

Regional overview: Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia



Central and Eastern Europe (CEE) and Central Asia (CA)¹ have made significant progress since the Education for All goals were adopted in 2000. In most countries, primary school participation is high and countries have sustained or even improved the gender parity levels. However, many of these gains, as well as other human development goals, are under threat from the global economic downturn. Protecting vulnerable populations and ensuring that forward momentum is not lost are now urgent priorities for governments and aid donors alike.

The *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010* details how marginalization deprives millions of children, in rich and poor countries, of education and life opportunities. They are victims of poverty, geographic isolation, conflict and discrimination based on ethnicity, language, disability and ill health. Different layers of disadvantage often combine to perpetuate a cycle of exclusion. The Report identifies the root causes of marginalization, within education and beyond, and analyses the ways in which governments and other actors are addressing them. It shows how proactive policies can make a difference, especially if directed at making education more accessible, affordable and inclusive, thus securing the right of all children to obtain a quality education.

On the road to Education for All: progress and challenges

The six Education for All (EFA) goals adopted in 2000 at the World Education Forum in Dakar remain the benchmark for assessing progress on the international commitment to expand learning opportunities for children, youth and adults by 2015. Achievements since 1999 have been sustained in CEE and CA, but progress is still needed and the regions lag behind others in certain areas. In particular, early childhood care and the quality of education have received insufficient attention. Countries also need to address internal disparities to improve equity in access and participation.

Early childhood care and education

Early childhood care and education can create the foundations for a life of expanded opportunity. Strong and growing evidence finds that high-quality care in the early years can be a springboard for success in primary school, offsetting social, economic and language-based disadvantage, especially for vulnerable and disadvantaged children. Yet every year thousands of children in CEE and CA enter school with learning impairments stemming from malnutrition, ill health, poverty and limited, or lack of, access to pre-primary education.

- Children who suffer *nutritional deprivation in utero* or *malnutrition* during the early years of life are at risk of developmental delays that impede later learning. They tend to score worse on tests of cognitive function and development. Malnutrition is also related to late entry in school and the risk of dropping out before completing a full primary cycle.
- Childhood *stunting* and *low birth weight* are indicators of the long-term health impact of malnutrition. Both indicators are quite low in the two regions, but more

1. This is according to the EFA classification. See Table 2 for countries in the regions.

than 20% of children under age 5 suffer from severe or moderate stunting in Albania (CEE) and in Azerbaijan, Mongolia and Tajikistan (CA).

- *Child mortality* rates help gauge children's well-being. Mortality rates are falling worldwide, but the world remains far off track for the Millennium Development Goal of a two-thirds reduction from 1990 levels by 2015. However, as the *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2009* noted, Central and Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States² are on track to meet this goal, although some countries are further behind. On average, 21 of every 1,000 children born in CEE and 62 of every 1,000 born in CA will die before reaching age 5. In Azerbaijan, Tajikistan and Turkmenistan, the rate is close to or higher than 80‰, while Turkey has the highest under-5 mortality rate in CEE at 32‰.
- *Maternal health* is intricately related to children's health. Mothers who are malnourished and suffering from micronutrient deficiencies face higher risk during pregnancy and childbirth, and are more likely to give birth to underweight babies. The failure of health systems to provide effective antenatal support, safe delivery and post-natal care also contributes to mortality, low birth weights and child illness. Being poor or belonging to particular indigenous or ethnic groups increases the disadvantage for expectant mothers. Successful policies to improve maternal and child health include scaling up maternal and child care services, achieving results through international aid partnerships, removing cost barriers to vital maternal and child health services, and assuring access to education.
- Enrolment in *pre-primary education* has increased by 5% in CEE and 13% in CA since 1999: more than 11 million children were enrolled in pre-school programmes in both regions in 2007. On average, however, only 28% of children in CA were enrolled in pre-primary education, compared with about two-thirds in CEE. While Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Tajikistan had coverage rates of less than 10% in 2007, gross enrolment ratios (GERs) were above 80% in ten CEE countries, including Belarus and the Czech Republic with values of more than 100%. In CA, Georgia and Mongolia had GERs greater than 50%, while the rest of the region had very low coverage rates. Between 1999 and 2007, GERs increased in all countries with data in the two regions, more than doubling in Kazakhstan, Mongolia and Turkey.³

- Two of the most pronounced *barriers to early childhood programmes* are household poverty and low parental education, regardless of age, gender or place of residence. For example, children in Mongolia's poorest 20% of households are twenty-two times less likely to participate in early childhood programmes than children in the wealthiest 20% of households. Lack of access also can be due to distance and cost. Public investment should be geared towards narrowing disparities, targeting marginalized groups and providing services that are of good quality and accessible to the poor.

Universal primary education

Progress towards universal primary education (UPE) has been steady in CA since the World Education Forum in Dakar, while CEE maintained relatively high rates of school participation. The number of out-of-school children has dropped since 1999, though it does not include out-of-school adolescents of lower secondary age. Being born a girl still carries a significant education disadvantage in many countries. Geographic isolation, extreme poverty, social exclusion, disability and conflict also take their toll. Getting all children into and through primary education requires a far stronger focus on the marginalized. There is a risk that the global financial crisis might reverse positive trends.

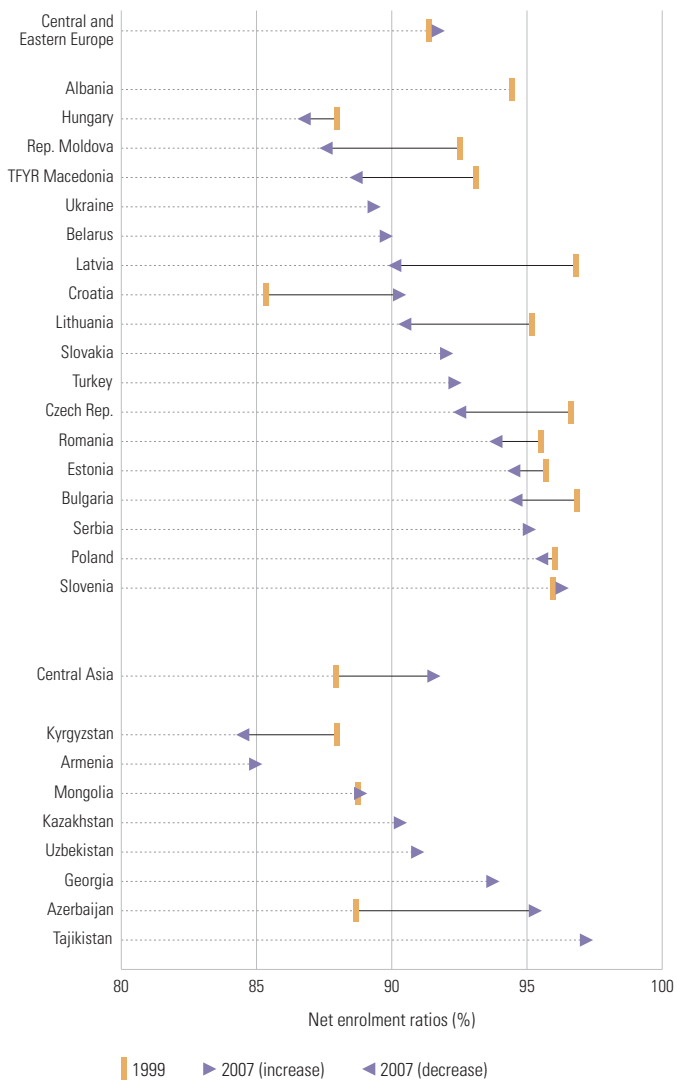
- CEE and CA have registered remarkable progress since 1999 in reducing their combined *out-of-school population* by about 677,000 down to 1.8 million in 2007. Yet some deficit remains: 5% to 7% of the regions' primary school age children were out of school in 2007.
- Among countries with data, countries with particularly large out-of-school populations in 1999 had made significant reductions by 2007 (e.g. Poland in CEE, Azerbaijan in CA), as did others with lower numbers (Croatia, Mongolia). Some 57% of the out-of-school children in CEE and 46% in CA are likely never to enrol in school and more than one-third are likely to enrol late in each region. In Turkey, seven out of ten out-of-school children are unlikely ever to enter school.
- *Total enrolment* in both regions together stood at 27 million in 2007, down by 5.8 million since 1999 mainly due to the decrease in total fertility rates.
- Between 1999 and 2007, the regional *net enrolment ratio* (NER) increased from 91% to 92% in CEE and from 88% to 92% in CA. Changes during this period can be calculated only for a few countries with data: in Azerbaijan and Croatia, NERs rose by 6% or more. Country NERs range from about 85% in Armenia and Kyrgyzstan to above 95% in Azerbaijan, Poland, Serbia, Slovenia and Tajikistan (Figure 1).

2. In this instance, these two regions refer to those used by UNICEF, which differ to some extent from the EFA regions.

3. Pre-primary duration was reported to be one year shorter in 2007 than in 1999 in Mongolia, Slovenia and Ukraine.

Figure 1: Many countries have moved away from universal primary education

Change in net enrolment ratios in primary education, selected countries, 1999 and 2007



Source: Table 2 below.

■ Countries advanced at varying speeds. Some had broken through the 90% threshold towards UPE even before Dakar. Since 1999, Azerbaijan and Croatia have advanced past that threshold, while many others have registered reversals, some by 5% or more (Latvia, Lithuania and the Republic of Moldova).

■ Even as they expanded primary education, countries of the two regions have maintained or advanced towards gender parity.⁴ Twenty-three of the regions' twenty-seven countries with data have achieved gender parity in primary education (see Table 2). The gender parity index (GPI) of the regional GER was 0.98 in both regions in 2007. Bosnia

and Herzegovina, Latvia, Tajikistan and Turkey remain below that level, however, with GPIs ranging from 0.93 to 0.96.

- Most of the countries facing difficulties in achieving UPE by 2015 have two characteristics in common. They started with low enrolment rates and they are very poor. There are exceptions; while enrolment rates tend to rise with wealth, there are large variations around the average. Some relatively wealthy countries have performed worse than might be expected. The NER of Turkey, for example, is unchanged since the beginning of the decade, and the country faces deeply entrenched marginalization, especially in the eastern region. It is evident that current policies are not breaking down inherited disadvantage (Box 1). One factor is the low share of national income invested in education: Turkey invested around 4% of gross national product (GNP) in 2004, compared with the CEE median of 5.1%.
- For millions of children entering primary school, their journey is often marked by *late entry, dropout and grade repetition*. In both regions, however, school retention is very high and grade repetition almost inexistent. Almost all children who enrol in primary school make it through completion in most countries. An important exception to this is Mongolia where the survival rate to the last grade was only 84% in 2006.
- *Cohort tracking* can provide a more integrated perspective on the distance to universal primary education than gross intake rates and NERs alone. Using Mongolia as an example, Figure 2 shows the proportion of children entering primary school at the official age and tracks their progress to completion. For every 100 children of the appropriate primary school entry age, 79 will enter on time and only 64 will complete the last grade.
- In CEE, there were nearly 1.5 million *out-of-school adolescents* in 2007, equivalent to 7% of the lower secondary school age group; in CA, the respective figures were 302,000 and 4%. Cost, distance to school, labour market demand and – especially for girls – social, cultural and economic barriers limit smooth transitions from primary to lower secondary.

4. Gender parity is considered to be reached when the GPI is between 0.97 and 1.03.

Box 1: Turkey – marginalization keeps universal primary education out of reach

Turkey's advance towards universal primary education has stalled within touching distance of the goal. Much has been achieved over the past decade. But far more has to be done to break down inequalities based on gender, region and wealth.

Since 2000, the progress seen during the second half of the 1990s has slowed. Enrolment rates have stagnated at around 90% since 2002 – far below the level predicted on the basis of Turkey's average income. Some 640,000 children of primary school age were out of school in 2007. Around 60% were girls, pointing to deeply entrenched gender inequalities. Education quality is another serious source of concern: Turkey is among the worst performers on the learning achievement tests of the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), run by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD).

Turkey's experience powerfully demonstrates the difficulties governments face as they attempt to reach the most marginalized. One study based on Turkey's most recent demographic and health survey highlights deep, overlapping and mutually reinforcing inequalities in opportunity for education, with gender disparities magnifying other gaps:

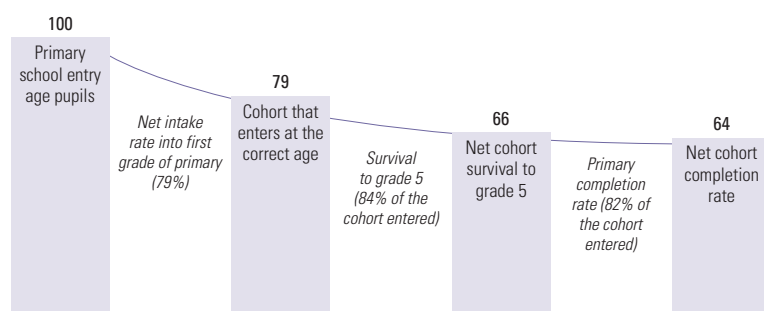
- **Gender.** Between ages 8 and 12, 7% of girls never make it to school, compared with 2% of boys. By age 15, female enrolment is almost twenty percentage points below male enrolment.

- **Region.** The eastern region lags far behind the rest of the country, mainly because of gender disparity. Enrolment rates for girls in eastern Turkey, expressed as a share of the level for boys, peak at 85% at age 9 and have dropped below 40% by age 15.
- **Rural location.** Outside the eastern region, the gender disadvantage of being born in a rural area kicks in at age 13. In the east it starts early: by age 15, fewer than 20% of eastern rural girls are enrolled.
- **Household wealth and other factors.** Children in the wealthiest 20% of households are five times more likely to reach higher education than those in the poorest 20%. The strength of the negative correlation between household circumstance and education is magnified by gender effects. At age 16, boys of mothers with no education are twice as likely to be in school as their female counterparts.

The scale of inequality highlights the importance of equity in public spending. It is critical to strengthen strategies and incentives for reaching rural girls, especially – though not exclusively – in the eastern region. Addressing the disadvantages faced by children of parents who do not speak Turkish as a home language is another priority area.

Figure 2: Children who start primary school have varying chances of completing the last grade

Net cohort completion rates: the example of Mongolia



In Mongolia, the net intake rate into the first grade of primary school was 79% in 2006. The survival rate to grade 5 was 84% and the primary completion rate 82%. From these rates, it is possible to estimate the prospects of a cohort of pupils aged 6 (the primary school starting age) completing the six-year cycle. If repetition and dropout rates remain unchanged, 79 of 100 pupils will enter the first grade of primary school at the correct age. Of these, 66 will make it to grade 5, and 64 will graduate from the final grade.

Sources: Global Monitoring Report Team calculations; EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010, annex, Statistical Tables 4 and 7.

Youth and adult skills: expanding opportunities in the new global economy

Technical and vocational education programmes can strengthen the transition from school to employment, offer second chances and help combat marginalization. Vocational education is offered through a bewildering array of institutional arrangements, public and private providers and financing systems. While some countries supplement general education in schools with vocational options from companies or training institutes, others offer distinctive vocational options in secondary school. Governments have to strike a delicate balance between general and vocational education. The latter is often considered a safety net for failing students. Improving its quality and relevance is the most effective antidote to that perception.

- The regions' secondary GERs in 2007 were among the world's highest: 88% in CEE and 95% in CA. Country GERs ranged from less than 85% in the Russian Federation, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Tajikistan and Turkey to more than 97% in Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland and Uzbekistan. The share of *technical and vocational education* in secondary enrolment was relatively high in CEE at 20% in 2007; it was 12% in CA.

In six of the twenty-six countries with data, the share was less than 5%, but it was at least one-third in Croatia, the Czech Republic, Romania, Serbia, Slovakia and Slovenia. National skill development policies are likely to succeed only if they dramatically increase the flow of students into secondary schools generally.

- Most of the countries in the two regions have achieved gender parity in general secondary but girls are being left behind in vocational education, particularly in CEE. In 2007, the average GPI in secondary education was 0.96 in CEE, down from 0.98 in 1999, and 0.98 in CA. Girls were less present than boys in technical and vocational education, accounting for 39% of technical and vocational enrolments in the former region and 46% in the latter in 2007.
- Vocational education broadly aims to equip young people and adults with the skills and knowledge they need to cross the *bridge from school to work*. The economic crisis has made that crossing even more hazardous. Recession in OECD countries is pushing unemployment to record levels. In developed countries as a group, unemployment is projected to peak at 7.3% in 2010, compared with 5.5% in 2007. The scenario could worsen if recovery is delayed. As in developing regions, the economic downturn in OECD countries comes against a discouraging backdrop for *youth employment*. In Turkey, the youth unemployment rate was more than double the rate for adults.
- The priority is to increase enrolment, retention and progression through basic education into secondary school. Vocational education has the potential to play a far greater role, however, not least in providing second-chance opportunities to marginalized groups.

Youth and adult literacy

Illiteracy in youth and adulthood is the price people and countries are paying for past failures of education systems. When people emerge from school lacking basic reading, writing and numeracy skills, and obtain no other education, they face a lifetime of disadvantage. At the World Education Forum in Dakar in 2000, governments pledged to achieve a 50% improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015. Although illiteracy is low in CEE and CA, targeted policies can effectively promote adult literacy for those who are still illiterate.

- An estimated 2.5% of the adult population in CEE and 1.4% in CA, or 8.7 million adults total (8 million in CEE alone), lack the *basic literacy and numeracy skills* needed in everyday life. On a positive note, adult literacy rates of around 97% or above were registered in twenty-two of

the twenty-three countries with data. Only Turkey, with an estimated literacy rate of 89% (96% among men and 81% among women), lies outside this pattern.

- The *number of illiterate adults* declined by 4.2 million in the two regions between 1985–1994 and 2000–2007. Some countries witnessed large absolute declines, including by over 1.7 million in the Russian Federation and 1.5 million in Turkey, the two most populous countries. Belarus, Lithuania, Kazakhstan, the Republic of Moldova and Tajikistan reduced their adult illiterate population by at least three-quarters between the two periods.
- High literacy rates have been accompanied by stable or improving *gender parity*. In 2000–2007, the GPIs of the regions' adult literacy rates were between 0.97 and 0.99. Nearly all countries in the regions have achieved gender parity in adult literacy rates. Turkey has progressed towards gender parity in adult literacy, though its GPI was still the lowest within the two regions, at 0.84 in 2000–2007. The female adult literacy rate in Turkey increased at a faster rate than that for men, but remained well below the 1985–1994 male rate. The likelihood that a female would be illiterate compared with a male increased during this period, with women 4.9 times as likely as men to be illiterate in 2000–2007, compared with 3.1 times in 1985–1994. Other countries particularly affected by gender disparity in adult literacy include Bosnia and Herzegovina, where women were 6.2 times as likely as men to be illiterate. In seven of the eight CA countries with data,⁵ women were between 1.9 and 4.3 times as likely as men to be illiterate.
- Improvement in access to education across generations is one of the motors driving increased literacy levels. In both regions, the *youth literacy rate* in 2000–2007 was 99%, slightly higher than the adult literacy rates. The youth literacy rate was 3.1 percentage points higher in Bosnia and Herzegovina than the average for all adults, and 7.7 points higher in Turkey. More worryingly, the youth literacy rate in Mongolia was slightly lower than that for adults.
- Despite the United Nations Literacy Decade (2003–2012), literacy continues to receive insufficient attention and financial commitment in many countries, and is often not incorporated into wider poverty reduction strategies.

5. The seven are Armenia, Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan.

The quality of education

Achieving Education for All hinges not just on delivering more years in school, but also on ensuring that children acquire the necessary skills to shape their future life chances. Poor-quality education is jeopardizing the future of millions of young people, many of whom face the prospect of lifelong illiteracy.

- *International assessments* measure disparities in student learning achievement among countries. For example, the fourth cycle of Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), conducted in 2007 among eighth grade students, shows large gaps in learning achievement. Average mathematics test scores of students in Hungary, the top performer among the thirteen countries covered in CEE and CA, were 1.2 times as high as of students in Georgia, at the lowest end for the two regions. Viewed from a different vantage point, the average student in Georgia and Turkey figures alongside the poorest-performing 10% of students in higher-performing countries such as the Czech Republic, Hungary and Slovenia.
- International comparison also highlights the degree of *inequality in learning achievement*. At age 10 or 11, in the fourth grade of primary school, fewer than one in five children in Kazakhstan, Latvia and the Russian Federation scored below the intermediate benchmark on the relevant TIMSS mathematics scale, while in Georgia about two-thirds of students were in this case.
- Evidence from international assessments of reading skills is even more disturbing. PISA assesses students with about eight years of education and identifies students with reading literacy below level 1 as being at risk during the transition to work. In Kyrgyzstan, 88% of students tested in PISA were at level 1 or below. The percentage of similarly performing students was also high – ranging from 52% to 79% – in Azerbaijan, Montenegro, Romania and Serbia.
- In many countries, girls are less likely than boys to get into school. Once in school, though, they tend to perform as well as, or better than, their male classmates. While there are important *gender-based differences in learning achievement* by subject, learning achievement in general is not characterized by deep inequalities. PISA 2006 covered fifteen of the twenty-one CEE countries. All registered a large female advantage in reading performance. In most, gender gaps in mathematics were statistically insignificant; in the remaining countries boys tended to do slightly better than girls.
- Measuring *equity in learning achievement* is inherently difficult. One approach is simply to measure the gap between the best- and worst-performing students. In Latvia, the difference between the best and worst performers is about 44% of the mean score of 537. In Georgia, the gap is 67% of the mean score of 438.
- Differences between schools play a critical role in the level of equity within education systems. In Poland, school differences explain about 14% of the variation in science scores. At the other end of the scale, they account for 53% to 70% of the variation in the Czech Republic, Hungary and Turkey. Such findings demonstrate the degree to which *school-based factors* can widen – or narrow – learning achievement gaps. One contributing factor in many OECD countries is the grouping of students into rigidly separate ability streams, or into academic and vocational tracks or schools.
- Greater equity does not necessarily come at the price of reduced average performance, as it can be partly the result of comprehensive education systems that provide similar opportunities for all. In recent years, Poland has substantially reduced inequality among schools by extending the duration of comprehensive education (Box 2).
- Teachers are the single most important education resource. In many countries, *shortages of trained teachers pose a major barrier*, at all education levels, to achieving Education for All goals, especially among marginalized groups.

Box 2: Improving equity in Poland

In 1999, Poland started providing an additional year of general education before students were split into upper secondary school tracks. Three rounds of PISA make it possible to assess the reform's impact on equity:

- From 2000 to 2003, average variation in student performance in science fell from 51% of the OECD average to 15%. By 2006, Poland had one of the lowest levels of variation in science performance among participating countries. Improvement in equity came about at the same time as general improvement in performance. For example, average reading performance of 15-year-olds increased by twenty-nine score points between 2000 and 2006.
- Most of the improvement occurred among students with poor performance. From 2000 to 2006, the proportion of students failing to score above level 1 in reading competency fell from 23% to 16%.
- Students in the vocational track appear to have benefited most from greater integration of the system.

- In pre-primary education, the quality of care and teaching depends critically on the pupil/teacher ratio, teacher training and the creation of an active learning environment. In Kyrgyzstan, Mongolia and Turkey, the pre-primary pupil/teacher ratio in 2007 was at least 25:1, much higher than the regional averages (9:1 in CEE and 11:1 in CA).
- Most countries in CEE and CA decreased the teacher workforce as primary school enrolments declined from 1999, due to demographic dynamics. In most cases the pupil/teacher ratio improved. Although countries set their own targets for pupil/teacher ratios, the most widely used international ceiling in primary education is 40:1. In 2007, all countries in the two regions had ratios below this ceiling, and even below the world average of 25:1, except for Mongolia with a ratio of 32:1.
- The *lack of trained teachers* is also of concern in some countries. In 2007, among the countries with data, the shares of trained primary school teachers in CA ranged from 62% in Kyrgyzstan, 77% in Armenia to around 100% in Azerbaijan, Mongolia and Uzbekistan.

- *Future teacher recruitment needs* vary enormously by region and are determined partly by current deficits and partly by a complex mix of demographics, enrolment trends and numbers of children still out of school. To reach universal primary education by 2015, additional primary school teachers will have to be recruited in about half of the fifteen CEE and CA countries with data, although the effort needed to close the gaps is minor compared with other regions. For some countries, it means reversing the decline in teacher numbers registered since 1999. Globally, an additional 1.9 million primary school teachers have to be recruited to reach universal primary education by 2015. In addition to increasing recruitment to achieve universal primary education, an additional 8.4 million primary school teachers will have to be recruited and trained worldwide to replace existing teachers expected to retire or leave their posts before 2015.⁶ Thus, a total of *10.3 million primary school teachers will be needed worldwide by 2015*.
- Recruitment is just one part of a far wider set of issues that governments have to address. Attracting and *retaining well-qualified teacher candidates* and improving teacher morale are increasingly difficult. Balancing teacher salaries with budgetary constraints increases the risk that less qualified teachers might be recruited.

6. In CEE and CA, this would require an additional 500,000 teachers before 2015.

The EFA Development Index

The EFA Development Index (EDI) looks beyond individual goals to provide a composite measure of progress, encompassing access, equity and quality. The index includes only the four most easily quantifiable goals, attaching equal weight to each: universal primary education (goal 2), adult literacy (first part of goal 4), gender parity and equality (goal 5), and quality (goal 6).⁷ The EDI value for a given country is the arithmetic mean of the four proxy indicators. It falls between 0 and 1, with 1 representing full achievement of Education for All. For the school year ending in 2007, EDI values are calculated for sixteen countries in CEE and for eight in CA. Table 1 situates these countries in relation to full EFA achievement (an EDI value of 0.97 to 1.00).

Table 1: Most countries in CEE and CA have achieved or are close to achieving EFA

Distribution of countries by EDI score and distance to overall EFA achievement, 2007

<p>EFA achieved <i>(EDI between 0.97 and 1.00)</i></p> <p>Central and Eastern Europe Belarus, Croatia, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia</p> <p>Central Asia Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Tajikistan</p> <p>(16)</p>	<p>Close to EFA <i>(EDI between 0.95 and 0.96)</i></p> <p>Central and Eastern Europe Bulgaria, Republic of Moldova, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Ukraine</p> <p>Central Asia Kyrgyzstan, Uzbekistan</p> <p>(6)</p>
<p>Intermediate position <i>(EDI between 0.80 and 0.94)</i></p> <p>Central and Eastern Europe Turkey</p> <p>Central Asia Mongolia</p> <p>(2)</p>	<p>Far from EFA <i>(EDI below 0.80)</i></p> <p>None</p> <p>(0)</p>

Source: Table 2 below.

- Fifteen countries in CEE and seven in CA have achieved or are close to achieving the four most easily quantifiable EFA goals. With the exceptions of the Republic of Moldova and Ukraine where primary school participation remains at 90% or below, all these countries have achieved balanced progress on the four EFA goals included in the index. The right to education in these countries goes beyond rhetoric; education has been compulsory for decades and is often free.
- Two countries, Mongolia and Turkey, rank in an intermediate position with EDI values ranging from 0.913 to 0.937. The two have a mixed record. While school participation is often high, indicators for quality in Mongolia and for adult literacy and gender parity in Turkey are less impressive. School retention is particularly poor in Mongolia, with a survival rate to grade 5 of 84%. Adult literacy in Turkey is below 89% and the Gender-specific EFA Index (GEI) is 0.87.
- Analysis of EDI movement can help identify important priority areas and those that have suffered from relative neglect. Changes in the EDI between 1999 and 2007 can be calculated for thirteen countries in CEE and CA. The EDI rankings for Azerbaijan and Croatia rose by more than 2% and that for Mongolia by about 1.9%, primarily due to increases in the primary adjusted NERs. The survival rate to grade 5 in Kyrgyzstan and the GEI in Mongolia also increased slightly. The EDI levels for Latvia, Lithuania and the Republic of Moldova decreased slightly, by more than 1%. These small declines resulted from worsened primary adjusted NERs, while the other goals barely moved. More recently, between 2006 and 2007, the EDI improved in most countries with data, rising by 3% in Azerbaijan and falling by 1.6% in Mongolia.

7. Reliable and comparable data relating to goal 1 (early childhood care and education) are not available for most countries, and progress on goal 3 (learning needs of youth and adults) is still not easy to measure or monitor. For further explanation of the EDI methodology, see the *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010*.

Marginalization in education

Governments across the world constantly reaffirm their commitment to equal opportunity in education and international human rights conventions establish an obligation for them to act on that commitment. Yet most governments are systematically failing to address the extreme and persistent education disadvantages that leave large sections of their population marginalized. These disadvantages are rooted in deeply ingrained social, economic and political processes and unequal power relationships – and they are sustained by political indifference. They are also often reinforced by practices within the classroom. The failure to place inclusive education at the centre of the Education for All agenda is holding back progress towards the goals adopted at Dakar.

Measuring marginalization – a new data tool

Measuring marginalization in education is inherently difficult. There are no established cross-country benchmarks comparable to those used for assessing extreme income poverty, and national data are often not detailed enough to enable marginalized groups to be identified. The 2010 Report includes a new tool, available online, that provides a window on the scale of marginalization within countries and on the social composition of the marginalized. Called the Deprivation and Marginalization in Education (DME) data set,⁸ it also identifies groups facing particularly extreme restrictions on educational opportunity (Box 3). The data set focuses on three core areas:

- *Education poverty*: young adults aged 17 to 22 who have fewer than four years of education and are unlikely to have mastered basic literacy or numeracy skills.
- *Extreme education poverty*: young adults with fewer than two years of education, who are likely to face extreme disadvantages in many areas of their lives.
- *The bottom 20%*: those with the fewest years of education in a given society.

Of the eighty countries covered by the DME, fourteen are in CEE and CA. Figure 3 shows that absolute deprivation in education remains at high levels in parts of these two regions, despite the progress of the past decade. Absolute deprivation is highest for those from the poorest 20% of households. In Mongolia, more than one-quarter of those in the poorest quintile have fewer than four years of education, and more than half of those in the bottom 20% of the distribution of years in school are from the poorest 20%. Young people from the poorest households in the former Yugoslav Republic of

Box 3: Measuring marginalization in education in Turkey

The DME data set can illustrate how mutually reinforcing effects work to create extreme educational disadvantage at ages 17 to 22. Although Turkey's average income is relatively high, nearly 8% of its population aged 17 to 22 has fewer than four years of education. The extent of education marginalization varies across the country. In most regions, 2% to 7% of those aged 17 to 22 have fewer than four years of education, but in the eastern region the figure rises to 21%. Having Kurdish as a home language in Turkey carries a 30% risk of having fewer than four years of schooling, compared with less than 5% for those speaking Turkish, the official language of instruction. Young women speaking a non-Turkish home language – predominantly Kurdish – are among the most educationally marginalized: they average just three years of education. Adding poverty to those factors further increases the likelihood of extreme education poverty: around 43% of poor Kurdish-speaking girls aged 17 to 22 have fewer than two years of education, while the national average is 6%.

Macedonia average 7.3 years of education, compared with 11.9 years for those from the richest 20% of households. Girls are particularly disadvantaged in education attainment compared to the national average, especially in Azerbaijan, Montenegro, Serbia, Tajikistan and Turkey.

Factors leading to marginalization do not operate in isolation: wealth and gender intersect with language, ethnicity, region and rural-urban differences to create mutually reinforcing disadvantages.

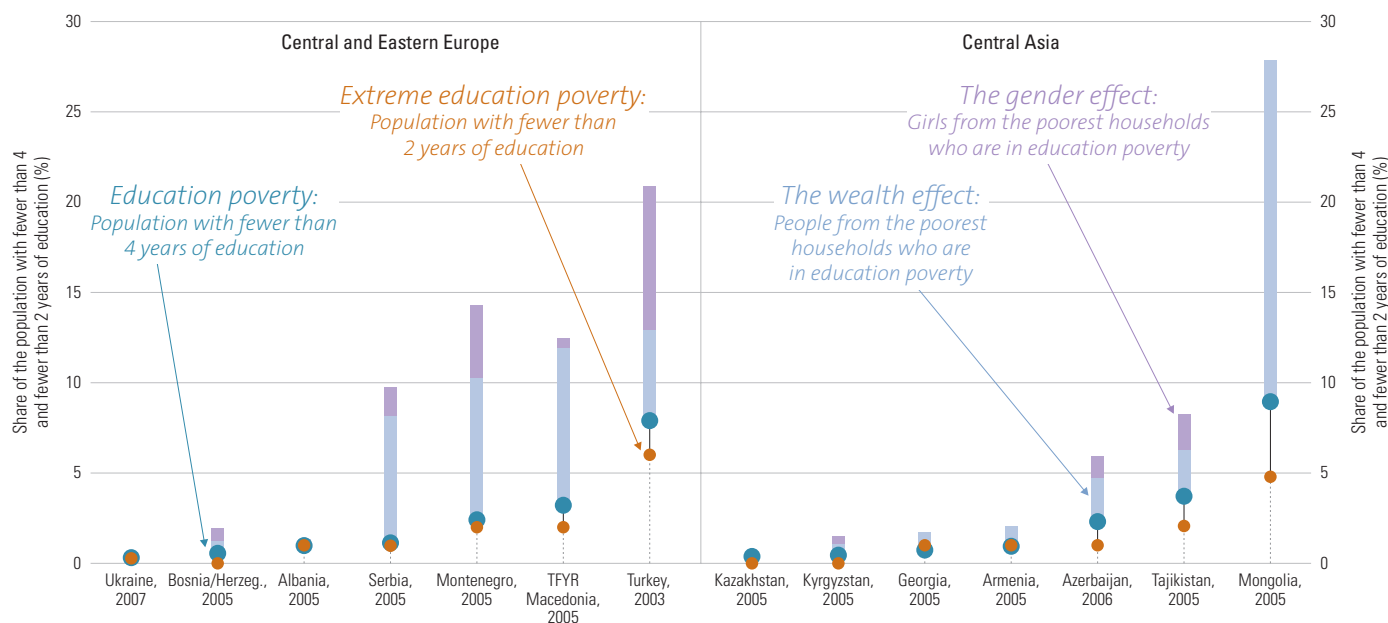
- In countries where the official *language* is not the most common language spoken at home, many children are taught in a language other than their mother tongue, contributing to extreme educational disparity. About 42% of the bottom 20% of the education distribution in Turkey are Kurdish speakers – a group that makes up less than one-fifth of the population.
- Cross-country analysis reveals that in some cases *identifiable social or livelihood groups* face almost universal disadvantage. The Roma community⁹ encounters institutionalized discrimination throughout Europe and poor access to education. In most central and eastern European countries no more than 20% to 25% of Roma children attend secondary school and the vast majority of those are enrolled in vocational education. Many drop out of primary school. An estimated 15% to 20% of Roma children in Bulgaria and 30% in Romania do not continue beyond fourth grade.

8. Available at <http://www.unesco.org/en/efareport/dme>.

9. Roma – often known as Gypsies – live primarily in CEE and are the most populous subgroup of the Romani. With an estimated population between 8 million and 12 million, Roma are one of Europe's largest minorities. Assessing the full extent of the deprivation faced by Roma children in education is difficult, as data are often partial and unreliable.

Figure 3: Measuring education poverty across CEE and CA

% of national population, poorest households and girls in poorest households aged 17 to 22 with fewer than four years and fewer than two years of education, selected countries, most recent year



Note: The average number of years of education in these countries is at least eight years.

Source: UNESCO-DME (2009).

Half of Italy's Roma children are in primary school, but fewer than 2% progress to upper secondary education. While data are scarce, education outcomes for Roma fall well below the levels for the national majority populations.

- Regional differences within a country regarding years spent in education can be striking. In the Aran region of Azerbaijan, 32% of young adults are in the bottom 20% in education, even though the region only accounts for 22% of the country's total population. Similarly, in Khangai in Mongolia, a region which accounts for 22% of the country's population, 36% of 17- to 22-year-olds are in the bottom 20%.
- Educational marginalization is also high in *conflict-affected areas*.

Time spent in school is just one dimension of marginalization. Having a home language different from the official language of instruction is commonly associated with lower test scores. Research using data from the 2007 TIMSS assessment identifies a strong association between students performing below the lowest international benchmark and the frequency with which the language of the test is spoken at home. In Turkey, grade 8 students who report 'always or almost always' speaking the test language at home are 30% less likely to score below the international mathematics benchmark than those who report speaking it 'sometimes or

never'. There are also marked gaps in learning achievement linked to socio-economic status. Evidence from Hungary and Slovakia shows that high levels of inequality are particularly damaging for children from households at the lower end of the socio-economic distribution.

Getting left behind

Marginalization in education is the product of a mixture of inherited disadvantage, deeply ingrained social processes, unfair economic arrangements and bad policies. These processes are examined with respect to the five groups most severely affected by marginalization.

- Being born into *poverty* is one of the strongest factors leading to marginalization in education. At least 50 million people in the two regions continue to live on less than US\$2 a day, and a combination of rising food prices and the global financial crisis has slowed the pace of poverty reduction. Household surveys consistently point to parental inability to afford education as a major factor behind non-attendance. In countries that have abolished formal school fees, the cost of uniforms, transport, books and supplies can create barriers to school entry and completion.
- Economic shocks, droughts or health problems* can force poor households into coping strategies that damage children's education, especially girls'.

- *Child labour* is another corollary of poverty that hurts education. While some children combine work with schooling, this often has adverse consequences for learning.
- *Group-based identities*, such those related to race, ethnicity or language, are among the deepest fault lines in education. One reason children from disadvantaged ethnic groups perform poorly in school is that they are often taught in a language they struggle to understand. A lack of mother tongue instruction is often part of wider processes of cultural subordination and social discrimination, reinforced by curricula insensitive to cultural diversity.
- Roma children are often more likely than their peers to be diagnosed as ‘special needs’ students and placed in separate schools. In Hungary, one report found that ‘about every fifth Roma child is declared to be mildly mentally disabled’. A Council of Europe report on Slovakia found that up to half of Roma children in special elementary schools were there as a result of erroneous assessment. The restricted opportunities experienced by Roma children in school are intimately linked to poverty, unemployment, poor housing and poor health. A survey found that one-quarter of the Roma population in southern and eastern Europe lives in dilapidated housing. The poverty rate for Roma in Romania is almost three times the national average. The invisibility of Roma in national education programmes reinforces their exclusion: in Hungary, most education policies do not mention Roma, the country’s most educationally disadvantaged community.
- The Turkish Constitution of 1923 includes a provision that ‘no language other than Turkish shall be taught as mother tongue to Turkish citizens at any institutions of teaching or education’. While legislation adopted in 2002 allows greater flexibility, access to minority language primary education remains limited.
- Disadvantages linked to poverty and ethnicity are often reflected in *location and livelihoods*. Slums are focal points for educational deprivation, partly because many governments fail to recognize the entitlement of slum dwellers to basic services. In rural areas of low population density, long and sometimes dangerous journeys to school are an important part of marginalization, particularly for girls. Education systems also are unresponsive to pastoralist livelihoods and their inherent mobility. For those living in conflict-affected countries, attacks on schools and forced migration are detrimental to enrolment.
- *Children with disabilities* suffer from social attitudes that stigmatize, restrict opportunity and lower self-esteem. These attitudes are often reinforced by neglect in the

classroom, insufficient physical access, shortages of trained teachers and limited provision of teaching aids. In some countries that are close to achieving universal primary education, people with disabilities represent the majority of those left behind. In Bulgaria and Romania, the NERs for children aged 7 to 15 were over 90% in 2002 but only 58% for children with disabilities.

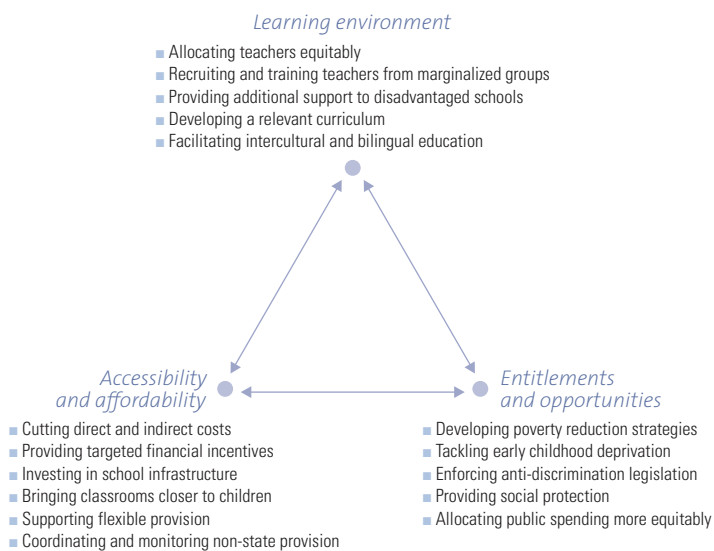
- *HIV and AIDS* compound wider problems associated with poverty and social discrimination, such as increased economic pressure due to ill health of family members and orphanhood. Orphans who lose both parents or whose mothers have died are often less likely to stay in school than children whose mother or both parents are alive.

Levelling the playing field

There is no single formula for overcoming marginalization in education. Policies need to address underlying causes, such as social discrimination and stigmatization, as well as challenges specific to particular marginalized groups. The inequalities that the marginalized face are persistent and resistant to change, yet progress is possible with sustained political commitment to social justice, equal opportunity and basic rights. Three broad sets of policies can make a difference. They can be thought of as three points in an inclusive education triangle (Figure 4).

Accessibility and affordability

- Removing school fees is necessary to reach the poorest but is not enough on its own. Governments also need to lower indirect costs associated with uniforms, textbooks and informal fees. Financial stipend programmes for identifiably marginalized groups can lower household costs and provide incentives for education.
- Building schools closer to marginalized communities is also vital, especially for gender parity. School construction programmes should prioritize remote rural areas, slums and conflict-affected areas, and take into account the needs of learners with disabilities. More flexible approaches to provision could bring education within reach of some of the world’s most marginalized children. Such approaches include mobile schools for pastoralists, satellite schools, itinerant teachers and multigrade teaching for remote areas, and specialized training for teachers of children with disabilities.
- Accelerated learning programmes can help provide a second chance to children and adolescents, provided government and employers recognize such programmes as legitimate for school and work.

Figure 4: The Inclusive Education Triangle

The learning environment

- Programmes that draw well-qualified teachers to the schools facing the greatest deprivation can make a difference for marginalized children's learning. Such policies need to be supported by training programmes that equip teachers with the skills and sensitivity to teach children from diverse backgrounds. Targeting financial and pedagogical support to schools in the most disadvantaged regions or those with large numbers of marginalized children also can make a difference.
- Children from disadvantaged backgrounds may be more likely to be assigned to low ability groups, sometimes because of language problems. Once in a low ability group, disadvantaged learners often fall further behind. Evidence from rich countries strongly suggests that grouping children by ability early in the education cycle reduces equity and can lead to weaker overall results.
- Intercultural and bilingual education is critical for providing ethnic and linguistic minority children with good-quality schooling – and it can help overcome social stigmatization.

- Ensuring that children with disabilities enjoy opportunities for learning in an inclusive environment requires changes in attitudes, backed by investments in teacher training, learning equipment and data collection.

Entitlements and opportunities

- Legal provisions can play a role in overcoming discrimination, and some marginalized groups have successfully challenged practices and policies that resulted in educational marginalization and institutionalized segregation. For example, the European Court of Human Rights has ruled on several cases in which governments have been accused of violating the education rights of Roma children. Roma children across Europe are often assigned to 'special schools' with little attention to their education needs. Cultural bias and discrimination by teachers and education authorities is widespread. In a 2007 case against the Czech Republic, the court ruled that assessments used to assign Roma children to special schools amounted to de facto segregation.
- Social protection can mitigate the vulnerability that comes with poverty and associated forms of disadvantage, and can improve enrolment and attendance among poor and other marginalized groups. Conditional and unconditional transfers of cash and food can build the resilience of poor and vulnerable households so that they can manage risk without compromising the long-term welfare of their children.

Breaking down disadvantage in education requires simultaneous implementation of public policies across a broad front, with education interventions integrated into wider strategies for poverty reduction and social inclusion.

Financing education

Many countries in CEE and CA have progressed towards achieving the Education for All goals, in part through increases in government spending and international aid for education. But the economic downturn has begun to affect education systems in the regions. There is a real danger that the budgetary pressures and rising poverty caused by the global financial crisis will stall or even reverse progress in education. Moreover, while overall aid is rising, several major donors are falling far short of their pledges. A concerted effort on the part of donors and recipient countries is critical in the current economic climate.

National financing

Many countries in both regions have sustained progress towards Education for All since Dakar by increasing government spending in real terms. The economic downturn, along with higher estimates of the financing gap for achieving EFA (Box 4), is cause for concern.

- The *share of national income devoted to education* in 2007 varied substantially between the two regions: the median was 5.1% in CEE and 3.2% in CA. There was also wide variation within each region: shares in CA ranged from 2.6% in Armenia and Georgia to 5.4% in Kyrgyzstan and those in CEE ranged from 3.6% in Romania to 7.3% in the Republic of Moldova. Between 1999 and 2007, the share of education spending in GNP rose in seven of the eleven countries with data in CEE and in more than half the CA countries with data. In CA, the changes over the period were quite large, ranging from a 31% drop in Azerbaijan to a 65% increase in Tajikistan. Some changes in CEE were also significant, such as those in Estonia (-28%), the Republic of Moldova (+59%) and Ukraine (+46%).
- On the regional level, CA assigns slightly more importance to education in government budgets than does CEE: the median in 2007 was 15% in the former and 13% in the latter. The share of government budget allocated to education varied widely among the fourteen CEE countries and five CA countries with data available. Only Kyrgyzstan, the Republic of Moldova and Ukraine allocated around 20% of total expenditure to education in 2007, and the share was below 8% in Georgia. Between 1999 and 2007, Tajikistan and Ukraine increased the education share by around 50%, while Azerbaijan nearly halved it. Among the fifteen countries in the two regions with data, Turkey devotes 40% of its education expenditure to primary education. Bulgaria, Estonia, Hungary, Poland and Slovenia in CEE and Mongolia and Tajikistan in CA spend about 20% to 30% on primary education.
- The *economic slowdown* will have far-reaching consequences for education financing. Reductions in the pace of economic growth and in government revenue are jeopardizing progress towards EFA. Countries in transition have a limited ability to shield public spending from the effects of the downturn and require an increase in development assistance to offset revenue losses and sustain high-priority social spending. In the absence of an effective international response, low-income countries in the regions will find it difficult to protect spending on education, let alone scale it up to the levels required to achieve EFA.

Box 4: Determining the cost of bridging the financing gap

The *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010* reviewed estimates of the Education for All financing gap in a study assessing the costs associated with achieving key education goals. Kyrgyzstan and Tajikistan were among the forty-six low-income countries included in the study. The estimated gap covers basic education (literacy, pre-primary and primary education) as well as a provision for reaching the most marginalized sections of society.

- The global EFA financing gap is around US\$16 billion for basic education, or 1.5% of the collective GDP of the forty-six countries.
- The financing gap varies by education goal – from US\$0.6 billion for adult literacy to US\$5.8 billion for early childhood care and education and US\$9.8 billion for universal primary education. Globally, reaching the marginalized requires additional finance: extending primary school opportunities to social groups facing extreme and persistent deprivation will cost US\$3.7 billion.
- Low-income countries affected by conflict account for 41% of the global financing gap.
- Developing countries and those in transition could close part of the financing gap themselves by according greater financial priority to basic education in national financing and budget allocation. Their governments need to increase public spending by 2.5% of GDP, on average, to meet EFA goals. In Kyrgyzstan and Tajikistan, the additional spending required is relatively low at 0.2% and 0.4 % of GDP, respectively.
- However, even with these efforts, poorer countries cannot meet the costs of achieving the goals without the donor community. Globally, aid levels for basic education need to increase sixfold, from US\$2.7 billion to around US\$16 billion.

International aid

- CEE and CA received a relatively small share of global *official development assistance* (ODA) in 2006–2007, accounting for just 4% and 2%, respectively. Since 1999–2000, total ODA commitments have fallen in CEE, from US\$6.5 billion to US\$5.8 billion, but increased in CA from US\$1.9 billion to US\$2.5 billion. Over the period, ODA to Croatia more than doubled and increases of 50% or more were observed in Armenia, Georgia and Tajikistan. In contrast, Bosnia and Herzegovina and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia saw their ODA commitments decline by more than half.
- Averaged over 2006 and 2007, *total annual aid to education* to CEE amounted to nearly US\$500 million, up from US\$456 million a year in 1999 and 2000. In CA, total aid to education increased by 84% from US\$114 million in 1999–2000 to US\$209 million in 2006–2007. Education accounted for 7% of total aid flows to CEE and 6% of those to CA in 1999 and 2000, rising by two percentage points each, on average, in 2006 and 2007. Turkey received more than one-quarter of total aid to education to CEE, with Ukraine far behind at 13% and Albania at 10%. In CA, total aid to education was distributed more evenly throughout the region, with four countries receiving between 15% and 21% of the total aid allocated to education in the region. Of these, Armenia, Mongolia and Uzbekistan saw the level received in 1999–2000 at least double.
- In 2006–2007, basic education was no longer an aid priority in CEE as in other EFA regions, with only 12% of total aid to education allocated to basic education, compared with 32% in 1999–2000. In CA, the basic education share remained relatively constant, representing around one-quarter of all aid to education. In real terms, total aid commitments to basic education fell by more than half in CEE, to US\$60 million, but nearly doubled in CA, reaching US\$52 million on average in 2006–2007.
- *Countries affected by conflict* pose some of the greatest challenges for aid partnerships, and support for those countries remains uneven. In many conflict-affected countries, expenditure on security operations and emergency assistance dominates donor support, with long-term development in general – and education in particular – taking a back seat. The problem is not that too much is invested in security and alleviating hunger; it is that too little is invested in education and other development areas, which are no less important to post-conflict reconstruction.
- Strong efforts on the part of donor and recipient countries alike are needed if the delivery of aid is to be improved in accordance with the *Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness*. Improved aid predictability and, when feasible, greater use of recipient government management systems are particularly crucial. At present, the quality of a country's public financial management system is a weak guide to whether donors use it. The Republic of Moldova and Mongolia both score high on the CPIA quality scale,¹⁰ yet the former has a far higher share of aid using national management systems. In addition, the international multilateral framework for cooperation in education needs to be strengthened through fundamental reform of the EFA Fast Track Initiative (Box 5).

10. The Country Policy and Institutional Assessment (CPIA) is a World Bank diagnostic tool that ranks country performance on an ascending scale from one to six.

Box 5: The Fast Track Initiative

The Fast Track Initiative (FTI) is an important multilateral framework for delivering aid to education in thirty-six countries, including two in CEE and four in CA.* However, it has fallen far short of expectations due to limited disbursement, lack of transparency in decision-making and governance problems. The FTI's Catalytic Fund has suffered from low resource mobilization, poor disbursement rates and a narrow donor base. The *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010* calls for urgent, comprehensive reform of the FTI. Following the example of global health funds, a reformed FTI could be used to harness more innovative sources of financing for education, including via private foundations and companies.

- The Catalytic Fund has been dogged by poor disbursement rates, which deter aid recipients from adopting more ambitious reform agendas. As of April 2009, Mongolia had experienced more than twenty-two months in delays between its latest allocation and grant agreement. Half of total Catalytic Fund disbursements were distributed to only three countries in sub-Saharan Africa: Kenya, Madagascar and Rwanda.
- Plan endorsement has not always led to aid delivery. Several conflict-affected countries have been through the FTI endorsement process, but some are still awaiting their first disbursement.

* Between 2002 and 2008, the following countries' education sector plans were endorsed: Albania and the Republic of Moldova in CEE and Georgia, Kyrgyzstan, Mongolia and Tajikistan in CA.

Table 2: Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia, selected education indicators

Country or territory	Total population (000)	Compulsory education (age group)	EFA Development Index (EDI)	Adult literacy rate (15 and over)				Early childhood care and education			
				1985–1994 ¹		2000–2007 ¹		Child survival and well-being		Pre-primary education	
				Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Under-5 mortality rate (‰)	Moderate and severe stunting (%)	GER	
										2005–2010	2000–2007 ¹
Central and Eastern Europe											
Albania ⁴	3 190	6-13	99	0.99	22	22	40	...
Belarus	9 689	6-14	0.971	98	0.97	100	1.00	12	3	75	103
Bosnia and Herzegovina	3 935	97	0.95	14	7	...	10
Bulgaria	7 639	7-16	0.967	98	0.99	14	...	67	81
Croatia	4 555	7-15	0.990	97	0.96	99	0.99	8	1	40	52
Czech Republic	10 186	6-15	0.975	5	...	90	115
Estonia	1 335	7-15	0.981	100	1.00	100	1.00	10	...	87	95
Hungary	10 030	7-16	0.973	8	...	78	88
Latvia	2 277	7-15	0.972	99	0.99	100	1.00	14	...	53	89
Lithuania	3 390	7-16	0.976	98	0.99	100	1.00	11	...	50	69
Montenegro	598	7-14	24	5
Poland	38 082	7-15	0.980	8	...	50	60
Republic of Moldova ⁴	3 794	7-15	0.959	96	0.96	99	0.99	19	8	48	70
Romania	21 438	7-14	0.971	97	0.96	98	0.99	18	10	62	72
Russian Federation	142 499	6-15	...	98	0.97	100	1.00	21	13	68	88
Serbia	9 858	7-14	14	6	54	59
Slovakia	5 390	6-16	0.972	8	...	82	94
Slovenia	2 002	6-15	0.988	100	1.00	100	1.00	6	...	75	81
TFYR Macedonia	2 038	6-15	0.968	94	0.94	97	0.97	17	9	27	40
Turkey	74 877	6-14	0.913	79	0.76	89	0.84	32	12	6	16
Ukraine	46 205	6-17	0.968	100	1.00	16	3	50	94
Central Asia											
Armenia	3 002	7-15	0.971	99	0.99	99	1.00	34	13	26	37
Azerbaijan	8 467	6-16	0.979	100	0.99	86	21	18	30
Georgia ⁴	4 395	6-12	0.983	41	10	36	57
Kazakhstan	15 422	7-17	0.993	98	0.97	100	1.00	29	13	14	39
Kyrgyzstan ⁴	5 317	7-15	0.968	99	1.00	64	14	10	16
Mongolia ⁴	2 629	7-15	0.937	97	1.01	54	21	25	54
Tajikistan ⁴	6 736	7-15	0.975	98	0.98	100	1.00	78	27	8	9
Turkmenistan	4 965	7-15	100	1.00	95	15
Uzbekistan	27 372	7-17	0.969	97	0.98	66	15	24	27
	Sum			Weighted average				Weighted average		Weighted average	
Central and Eastern Europe	403 007	96	0.96	98	0.97	21	...	50	64
Central Asia	78 306	98	0.98	99	0.99	62	...	19	28
Countries in transition ⁵	277 863	98	0.98	99	1.00	38	...	45	63
Developed countries ⁵	1 020 411	99	0.99	99	1.00	7	...	73	80
Developing countries	5 358 052	68	0.77	80	0.86	81	30	27	36
World	6 656 326	76	0.85	84	0.90	74	28	33	41

Notes:

Data underlined are for 2004. Data in italics are for 2005. Data in bold italics are for 2006. Data in bold are for 2008 or 2007 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 enrolment ratios of primary school age children, which measure the proportion of those who are enrolled in either primary or secondary school (primary adjusted NER).

Primary education										Country or territory
NER total (%)		GPI of GER (F/M)		Out-of-school children ² (000)	Survival rate to last grade total (%)		% of trained teachers	Pupil/teacher ratio ³		
1999	2007	1999	2007		1999	2006		2007	1999	
Central and Eastern Europe										
94	...	0.98	92	23	...	Albania ⁴
...	90	0.99	0.99	36	99	100	100	20	16	Belarus
...	0.93	Bosnia and Herzegovina
97	95	0.98	0.99	10	93	94	...	18	16	Bulgaria
85	90	0.98	1.00	2	100	100	...	19	17	Croatia
97	93	0.99	0.99	37	98	98	...	18	19	Czech Republic
96	95	0.97	0.99	2	99	96	...	16	13	Estonia
88	87	0.98	0.98	29	97	98	...	11	10	Hungary
97	90	0.98	0.96	7	97	98	...	15	12	Latvia
95	90	0.98	0.99	10	99	98	...	17	13	Lithuania
...	Montenegro
96	96	0.98	1.00	110	98	97	11	Poland
93	88	1.00	0.98	17	95	96	...	21	16	Republic of Moldova ⁴
96	94	0.98	0.99	30	96	95	...	19	17	Romania
...	...	0.98	1.00	...	95	95	...	18	17	Russian Federation
...	95	0.99	1.00	9	17	13	Serbia
...	92	0.99	0.99	19	97	98	...	19	15	Slovakia
96	96	0.99	0.99	3	14	16	Slovenia
93	89	0.98	1.00	6	97	98	...	22	18	TFYR Macedonia
...	92	...	0.95	643	...	94	Turkey
...	89	0.99	1.00	167	97	98	100	20	16	Ukraine
Central Asia										
...	85	...	1.03	7	...	98	77	...	19	Armenia
89	95	1.00	0.99	20	97	99	100	19	12	Azerbaijan
...	94	1.00	0.97	18	99	100	...	17	...	Georgia ⁴
...	90	1.01	1.00	9	...	100	17	Kazakhstan
88	84	0.99	0.99	32	95	96	62	24	24	Kyrgyzstan ⁴
89	89	1.04	1.02	6	87	84	99	32	32	Mongolia ⁴
...	97	0.95	0.96	17	97	99	87	22	22	Tajikistan ⁴
...	Turkmenistan
...	91	1.00	0.97	145	100	99	100	21	18	Uzbekistan
Weighted average		Weighted average		Sum	Median			Weighted average		
91	92	0.96	0.98	1 552	97	98	...	19	18	Central and Eastern Europe
88	92	0.99	0.98	271	97	99	93	21	18	Central Asia
88	91	0.99	0.99	819	97	98	94	20	17	Countries in transition ⁵
97	96	1.00	1.00	2 334	98	98	...	16	14	Developed countries ⁵
80	86	0.91	0.95	68 638	...	81	85	27	27	Developing countries
82	87	0.92	0.96	71 791	90	89	...	25	25	World

3. Based on headcounts of pupils and teachers.

4. Fast Track Initiative (FTI): countries with endorsed sector plans.

5. For total aid to basic education, only countries eligible for official development assistance (ODA) are included.

Sources: EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010, statistical tables; UNESCO Institute for Statistics; OECD-DAC online CRS database.

Table 2 (continued)

Country or territory	Secondary education								Tertiary education	
	GER in lower secondary		GER in upper secondary		GER in total secondary				GER	
	2007		2007		1999		2007		2007	
	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)
Central and Eastern Europe										
Albania ⁴	71	0.98
Belarus	107	0.97	72	1.21	85	1.05	95	1.02	69	1.41
Bosnia and Herzegovina	95	1.04	77	1.02	85	1.03	37	...
Bulgaria	88	0.94	125	0.97	91	0.98	106	0.96	50	1.22
Croatia	99	1.03	85	1.04	84	1.02	92	1.03	46	1.23
Czech Republic	99	1.00	93	1.03	83	1.04	96	1.01	55	1.26
Estonia	106	0.94	95	1.10	93	1.04	100	1.02	65	1.63
Hungary	97	0.99	94	1.01	94	1.02	96	1.00	69	1.46
Latvia	103	0.97	93	1.06	88	1.04	99	1.00	74	1.80
Lithuania	99	0.98	94	1.06	95	1.01	98	1.00	76	1.57
Montenegro
Poland	101	0.98	99	1.00	99	0.99	100	0.99	67	1.40
Republic of Moldova ⁴	91	0.99	84	1.13	83	0.98	89	1.03	41	1.39
Romania	99	0.99	79	1.00	79	1.01	87	0.99	58	1.33
Russian Federation	82	1.01	88	0.93	84	0.98	75	1.35
Serbia	97	0.99	80	1.07	93	1.01	88	1.03
Slovakia	95	0.98	92	1.03	85	1.02	94	1.01	51	1.49
Slovenia	88	1.00	98	0.99	100	1.03	94	0.99	86	1.45
TFYR Macedonia	93	1.00	76	0.95	82	0.97	84	0.97	36	1.27
Turkey	89	0.86	74	0.80	80	0.82	36	0.76
Ukraine	95	1.00	93	0.99	98	1.03	94	1.00	76	1.24
Central Asia										
Armenia	92	1.03	83	1.12	91	...	89	1.05	34	1.20
Azerbaijan	97	0.97	71	0.94	78	0.99	89	0.96	15	0.88
Georgia ⁴	90	0.99	90	1.00	79	0.98	90	1.00	37	1.12
Kazakhstan	105	1.00	66	0.92	92	1.00	92	0.98	47	1.44
Kyrgyzstan ⁴	92	1.02	73	1.00	83	1.02	86	1.01	43	1.30
Mongolia ⁴	95	1.07	86	1.18	58	1.27	92	1.11	48	1.56
Tajikistan ⁴	95	0.91	55	0.61	74	0.86	84	0.84	20	0.38
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan	97	0.98	115	0.98	86	0.98	102	0.98	10	0.71
Weighted average										
Central and Eastern Europe	90	0.98	85	0.94	87	0.98	88	0.96	62	1.25
Central Asia	97	0.98	89	0.96	85	0.99	95	0.98	24	1.10
Countries in transition ⁵	91	0.99	89	0.95	91	1.01	90	0.98	58	1.29
Developed countries ⁵	102	1.00	99	1.01	100	1.00	100	1.00	67	1.29
Developing countries	75	0.94	48	0.94	52	0.89	61	0.94	18	0.96
World	78	0.95	54	0.95	60	0.92	66	0.95	26	1.08

Notes:

Data underlined are for 2004. Data in italics are for 2005. Data in bold italics are for 2006. Data in bold are for 2008 or 2007 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 enrolment ratios of primary school age children, which measure the proportion of those who are enrolled in either primary or secondary school (primary adjusted NER).

Education finance				Country or territory
Total public expenditure on education as % of GNP		Total aid to basic education (constant 2007 US\$ million)	Total aid to basic education per primary school age child (constant 2007 US\$)	
1999	2007	2006–2007 annual average	2006–2007 annual average	
Central and Eastern Europe				
...	...	8	39	Albania ⁴
6.0	5.3	0.1	0.4	Belarus
...	...	3	13	Bosnia and Herzegovina
...	4.3	Bulgaria
...	<u>4.6</u>	1	4	Croatia
4.1	4.8	Czech Republic
7.0	<u>5.1</u>	Estonia
5.0	5.8	Hungary
5.8	5.2	Latvia
...	5.0	Lithuania
...	Montenegro
4.7	<u>5.6</u>	Poland
4.6	7.3	8	43	Republic of Moldova ⁴
3.6	<u>3.6</u>	Romania
...	4.0	Russian Federation
...	Serbia
4.2	3.9	Slovakia
...	5.9	Slovenia
4.2	...	9	81.4	TFYR Macedonia
4.0	<u>4.1</u>	3	0.3	Turkey
3.7	5.4	1	0.4	Ukraine
Central Asia				
2.2	2.6	7	54	Armenia
4.3	2.9	0	0.3	Azerbaijan
2.0	2.6	9	26	Georgia ⁴
4.0	3.2	1	1	Kazakhstan
4.3	5.4	7	17	Kyrgyzstan ⁴
6.0	5.2	16	64	Mongolia ⁴
2.1	3.5	5	7	Tajikistan ⁴
...	...	1	4	Turkmenistan
...	...	7	3	Uzbekistan
Median		Sum		Weighted average
4.4	5.1	60	5	Central and Eastern Europe
4.0	3.2	52	9	Central Asia
3.9	3.5	46	6	Countries in transition ⁵
5.0	5.3	21	29	Developed countries ⁵
4.5	4.5	4 046	7	Developing countries
4.6	4.9	4 874	8	World

3. Based on headcounts of pupils and teachers.

4. Fast Track Initiative (FTI): countries with endorsed sector plans.

5. For total aid to basic education, only countries eligible for official development assistance (ODA) are included.

Sources: EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010, statistical tables; UNESCO Institute for Statistics; OECD-DAC online CRS database.

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