bahrain, Lebanon, the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Morocco, Oman, the Syrian Arab Republic and Tunisia. All except Bahrain and Oman have shifted aid away from basic education and towards post-secondary education. While in some cases this reorientation may be related to the achievement of high rates of coverage in basic education, the situation is of concern in Morocco, where over 400,000 children are still out of school.

  – Iraq is the only country where the share is *between 25% and 50%*.

  – The share is *more than 50%* in countries including Djibouti, Egypt, Jordan, Mauritania, the Palestinian Autonomous Territories, Sudan and Yemen. In all these cases, both the volume of aid commitments to basic education and the relative weight of this level in total aid to education increased between 1999–2000 and 2005–2006. Aid to basic education in Egypt reached 78% of total aid to education in 2005–2006, and in Yemen it rose to 90%.

- The data on aid presented so far are those reported by bilateral and multilateral agencies to the OECD Development Assistance Committee (DAC). Non-DAC bilateral donors also support education in developing countries and private foundations increasingly provide support for basic education. A significant initiative in 2007 was the launch of Dubai Cares. This foundation has raised nearly US$1 billion from individuals and businesses in Dubai and entered a partnership with UNICEF to educate 1 million children. The first activities of the partnership are a programme in Djibouti to build and rehabilitate primary schools to benefit 30,000 children and to improve the quality of education. In addition, the foundation has allocated US$16.6 million to Save the Children to support education in Sudan.

Acronyms and definitions

ECCE: early childhood care and education. 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 0) or as part of a non-formal child development programme. ECCE programmes are normally 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.

GPI: gender parity index. 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 or the other.

GER: gross enrolment ratio. 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. For the tertiary level, the population used is that of the five year age group following on from the secondary school leaving age. The GER can exceed 100% due to late entry or/and repetition.

GIR: gross intake rate. Total number of new entrants to a given grade of primary education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population at the official school entrance age for that grade.

GNP: gross national product. Gross domestic product plus net receipts of income from abroad. As these receipts may be positive or negative, GNP may be greater or smaller than GDP. This latter indicator is the sum of gross value added by all resident producers in the economy, including distributive trades and transport, plus any product taxes and minus any subsidies not included in the value of the products.

NER: net enrolment ratio. Enrolment of the official age group for a given level of education, expressed as a percentage of the population in that age group.

PIRLS: Progress in Reading Literacy Study.

PISA: Programme for International Student Assessment.

PTR: pupil/teacher ratio. Average number of pupils per teacher at a specific level of education, based on headcounts for both pupils and teachers.

TIMSS: Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study.

UPE: Universal primary education.

Table 2: Arab States, selected education indicators

Country or territory	Total population (000) 2006	Compulsory education (age group)	EFA Development Index (EDI) 2006	Adult literacy rate (15 and over) 1985–1994[1] Total (%)	1985–1994[1] GPI (F/M)	2000–2006[1] Total (%)	2000–2006[1] GPI (F/M)	Early childhood care and education: Child survival and well-being Under-5 mortality rate (‰) 2005–2010	Moderate and severe stunting (%) 1996–2006[1]	Pre-primary education GER 1999 Total (%)	Pre-primary education GER 2006 Total (%)
Arab States											
Algeria	33 351	6-14	0.888	50	0.57	75	0.78	33	11	3	15
Bahrain	739	6-15	0.959	84	0.87	88	0.95	14	10	36	52
Djibouti[4]	819	6-15	0.684	…	…	…	…	126	33	0.4	2
Egypt	74 166	6-14	0.877	44	0.55	71	0.72	34	18	11	***17***
Iraq	28 506	6-11	0.768	…	…	74	0.76	105	21	5	***6***
Jordan	5 729	6-15	0.943	…	…	93	0.92	22	9	29	32
Kuwait	2 779	6-14	0.935	74	0.88	93	0.96	10	24	78	75
Lebanon	4 055	6-15	0.887	…	…	…	…	26	11	61	64
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	6 039	6-14	…	76	0.71	86	0.82	20	15	5	9
Mauritania[4]	3 044	6-14	0.695	…	…	55	0.76	92	35	…	***2***
Morocco	30 853	6-14	…	42	0.52	55	0.62	36	18	62	59
Oman	2 546	6-15	0.885	…	…	84	0.86	14	10	6	8
Palestinian A. T.	3 889	6-15	0.913	…	…	92	0.91	20	10	39	30
Qatar	821	6-17	0.935	76	0.94	90	1.00	10	8	25	43
Saudi Arabia	24 175	6-11	…	71	0.72	84	0.89	22	20	…	…
Sudan	37 707	6-13	…	…	…	61	0.73	105	43	19	24
Syrian Arab Republic	19 408	6-14	…	…	…	83	0.85	18	22	8	11
Tunisia	10 215	6-16	0.900	…	…	77	0.79	22	12	14	…
United Arab Emirates	4 248	6-14	0.956	71	0.95	90	0.98	9	17	64	78
Yemen[4]	21 732	6-14	0.643	37	0.30	57	0.51	79	53	0.7	***0.9***
	Sum			Weighted average				Weighted average		Weighted average	
Arab States	314 822	…	…	58	0.66	72	0.75	54	25	15	18
Developing countries	5 284 165	…	…	68	0.77	79	0.85	81	32	27	36
World	6 578 149	…	…	76	0.85	84	0.89	74	31	33	41

Data in italics are for 2004. Data in bold italics are for 2005. Data in bold are for 2007 or 2006 for survival rate to last grade.

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 enrolment ratios of primary school age children, which measure the proportion of those who are enrolled either in primary or in secondary schools (total primary NER).
3. Based on headcounts of pupils and teachers.
4. Fast Track Initiative (FTI): countries with endorsed sector plans.

Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report 2009, Statistical tables; UNESCO Institute for Statistics; CRS online database (OECD-DAC, 2008).

Primary education										
NER total (%)		GPI of GER (F/M)		Out-of-school children[2]	Survival rate to last grade total (%)		% of trained teachers	Pupil/teacher ratio[3]		
1999	2006	1999	2006	2006 (000)	1999	2005	2006	1999	2006	Country or territory
										Arab States
91	95	0.91	0.93	88	91	91	99	28	24	Algeria
96	***98***	1.01	1.00	***0.4***	92	*99*	…	…	…	Bahrain
27	38	0.71	0.81	75	…	…	79	40	34	Djibouti [4]
94	**96**	0.91	**0.95**	**232**	99	**97**	…	23	**27**	Egypt
85	***89***	0.82	***0.83***	***508***	49	*70*	*100*	25	***21***	Iraq
91	90	1.00	1.02	53	97	96	…	…	…	Jordan
87	83	1.01	0.99	24	94	96	100	13	10	Kuwait
86	82	0.95	0.97	81	91	87	13	14	14	Lebanon
…	…	0.98	0.95	…	…	…	…	…	…	Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
64	79	0.99	1.05	92	61	45	100	47	41	Mauritania [4]
70	88	0.81	0.89	429	75	74	***100***	28	27	Morocco
81	74	0.97	1.01	82	92	99	100	25	14	Oman
97	76	1.01	1.00	94	99	*98*	***100***	38	32	Palestinian A. T.
92	94	0.96	0.99	1.2	…	89	52	13	11	Qatar
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	Saudi Arabia
…	…	0.85	0.87	…	77	*74*	59	…	34	Sudan
92	…	0.92	0.96	…	87	92	…	25	…	Syrian Arab Republic
93	96	0.95	0.97	27	87	94	…	24	19	Tunisia
79	88	0.97	0.99	13	90	99	***60***	16	15	United Arab Emirates
56	***75***	0.56	***0.74***	***906***	80	*59*	…	22	…	Yemen [4]
Weighted average		Weighted average		Sum	Median			Weighted average		
78	84	0.87	0.90	5 708	90	92	100	23	22	Arab States
81	85	0.91	0.94	71 911	…	81	85	27	28	Developing countries
82	86	0.92	0.95	75 177	…	88	…	25	25	World

Table 2 (continued)

Country or territory	Secondary education: GER in lower secondary 2006 Total (%)	Secondary education: GER in lower secondary 2006 GPI (F/M)	Secondary education: GER in upper secondary 2006 Total (%)	Secondary education: GER in upper secondary 2006 GPI (F/M)	Secondary education: GER in total secondary 1999 Total (%)	Secondary education: GER in total secondary 1999 GPI (F/M)	Secondary education: GER in total secondary 2006 Total (%)	Secondary education: GER in total secondary 2006 GPI (F/M)	Tertiary education: GER 2006 Total (%)	Tertiary education: GER 2006 GPI (F/M)
Arab States										
Algeria	***108***	***0.95***	***58***	***1.36***	…	…	***83***	***1.08***	22	1.26
Bahrain	104	1.00	100	1.08	95	1.08	102	1.04	32	2.46
Djibouti[4]	27	0.69	16	0.63	14	0.72	22	0.67	2	0.68
Egypt	*98*	*0.93*	*77*	*0.95*	82	0.92	*88*	*0.94*	***35***	…
Iraq	***58***	***0.64***	***32***	***0.70***	34	0.63	***45***	***0.66***	***16***	***0.59***
Jordan	94	1.01	78	1.06	89	1.02	89	1.03	39	1.11
Kuwait	91	1.01	85	1.12	98	1.02	89	1.05	18	2.32
Lebanon	88	1.09	74	1.12	74	1.09	81	1.10	48	1.16
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	116	0.99	77	1.41	…	…	94	1.17	…	…
Mauritania[4]	27	0.88	22	0.84	19	0.77	25	0.86	4	0.36
Morocco	69	…	36	…	37	0.79	52	…	12	0.81
Oman	94	0.95	83	0.97	75	1.00	89	0.96	25	1.04
Palestinian A. T.	100	1.04	73	1.16	80	1.04	94	1.06	48	1.22
Qatar	101	0.97	101	0.97	87	1.11	101	0.97	19	3.41
Saudi Arabia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	29	1.50
Sudan	47	0.92	25	1.01	26	…	34	0.96	…	…
Syrian Arab Republic	92	0.94	33	0.99	40	0.91	70	0.95	…	…
Tunisia	107	1.00	70	1.22	72	1.02	85	1.10	31	1.42
United Arab Emirates	97	0.99	81	1.09	76	1.06	90	1.02	…	…
Yemen[4]	***51***	***0.52***	***40***	***0.46***	41	0.37	***46***	***0.49***	9	0.37
	Weighted average				Weighted average				Weighted average	
Arab States	81	0.90	54	0.97	60	0.89	68	0.92	22	1.00
Developing countries	75	0.94	46	0.93	52	0.89	60	0.94	17	0.93
World	78	0.95	53	0.95	60	0.92	66	0.95	25	1.06

Data in italics are for 2004. Data in bold italics are for 2005. Data in bold are for 2007 or 2006 for survival rate to last grade.

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 enrolment ratios of primary school age children, which measure the proportion of those who are enrolled either in primary or in secondary schools (total primary NER).
3. Based on headcounts of pupils and teachers.
4. Fast Track Initiative (FTI): countries with endorsed sector plans.

Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report 2009, Statistical tables; UNESCO Institute for Statistics; CRS online database (OECD-DAC, 2008).

Education finance				
Total public expenditure on education as % of GNP		Total aid to basic education (constant 2006 US$ millions)	Total aid to basic education per primary school-age child (constant 2006 US$)	
1999	2006	2005–2006 annual average	2005–2006 annual average	Country or territory
				Arab States
…	…	22	6	Algeria
…	…	0	0	Bahrain
7.5	7.6	24	200	Djibouti [4]
…	4.2	99	11	Egypt
…	…	59	13	Iraq
5.0	…	52	63	Jordan
…	3.4	…	…	Kuwait
2.0	2.8	5	11	Lebanon
…	…	0	0.3	Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
2.8	2.8	35	78	Mauritania [4]
6.2	***6.8***	35	9	Morocco
4.2	5.0	0	0.3	Oman
…	…	53	116	Palestinian A. T.
…	…	…	…	Qatar
7.0	*6.7*	1	0.4	Saudi Arabia
…	…	55	9	Sudan
…	…	2	1	Syrian Arab Republic
7.2	***7.7***	12	11	Tunisia
…	*1.6*	…	…	United Arab Emirates
…	…	48	13	Yemen [4]
Median		Sum	Weighted average	
…	4.6	514	13	Arab States
4.5	4.4	3 595	6	Developing countries
4.5	4.9	4 376	8	World