



## Chapter **3**

# Planning for education for all

If the end of 2002 was expected to bring a set of finely honed, comprehensive National EFA Action Plans that would provide a basis for dialogue with international agencies for enhanced levels of funding then this target has not been met. If, on the other hand, Dakar is assessed in terms of injecting some urgency and some EFA focus into education and development planning, then there is evidence that this is taking place. Plans that are gender sensitive, inclusive and, where appropriate, responsive to the circumstances of HIV/AIDS and conflict, will be truly supportive of EFA. Plans that lack the financial credibility *and* human resource capability required to make them effective will not work. The urgency implicit in the 2002 planning target and the 2005 and 2015 EFA goals must be sustained.

## Dakar's planning challenge

The Dakar Framework for Action (UNESCO, 2000) is subtitled *Meeting Our Collective Commitments*. Since the World Education Forum in 2000, the Dakar commitments have been quoted, interpreted and promoted by many governments, supported strongly by civil society bodies, and endorsed by United Nations agencies, the World Bank and significant and influential groups of countries such as the G8.

Broad commitments can be made relatively easily. Following them through is more problematic, as the experience of the decade following the World Education Conference at Jomtien in 1990 demonstrates (Little and Miller, 2000; Torres, 1999). However, unlike Jomtien, the Dakar Framework for Action specifies a set of actions that are designed to instil a sense of urgency and create a climate of accountability. Some of these key actions are time-bound. All of them are based on the need for strong political commitment and for well-conceived, well-managed, and securely funded strategies, twelve of which are elaborated in the Framework for Action (Box 3.1). Effective planning receives a particular emphasis.

The Framework elaborates a set of policy development and planning challenges that are addressed primarily but not exclusively to governments. It requires that countries should prepare or strengthen comprehensive National EFA Action Plans by 2002 at the latest. It makes clear that planning for EFA should be integrated into wider education sector, poverty reduction and development frameworks to ensure that EFA receives the attention and the priority that it requires, as well as the budgetary allocations that are needed if national EFA goals are to be secured. The Framework is clear too, that the demands and the needs of those who are excluded from educational opportunities must be met. Finally, it argues strongly that civil society should be closely engaged in the formulation, implementation and monitoring of strategies designed to achieve EFA.<sup>1</sup>

These challenges are neither new nor straightforward but must be addressed if EFA is to become a reality. The first part of this chapter – 'Is the planning challenge being met?' – includes an interim assessment of the extent of the substantive response to the challenges of planning for EFA. How have governments interpreted their own commitment to the Framework for Action? Are they giving more weight and importance to basic education? Is there evidence of planning for the inclusion of those who are marginalized and disadvantaged? Is planning gender responsive? The extent to which there is a comprehensive approach to planning for EFA is also examined, including an assessment of whether the Dakar 2002 target has been or will be met. The weight that is given to the achievement of EFA goals in Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) is analysed, and a preliminary assessment is provided on the scope and the nature of the engagement of civil society in planning, given its importance as an indicator of national commitment to EFA.

The World Education Forum underscored the urgency of developing ways of mitigating the impact of HIV/AIDS on education and developing education strategies to combat the pandemic. It also recognized that countries in conflict or facing reconstruction require special attention. The second part of the chapter – 'Planning for HIV/AIDS' – will examine the development of planning that is responsive to the circumstances of people who live with HIV/AIDS, and to those who survive in the face of crisis, conflict and emergency.

The final section – 'Credible planning, credible plans' – examines the concept of a *credible plan*. This is a term used at Dakar to define a prerequisite for funding agencies and other partners in the process of assisting countries implement and sustain their EFA programmes. Since Dakar, the concept of a credible plan has been closely associated with the commitment in the Framework for Action (para. 10), 'that no countries seriously committed to education for all will be thwarted in their achievement of this goal by a lack of resources'.

The Dakar Framework for Action specifies a set of actions that are designed to instil a sense of urgency and create a climate of accountability.

1. Many of these requirements are explored further in the EFA Regional and E-9 Frameworks that are an integral part of the Dakar Framework for Action (UNESCO, 2000a, pp. 23–72).

## Is the planning challenge being met?

The underlying principles and goals of EFA were set in Jomtien. They were reaffirmed and expanded in Dakar where there was the opportunity to draw on a broad spectrum of comparative educational knowledge and experience. Children excluded from school, girls' education and the participation of disabled learners were among the issues discussed. Community partnerships in education and the role of non-governmental organizations, school health and nutrition, literacy and education, early childhood care and development and the application of new technologies for education also received attention (UNESCO, 2001 *a,c-f,h,j,l,o-q*). Internationally, there is an enormous fund of knowledge and comparative experience on how to provide good quality education for young children, how to promote gender equality, and how to reach the poor and the excluded. This knowledge is not always shared or well communicated but it exists (e.g. UNICEF, 1999*b*, 2002*a*; Scheerens, 2000; Save the Children, 2001; UNGEI website).

However, in many respects, Dakar is of political rather than technical and professional significance. It will be judged less by the soundness of its technical debates, and much more by the extent to which it promotes commitment and mobilizes human and financial resources in support of the strategies agreed at the World Education Forum (Box 3.1). The realization of Education For All requires sustained political support, realistic choices about the allocation of scarce resources, and an environment that enables people to engage in an inclusive process of making plans and taking decisions. It is also about developing a global understanding of EFA that underpins support for international investment in education.

### EFA National Action Plans

If the Dakar commitment that *countries will prepare comprehensive National EFA Plans by 2002 at the latest* is interpreted as meaning any new plan should encompass all of the Dakar goals

### Box 3.1. Twelve strategies for achieving EFA

To achieve these goals, we the governments, organizations, agencies, groups and associations represented at the World Education Forum pledge ourselves to:

- (i) mobilize strong national and international political commitment for education for all, develop national action plans and enhance significantly investment in basic education;
- (ii) promote EFA policies within a sustainable and well-integrated sector framework clearly linked to poverty elimination and development strategies;
- (iii) ensure the engagement and participation of civil society in the formulation, implementation and monitoring of strategies for educational development;
- (iv) develop responsive, participatory and accountable systems of educational governance and management;
- (v) meet the needs of education systems affected by conflict, national calamities and instability and conduct educational programmes in ways that promote mutual understanding, peace and tolerance, and help to prevent violence and conflict;
- (vi) implement integrated strategies for gender equality in education which recognize the need for changes in attitudes, values and practices;
- (vii) implement as a matter of urgency education programmes and actions to combat the HIV/AIDS pandemic;
- (viii) create safe, healthy, inclusive and equitably resourced educational environments conducive to excellence in learning with clearly defined levels of achievement for all;
- (ix) enhance the status, morale and professionalism of teachers;
- (x) harness new information and communication technologies to help achieve EFA goals;
- (xi) systematically monitor progress towards EFA goals and strategies at the national, regional and international levels; and
- (xii) build on existing mechanisms to accelerate progress towards education for all.

Source: UNESCO (2000a), para. 8.

and result from a strong and politically credible process, then the target has been met in only a relatively small group of countries. Based on the evidence of UNESCO surveys and summary reports from its Regional Bureaux, in the middle of 2002, the twenty-two countries listed in Table 3.1 below have either indicated their completion of, or intention to finalize a National Plan of Action for EFA by the end of 2002.

The list in Table 3.1 should be treated with the greatest possible caution as it is based on incomplete data and reports that are not easily comparable. In some cases it may overstate progress and the degree to which a plan is comprehensive. On the other hand, it may exclude countries such as Pakistan that have undertaken a considerable amount of work on an EFA plan that is awaiting finalization and approval.<sup>2</sup>

**In many respects, Dakar is of political, rather than technical or professional, significance.**

2. A recent return of work done in Pacific island states indicates that all countries are preparing EFA plans. In Latin America and the Caribbean, 15 countries are working on EFA plans (based on the outcomes of a UNESCO regional Meeting in Santo Domingo, August 2002).

**Table 3.1. National EFA plans, completed or expected to be finalized by the end of 2002**

Arab States	Djibouti, Mauritania
Asia	Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Nepal
Latin America/Caribbean	Cuba, Dominican Republic, Ecuador
Sub-Saharan Africa	Angola, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Ethiopia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Namibia, Niger, Senegal and Zimbabwe.

Source: Interpretation of formal reports to UNESCO (mid-2002) from UNESCO Regional Bureaux; surveys conducted by UNESCO's Division of Educational Policies and Strategies (EPSI), 2002.

The extent is to which there engagement with civil society that goes beyond set-piece consultation has not always been well defined.

A completed plan is not necessarily one that has been adopted by Government and approved as the basis for budgetary allocations in the mainstream of sector and development policy. In some countries, the plans are a restatement or reformulation of existing plans. And the extent is to which there engagement with civil society that goes beyond set-piece consultation has not always been well defined.

If a broader and wider interpretation of planning for EFA is used, wherein countries are revisiting their goals and targets for EFA, building on existing sector strategies and plans, and promoting EFA in other planning processes such as PRSPs, then there is a much stronger case to be made for a larger group of countries.

#### A diversity of response

UNESCO has been the leader in promoting the Dakar commitment to develop EFA National Action Plans and it is the main repository of progress reports, through its Paris headquarters and Regional Bureaux. But as yet, there is no authoritative global analysis that draws on detailed country studies. As a consequence, it is difficult to assess with any degree of confidence, how national governments have interpreted the Dakar planning commitment. Data that are available at the international level are limited, uneven and sometimes difficult to interpret. Nevertheless, reports from UNESCO's Regional Bureaux highlight a range of education sector planning activities and a considerable variety of interpretations regarding the call for a

comprehensive EFA National Action Plan by 2002 (UNESCO, 2002e, 2002j; Global March website).

One preliminary conclusion that can be drawn, illustrated by the twenty-two countries presented in Table 3.1, is that the Dakar planning commitment is perceived primarily as an exercise for developing countries. There are some exceptions to this, however, as the creation of sub-regional forums for the Nordic and Baltic countries and for three Caucasus states demonstrates. Spain is developing an EFA plan and there is similar work underway in Eastern European countries such as Estonia and Republic of Moldova (Virtosu, 2002). However, it is broadly true that industrialized countries do not see the goals of EFA as providing the parameters for national education planning. Indeed, this perception is not restricted to planning and can be applied to EFA in more general terms. This has important implications for EFA as a global commitment.

Based on a questionnaire survey carried out in June 2002, UNESCO headquarters has collected data on EFA-related planning activities in fifty-four countries (ten from sub-Saharan Africa, eleven Arab States, thirteen from Asia and the Pacific, fourteen from Latin America and six from Europe). These data suggest that 70% of the countries have set up EFA Forums. They also suggest that 75% of the sample countries are engaged in planning processes that encompass some or all of the Dakar goals, whether in the form of a separate and distinct National EFA Plan or within broader planning frameworks such as education sector plans and national development strategies.

The survey records some of the difficulties that confront education sector planners: the lack of reliable data, inadequate technical skills for policy formulation and planning, the absence of robust analyses on costs and the financing of EFA, and the associated difficulty of developing reliable budget projections. These are issues to which further attention is paid in Chapter 4.

UNESCO's Regional Bureaux have conducted their own surveys of planning for EFA. These provide headline information on the status of

plan development, difficulties that are being experienced and the existence of related planning documents and frameworks. From this information it is possible to draw some additional but tentative conclusions. Five EFA regions are examined briefly below.<sup>3</sup>

In the nineteen Arab States, all but one country is recorded as having set up a national EFA team or committee. Five countries (Iraq, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Palestinian Autonomous Territories, Syrian Arab Republic and Tunisia) have prepared the first draft of an EFA plan. Mauritania is reported as having finalized its plan.

In East Asia, most of the twelve countries in the region have indicated that their national objectives will derive from existing policy documents and education sector plans and that additional objectives will be defined for EFA components not covered under existing policy documents and plans.<sup>4</sup> Each country is interpreting the Dakar commitment in a context-specific way. Malaysia has already addressed the EFA goals within its existing national education sector development plans, but along with six other countries, it is reported as having established an EFA Forum or a national EFA committee (Cambodia, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Indonesia, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Malaysia, Mongolia and Myanmar). Cambodia is a country that has chosen to develop an EFA plan that encompasses goals and strategies already embedded in existing plans (Box 3.2). China and the Democratic People's Republic of Korea are both reported to have prepared the first version of an EFA Plan.

Of the nine countries of South and West Asia, Bangladesh and Pakistan have developed draft plans. Pakistan has prepared a national EFA Plan for the period 2000–2015 (Pakistan, 2001a), defined as an integral part of Pakistan's Education Sector Reforms: 2001–2004 (Pakistan, 2001b). In the draft EFA Plan, it is estimated that the Government can fund 40% of an enlarged budget but that external funding will be required to fill the financing gap. The EFA Plan makes specific reference to the Dakar commitment that no countries seriously committed to Education

### Box 3.2. Planning for EFA in Cambodia

The Government of the Kingdom of Cambodia created the National Education for All Committee in October 2001. It has 150 members and is chaired by the Prime Minister with cross-ministry representation. The Committee has a secretariat in the Ministry of Education. EFA committees are being established at province, municipality, district and community levels.

Six working groups have been established to work on each of the Dakar Goals. These groups are working with NGOs and international agencies. The key task is to develop an EFA National Plan of Action that integrates existing education plans, since, as is explained in the report, 'The challenge has been to link the existing Education Strategy Plan (ESP) and the Education Sector Support Programme (ESSP) with the Education for All Plan of Action.'

Since the ESSP focuses mainly on formal education, there is a need to develop programmes to reach the unreached – street children, minority groups, indigenous groups, communities in remote rural areas and girls – by promoting programmes in the area of non-formal education and literacy.

Source: Kingdom of Cambodia (2002).

for All will be thwarted in their achievement by a lack of resources.

India's Plan of Action will be finalized by the end of 2002. It will reflect and complement the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan programme for Universal Elementary Education (UEE) that is designed to ensure that all children aged 6 to 14 will receive eight years of quality education by 2010, as well as India's 10th Five-year Plan 2002–2007 (India, 2002), which includes literacy strategies as well as UEE.

Both Bangladesh and Nepal are scheduled to have finalized EFA planning documents by the end of 2002. An assessment of Sri Lanka's interpretation of the Dakar commitment, arguing that Sri Lanka has a portfolio of plans, is presented in Box 3.3.

In the Latin America and the Caribbean region there are forty-one countries. Here too, existing policies and plans are being revised to take a more comprehensive approach to EFA. For example, the Government of Brazil has worked to ensure that the Dakar goals are addressed in its national education plan for 2001–2010 (Box 3.4). In Bolivia, the existing 20-year plan for basic education and the country's PRSP provide the main frameworks for addressing the goals of EFA. Nicaragua's National Education Plan

The government of Brazil has worked to ensure that the Dakar goals are addressed in its national education plan for 2001–2010.

3. Information was also made available to the Global Report on Europe (see Chapter 5) and the countries of the Pacific.

4. Information provided by UNESCO Office in Bangkok and Regional Bureau for Education (Thailand), 2002.

### Box 3.3. EFA in Sri Lanka: a portfolio of plans

#### Policy development

Jomtien and Dakar emphasize the importance of National EFA Plans. Yet both frameworks pay limited attention to the development of national policies and to the scope for policies and goals that differ from EFA. In Sri Lanka, EFA-related goals have underpinned educational policies for many years and the process that underpins the formulation of policy has been vital to the development and implementation of plans.

In the 1990s, the main responsibility for formulating education policy rested with the National Education Commission (NEC) which was established to advise the President on continuity in educational policy and to ensure responsiveness to changing needs.

In 1995, the President stressed the importance of improvements in education within the overall development policy. Resources for education had declined (from around 4% of GDP or 15% of government expenditure in the 1960s, to 3% of GDP or 10% of government expenditure in the 1990s). This accentuated inequities and the quality of education declined. The government's medium-term investment strategy envisaged an increase in public resources to education, and initiatives to reduce or remove inequities, upgrade the quality of education, expand opportunities for vocational training and restructure the tertiary system.

Later that year, the National Education Policy appeared in two parts: 'Towards a National Education Policy', and 'An Action-Oriented Strategy'.

On primary education, NEC emphasized investment in quality across the system, the need to democratize access for the 5–14 age group, and for regulations on compulsory education for that age group. These directives became the key reference point for the Presidential Task Force on Education, the Education Reforms Implementation Unit in the Ministry of Education, and for specialist planning groups such as the group that developed the Five-year Plan for Primary Education (FYPE).

#### Sri Lanka's approach to planning

Planning responds to these evolving policy frameworks. With respect to the six EFA Goals, the following approaches appear to have been adopted.

**Early Childhood Care and Development (ECCD)** is the responsibility of the Children's Secretariat in the Ministry of Social Welfare. In 2002, after a change of government, an Inter-Ministerial Advisory Committee on ECCD was established. Work on legislative provision is ongoing.

**Life skills and learning opportunities for youth and adults** are addressed through secondary education programmes, under the National Commission on Vocational and Technical Training, and through the work of NGOs and the Youth Services Council. There is no co-ordinated plan of action.

The **elimination of gender disparities** is not elevated to the level of national educational policy in Sri Lanka. Access to, and the quality of, basic education is remarkably even for males and females, and has been for much of the 1990s. Where specific disparities have been manifest, for example among girls in the plantations, these have been addressed within programmes targeted on the plantation schools.

**UPE and the quality of education** are reflected in the work of numerous policy and planning groups. Most recently, the Primary

Education Planning Project (PEPP) in the Ministry of Education published eight Provincial Plans for Primary Education (1999–2004) and the Five-year Plan for Primary Education (FYPPE 2000–2004).

#### The National Plan of Action – post-Dakar

The National Plan of Action (2002–2004) draws on an array of plans and initiatives, many of which predate Dakar. This is a portfolio plan, developed by groups comprising senior staff from agencies, including the Ministry of Education, the National Institute of Education, the Presidential Secretariat, the Open University, the Child Protection Authority, UNICEF, and representatives of NGOs. Much of the technical work was contributed by Technical Support Groups from the Ministry, the National Institute of Education, the Children's Secretariat and Sri Lankan consultants. A national EFA coordinator, supported by eight provincial coordinators, drew the plan together.

The Sri Lankan National Action Plan is derived from plans developed for each of the EFA Goals and from a mix of planning structures and policies. The plans for primary education have not been created or re-created to respond to Dakar. They were developed prior to Dakar and have been edited and re-presented alongside plans that meet the other Dakar Goals. While some countries may need to create plans de novo others may simply require a translation of existing material into a slightly different format, highlighting those aspects that reflect the Dakar criteria. And since it is unlikely that a single Ministry can develop all plans to meet all the EFA Goals, the National Action Plan is better thought of as a portfolio of complementary plans.

#### The Plan for primary education and Dakar criteria for EFA plans

FYPPE 2000–2004 resonates with several of the criteria for National EFA plans suggested at Dakar:

- Plans should be developed with government leadership in direct and systematic consultation with civil society. FYPPE was derived from the National Policy on Education developed in consultation with members of national civil society.
- Plans should attract coordinated support of all development partners. The plans of all current development partners (Ministry of Education, Provinces, NIE, foreign-funded projects, etc.) have been incorporated within the structure of FYPPE.
- Plans should specify reforms addressing all EFA goals. FYPPE addresses two of the goals.
- Plans should set in place a sustainable financial framework. FYPPE presents a costed plan over five years, identifies resource gaps and ways of meeting those gaps from both domestic and foreign sources.
- Plans should be time-bound and action-oriented. FYPPE presents an implementation schedule over five years, and is activity-based. Annual implementation plans are expected at the school, zone, province and national levels.
- Plans should include mid-term performance indicators. FYPPE presents a detailed framework for the monitoring of goals from school to national level.
- Plans should achieve a synergy of all human development efforts, through its inclusion in the national development planning framework and process. FYPPE is consistent with the National six-year multi-sector development plan.

Source: See Little [forthcoming].

2001–2015 indicates that all the goals and strategies of the Framework for Action are included within its structure, an operational framework for 2002–2008 already having been finalized.

In Cuba, it is expected that an EFA Plan will be completed in 2002 to complement the existing 15-year national plan of action. The Dominican Republic and Ecuador both indicate that new EFA plans should be ready by the end of 2002. In the Caribbean, all countries report existing policies and plans that address EFA goals. Dominica reports that its 1999 Education Development Plan, revised in 2002, addresses EFA objectives. Only Trinidad and Tobago is reported as preparing a separate EFA Plan.

For the forty-six countries that comprise the sub-Saharan Africa region, detailed analysis is limited (UNESCO-BREDA, 2002). As can be seen in Table 3.1, eleven countries are recorded as having EFA plans due for completion by the end of 2002. Other countries are developing their existing sector plans. For example, The Gambia is developing an Action Plan that builds on its current Education Master Plan, 1998–2006 and its updated Public Expenditure Review (2001). Thirteen countries are included in the first tranche of nations identified under the World Bank's Fast-Track Initiative for UPE, which includes a requirement that a country have both a PRSP and an education sector plan. These countries are Burkina Faso, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Ethiopia, The Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Mauritania, Mozambique, Niger, Nigeria, Uganda, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia.

These summary regional reports suggest that there are many more than the twenty-two countries listed in Table 3.1 working on existing policies and plans to embrace some or all of the EFA goals agreed in Jomtien and under The Dakar Framework for Action. The *International Strategy to Put the Dakar Framework for Action on Education for All into Operation* (UNESCO, 2002h) states that by March 2002, around seventy countries had developed plans for Education for All, although the evidence base for this assertion is not provided. Clearly there is currently some rethinking and modification taking place

### Box 3.4. Brazil's National Education Action Plan, 2001–2010

In January 2001, the President of the Republic, Fernando Henrique Cardoso, approved the new national education plan. Formulated through a participatory process involving civil society, government and the legislature, the Plan sets guidelines, goals and priorities to be implemented by the end of this decade. Its premises and proposals are in tune with the EFA Goals of the World Education Forum.

According to the plan, the three levels of government – federal, state and municipal – are committed to adopting measures to raise the population's level of schooling, improve the quality of instruction, reduce social and regional inequalities and democratize the management of public education by the end of the decade. Plans are being developed at municipal and state levels to guarantee that the commitments and the goals of the national education plan can be achieved.

In a country the size of a continent, with 27 States and 5,561 municipalities, 170 million inhabitants and over 55 million students, including 36 million in basic education – this commitment is a major challenge.

Sources: Taken from Guimaraes de Castro (2002).

regarding education plans and strategies tailored to reflect the strengths of existing policies and plans as well as the relevance of the EFA goals to national circumstance. For example, the government of Democratic People's Republic of Korea is focusing on life skills and the quality of education in the belief that it has met the other goals. There is evidence too of the establishment of EFA Forums and committees even if a new and/or formal EFA plan is not being constructed, although data on the roles, composition and work of these forums are not readily available.

For the future, if there is to be an effective monitoring process at the regional and international level, there is a clear need for a comprehensive database on country-level legislation, policies and plans. This is a matter that UNESCO, its specialized institutes, and other international organizations should address. It is a development with which the Global Report is well placed to assist.

In advance of the availability of such a resource, the EFA Global Monitoring Report undertook two exercises. A rapid survey of readily accessible national policy and planning documents developed over the last five years was undertaken for forty countries. The results are indicative, not comprehensive. There were five broad objectives:

Legislation that introduces or strengthens the provision of free and compulsory primary education is most significant .

1. establish whether there has been recent legislative change to strengthen the right to education and provide a strong basis for EFA planning and programme development;
2. identify the primary policy and planning instruments and frameworks for EFA;
3. see whether clear timelines for the achievement of EFA goals and targets are in place;
4. see whether there are commitments to increase or reallocate budgets for EFA; and
5. assess whether the engagement of civil society in planning for EFA is a reality.

The forty countries/territories are listed in Table 3.2. They were selected in order to include a relatively large sample of countries each of which possesses one or more of the following characteristics: low levels of primary school net enrolment, substantial numbers of school age children out of school, low levels of adult literacy, high recent or current prevalence rates of HIV/AIDS among adults, and the incidence of conflict. Countries with large and small total populations were included.

Together, these countries comprise 40% of the global school-age population in 1999/2000. The twenty-three countries from sub-Saharan Africa account for 73% of the sub-continent's school-age population while the six countries from South and West Asia account for 94%. Only four countries in the sample have adult literacy levels of over 80%. Fourteen countries have HIV prevalence rates of over 5%. At least twelve of the sample countries are living with conflict or emergency.

In addition to this survey, work was commissioned on the extent to which EFA and MDG goals are reflected in Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs), in both the process of their development and their product (Bagai, 2002). Work by ActionAid is also instructive in this regard (ActionAid, 2002).

#### Legislative change

In the 1990s nearly 55% of the countries listed in Table 3.2, enacted legislation for education. Most significant is legislation for introducing or

strengthening the provision of free and compulsory primary education. This is true of Cambodia, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Thailand, Argentina, Guinea, Madagascar, Niger, Nigeria and Uganda. Since Dakar, India has passed its 93rd Constitutional Amendment Bill (November 2001), which states that education for children in the age group 6–14 years is a fundamental right. Legislation is currently being prepared to delineate responsibilities between the central government, state governments and local bodies, define the parameters of an acceptable quality of education and institute mechanisms for redress when the right is violated. In Nigeria, a bill to Provide Compulsory, Free Universal Basic Education is designed to underpin and strengthen Nigeria's Universal Basic Education Programme. Amendments to Nepal's Education Act (2002) have clarified the concept of free primary education and the role of communities in education.

These enactments set an essential basis for strengthening the right to education and creating a platform on which EFA planning can build, placing sound policies in a legal framework. South Africa provides a strong example in this regard (Box 3.5). Monitoring the legislative basis for the right to education deserves more detailed attention internationally, including support for the work of the United Nations Special Rapporteur on the Right to Education.

#### Planning frameworks

Education for All goals and objectives appear across a range of national-, state- and province-level policies and plans. They appear in overall development frameworks including Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs), within education sector, subsector and EFA plans, across the strategies of different ministries, and in separate plans and programmes to meet the needs of particular groups of people. The experience of India demonstrates some of these complexities and relationships (Box 3.6).

Based on policy papers and education plans from thirty-six of the forty countries listed in Table 3.2, eighteen or 50% have education sector plans that provide the basis for implementing strategies to achieve EFA goals. All but four of

the eighteen had sector plans in place prior to Dakar. A further twelve countries have elaborated detailed subsector plans and programmes either within or outside of a wider sector framework. These may reflect particular levels of education such as early childhood care and development or primary education, specific goals or themes such as literacy, or particular groups such as girls, HIV/AIDS orphans or nomads. For example, in Yemen there is a national strategy for literacy, a strategy for girls' education and a population plan of action that includes education.

Some countries are in the process of developing an overarching poverty strategy, a long-term education sector investment framework and an EFA plan, all at the same time. Malawi is a case in point. The pressures to develop these three different levels of policy analysis and planning are often external. They flow directly from requirements established by The World Bank, bilateral agencies working on sector programmes, and indirectly from the wish to respond to, and report on, the international commitments made in Dakar and elsewhere. Articulating a productive relationship between the three is challenging, particularly in systems with limited planning capacity. The different demands of agencies can result in planning exhaustion. This comes at a time in Malawi when there is an urgent need to improve the quality of education following substantial enrolment gains with the introduction of Free Primary Education in 1994 (Kadzamira, 2002).

Where countries are developing separate EFA plans, it is clearly important that they are doing so not just to meet an international commitment but in order to respond to national EFA challenges in a manner which strengthens existing planning processes. Towards the end of 2002, it is extremely difficult to judge the extent to which new and separate EFA plans will have a well-defined place in the pantheon of national planning instruments. This judgement may be further complicated by the new proposals and planning submissions for the World Bank Fast-Track Initiative which may form another instrument in the ledger of planning requirements (see Chapter 5).

### Box 3.5. The right to education in South Africa

In 1994 Nelson Mandela took office as the first president of a new democratic South Africa, and shortly afterwards South Africa was invited to participate in the EFA process. The task facing the 'government of national unity' that Mandela led was not the typical challenge for developing countries of enhancing access and quality in an existing state education system. Rather the need was to dismantle an existing system and replace it with new structures oriented around radically different values.

Consistent with the principles of EFA, the country's new constitution, adopted in final form in 1996, refers to nine years of compulsory schooling, thereby making education for black Africans compulsory for the first time. Significantly, under the Constitution a person's right to a basic education is unqualified and, in contrast to that of other public services such as health care and social security, is not limited by phrases referring to the availability of funds.

Consistent with the country's new democratic values, an important objective of the new government was to equalize the distribution of state funds among the nine new provinces, whose assets vary widely. Provinces such as Gauteng and Western Cape, home to the major cities of Johannesburg and Cape Town respectively, have substantial economic and other resources at their disposal, while others, such as Eastern Cape, crafted largely out of two former African black 'homelands', begin with few economic resources and little functioning infrastructure.

Despite the constraint of no additional funding resources, consistent with a conservative macro-economic policy, South African policy-makers were largely successful in equalizing the distribution of state funds among the nine provinces. Pupil spending in the Eastern Cape rose from 78% to 87% of the overall average between 1991 and 2001, while spending in the Western Cape decreased from 180% to 119% of the average.

Sources: Drawn from Fiske and Ladd (2002).

PRSPs are taking on increasing importance for overall national development policy and planning in the world's poorest countries. Globally, forty-eight countries are in the process of developing interim or full PRSPs. These are designed to describe a country's economic and social policies over a 3-year or longer time horizon and to be the operational vehicle for translating a poverty reduction strategy into an action plan – an action plan underpinned by sector strategies. Given the growing dominance of PRSPs, and of their objective of achieving the MDGs, it follows that education and the attainment of the EFA goals should hold a prominent place in their development and implementation.

For interim and full PRSPs in twenty-five countries, ActionAid notes that most strategies identify universal primary education (UPE) as a key goal and define it invariably in terms of gross

Some countries are in the process of developing an overarching poverty strategy, a long-term education sector investment framework and an EFA plan, all at the same time.

Table 3.2. Selected background indicators for 40 countries/territories\*

	PRIMARY EDUCATION					
	Net enrolment ratios (NER)		Gross enrolment ratios (GER)		Survival to Grade 5	
	Both sexes	Gender parity index (F/M)	Both sexes	Gender parity index (F/M)	Both sexes	Gender parity index (F/M)
<b>Arab States</b>						
Mauritania <sup>3</sup>	63.0	0.95	84.3	0.94	...	...
Palestinian Aut. Terr.	99.1	1.00	108.6	1.01	...	...
Yemen	...	...	...	...	...	...
<b>Asia/Pacific</b>						
Afghanistan	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bangladesh <sup>3</sup>	81.4	1.04	...	...	...	...
Bhutan <sup>3</sup>	52.9	0.81	...	...	...	...
Cambodia	88.6	0.88	102.4	0.87	...	...
India	...	...	100.9	0.85	59.7	0.91
Lao P.D.R.	81.8	0.92	115.3	0.85	54.2	0.98
Nepal	...	...	126.4	0.80	...	...
Pakistan	...	...	96.0	0.63	...	...
Thailand	81.4	0.96	93.5	0.95	97.1	1.03
Vanuatu	96.1	0.92	117.1	1.08	...	...
<b>Latin America/Caribbean</b>						
Argentina	106.4	1.00	118.9	1.00	94.7	1.03
Haiti <sup>3</sup>	66.3	1.00	126.0	0.96	40.8	1.07
<b>Sub-Saharan Africa</b>						
Benin	70.3	0.69	85.9	0.67	...	...
Botswana	83.6	...	108.4	...	87.6	1.08
Burkina Faso	34.6	0.69	42.9	0.70	68.3	1.05
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	...	...	...	...	...	...
Equatorial Guinea	79.0	0.8	124.8	0.82	16.3	1.3
Eritrea	40.3	0.86	61.2	0.82	95.3	0.95
Ethiopia	...	...	70.8	0.67	...	...
Gambia	69.8	0.87	75.1	0.90	...	...
Guinea	49.0	0.73	62.8	0.68	86.9	0.86
Guinea-Bissau	53.5	0.71	82.7	0.67	...	...
Kenya	...	...	...	...	...	...
Lesotho	58.5	1.14	103.5	1.09	68.4	1.25
Madagascar	66.4	1.01	101.8	0.96	51.1	1.02
Malawi	...	...	158.1	1.00	...	...
Mali <sup>3</sup>	39.9	0.69	50.0	0.67	78.1	...
Mozambique	50.1	0.83	85.4	0.75	46.2	0.85
Niger	21.2	1.06	32.4	0.67	61.3	0.97
Nigeria	...	...	...	...	...	...
Rwanda	97.3	1.00	122.4	0.98	45.4	0.89
Sierra Leone	65.2	0.93	65.2	0.92	...	...
Sudan	44.7	0.84	55.0	0.85	86.8	1.03
U.R. Tanzania	46.7	1.04	63.0	1.00	80.9	1.06
Togo	91.4	0.81	123.8	0.78	51.6	0.89
Uganda	...	...	140.9	0.93	44.7	1.04
Zambia	66.4	0.98	78.7	0.94	78.2	0.87

1. World Bank data (2002a). These data are not a substitute for the sustained collection of standardized international education statistics through UIS. They were produced to help update the global picture of progress to date.

2. Trend rate is the average annual percentage point change in primary completion rate from 1990 to the most recent year. Data for the most recent year are generally for 1999.

3. Data on enrolment and survival rates are from EFA 2000 country reports.

PRIMARY EDUCATION				LITERACY		EDUCATION FINANCE				HIV/AIDS
Primary completion rate in <sup>1</sup>				Adult literacy rate (15+)		Education spending as % <sup>1</sup>		Primary education spending as % <sup>1</sup>		Incidence of HIV/AIDS among 15-49 year olds
1990	Most recent year <sup>2</sup>	Trend rate from 1990 to most recent year <sup>2</sup>	Estimated number of out-of-school children (000)	Both sexes	Gender parity index (F/M)	Govt spending	GDP	Education spending	GDP	
34	46	1.47	...	40.2	0.59	13.7	3.6	49.0	1.8	...
...	...	...	3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
n/a	40	n/a	...	46.4	0.37	13.0	5.1	54.2	2.7	0.1
22	8	-1.39	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	70		...	40.0	0.61	9.6	1.9	49.9	0.9	<0.1
7	23	2.69	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	<0.1
52	60	0.67	251	68.0	0.71	15.0	1.7	51.0	0.9	2.7
66	67	0.21	...	57.2	0.66	17.4	2.6	38.5	1.0	0.8
44	64	2.53	132	64.8	0.70	3.1	0.5	58.6	0.3	<0.1
49	57	0.82	...	41.7	0.40	11.1	1.9	63.8	1.2	0.5
n/a	n/a	n/a	...	43.2	0.49	8.3	1.7	62.2	1.1	0.1
93	84	-1.34	1214	95.5	0.97	...	...	...	...	1.8
90	86	-1.25	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
			...	96.8	1.00					0.7
28	70	5.28	...	49.8	0.92	17.0	1.9	38.7	0.7	6.1
23	39	1.94	323	37.4	0.45	16.5	2.5	62.6	1.6	3.6
...	...	...	49	77.2	1.07	...	...	...	...	38.8
19	25	0.75	1298	23.9	0.42	17.1	2.5	64.0	1.6	6.5
48	40	-0.82	...	61.4	0.69	3.2	0.3	65.1	0.2	4.9
...	...	...	46.6	83.2	0.80	...	...	...	...	3.4
19	35	2.05	288	55.7	0.66	8.0	2.8	53.6	1.5	2.8
22	24	0.24	...	39.1	0.66	15.0	2.7	46.2	1.2	6.4
40	70	3.33	56	36.6	0.68	16.6	3.1	51.7	1.6	1.6
16	35	1.90	642	...	...	18.1	2.0	37.2	0.8	...
16	31	1.24	84	38.4	0.43	9.8	1.9	35.0	0.7	2.8
63	58	-1.00	...	82.4	0.86	26.2	6.3	44.2	2.8	15.0
64	69	0.83	146	83.4	1.29	22.2	8.0	40.2	3.2	31.0
34	27	-0.93	729	66.5	0.81	18.8	2.0	54.7	1.1	0.3
30	50	4.00	...	60.1	0.62	19.8	3.6	49.2	1.8	15.0
11	23	1.56	...	25.6	0.45	13.7	2.3	42.1	1.0	1.7
30	36	0.76	1232	44.0	0.48	18.1	2.0	46.4	1.0	13.0
18	20	0.29	1408	16.0	0.36	31.5	2.9	62.0	1.8	...
72	67	-0.53	...	64.0	0.78	9.9	4.6	41.0	1.9	5.8
n/a	n/a	n/a	32	66.8	0.82	32.6	3.2	44.7	1.4	8.9
n/a	37	n/a	236	...	...	30.4	3.5	51.3	1.8	7.0
35	n/a	n/a	2576	57.7	0.67	16.2	1.8	50.5	0.9	2.6
46	59	1.63	3543	75.0	0.79	16.4	1.8	63.0	1.1	7.8
41	63	2.50	64	57.1	0.59	25.6	3.8	48.3	1.8	6.0
39	61	2.21	...	67.0	0.73	30.1	3.2	53.2	1.7	5.0
97	80	-3.4	664	78.2	0.84	12.3	2.3	43.2	1.0	21.5

\* Five criteria were used in selecting the countries: 1. low primary education enrolment/completion rates; 2. Large numbers of out-of-school children (>1 million); 3. low levels of adult literacy; 4. high prevalence of HIV/AIDS (> 5%); and 5) crises/conflicts (or post-conflict situations) and emergency. Besides these criteria, an attempt was made to cover all the developing regions and to include some small countries.

**Box 3.6. Planning for EFA in India**

India began its journey towards the goal of creating a system of mass education freely accessible to all children of the country more than fifty years ago. Considerable progress has been made, but the goal of universal education for all as enshrined in the Indian Constitution has still eluded the country.

**Education for All: some figures for India (1951 and 2002)**

	1951	2002
Literacy rate	18%	65.38%
Female literacy	8.9%	54.16%
<b>Children in school</b>		
Lower primary school GERs, Grades 1–5	42.60%	95%
Girls	24.8%	85%
Upper primary school GERs, Grades 6–8	12.70%	59%
Girls	4.6%	50%
<b>Of 100 children in school</b>		
Boys	86	56
Girls	14	44

With more than thirty constituent states and union territories, India has traditionally had a national government focuses only on broad policy issues. However, the National Policy on Education (1986) gave national government a more proactive role in promoting adult literacy and primary education. Significant improvements were registered during the 1990s. The literacy rate improved from 52.2% to 65.4%. The absolute number of illiterates fell by 32 million. The number of lower primary schools increased by 14% and the upper primary schools by 36%. Altogether, 24.3 million more children entered school, 130,000 new schools opened and 530,000 additional teachers were appointed. The share of girls in total enrolment went from 41% to 44% in primary and from 38% to 40% in upper primary. Expenditure on education in the Government sector went up from 3.84% to 4.11% of GDP.

**Interfacing national action with Dakar goals**

India has been implementing a number of specially designed programmes to move towards universal primary education and eradicating adult illiteracy. For the first time, an attempt has been made to link national and global targets on EFA:

- Early Childhood Care and Education: integrated Child Development Services scheme is being universalized. Estimated cost, US\$3.3 billion 2002–2007.
- Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (Movement for Education for All) aims to provide eight years of quality education to all children in age group 6–14 by 2010. Estimated cost, US\$20 billion.

- A comprehensive plan for adolescents, especially for girls, in the Tenth Five-year Plan.
- National Literacy Mission to provide functional literacy to illiterate adults in the age group 15–35. Achieve sustainable threshold level of 75% literacy by 2005. Estimated cost US\$1.3 billion over 5 years.
- Special schemes targeted at girls, apart from focus on girls in general schemes. Removal of all disparities, including gender, in primary (class I–V) by 2007 and elementary (I–VIII) by 2010.

These targets surpass the international expectations articulated in the Dakar Framework. An urgent requirement is to re-establish public faith in the state-sponsored primary schools and adult literacy programmes by demonstrating effectively functioning institutions that meet the aspirations of society.

**Current EFA strategies**

Strategies for achieving total literacy and universal elementary education focus on several interrelated strategies.

**Decentralization.** The government of India encourages state governments to generate contextualized action plans and supports them through the centrally sponsored programmes of SSA and NLM. The focus is on reaching the unreached through innovative modes of schooling.

**Child labour.** The employment of children in work is viewed as a direct denial of their fundamental right to education. Action from the State has been slow but it has become a major plank of action in several parts of the country due to the significant role played by NGOs. But much greater support from parents and employers will be critical.

**The right to education.** Action has been taken to remove legal hurdles in accessing basic education as a fundamental right. The Indian Constitution has been amended, making basic education a justiciable right in line with the Convention on the Rights of the Child.

**Social mobilization.** Social mobilization and eradicating adult illiteracy through mass literacy campaigns, largely as a national programme but planned and implemented at the district level are being complemented by state governments action such as *jan sampark abhiyan* (people’s contact campaign) of Madhya Pradesh and by civil society organizations such as *prjayatna* (people’s effort) in Karnataka.

**Role of the media.** There is greater coverage of basic education in the media, particularly TV, thereby helping to articulate public perceptions and mobilizing pressure groups, coupled with a move in many states towards ‘right to information’ which has helped place facts related to basic education in public sphere. Many state governments are attempting to use ICT capabilities for this purpose.

**Civil society participation.** NAFFRE (National Alliance for Fundamental Right to Education) has emerged as a coalition to articulate the voice of the civil society in favour of education for all as a fundamental right.

#### EFA planning and monitoring in India

In such a vast country it is not easy to prepare a national plan of action for EFA. Different states are in different situations with respect to the goals of EFA. A genuine national plan will have to take inter-state variations into consideration. The Plan will also have to reflect the perspectives of the civil society organizations which are involved in educational activities on a large scale across the country. Four regional consultations have been conducted to elicit the perspectives of official leadership and NGOs in different states. The states are preparing basic inputs for the EFA plan with concrete reference to the six Dakar EFA goals. It has been proposed that a national consultation should be held involving NGO representatives and professional educators and planners.

An Action Plan prepared only at the behest of the international community could remain a mere statement of intention. Making the plan a credible one and translating it into reality hinge on two factors. First, the international commitments have to converge with national proposals. Second, the political commitment of the national leadership as well as the genuine support of civil society are needed.

Though there has been a heightened level of political and social mobilization in favour of elementary education and literacy activities, are they adequate to reach the goals and targets set by the country? At a formal level, the political leadership has shown its willingness to commit itself to the goal of EFA by placing elementary education as a fundamental right of every citizen of the country. The question remains, however, of when education will rise to the top of the political agenda of the country. India cannot work in a micro-incremental way in its efforts to reach basic education for all, as has been the case during the past fifty years. Change has to be substantial and progress much faster if the aspirations of the people as well as the newly made commitment of pursuing quality basic education as a fundamental right of all citizens are to be met. This will demand a massive movement through political and social mobilization to create a common platform with the sole agenda 'Quality Education For All' as envisaged by Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan as well as the Dakar EFA Framework for Action.

Source: Govinda (2002), EFA in India.

enrolment rates (rather than net enrolment rates or completion rates, which are less ambiguous indicators of progress). Only four countries, The Gambia, Guinea-Bissau, Malawi and Viet Nam, adopt part or all of the gender-related education Millennium Development Goal. Improving levels of adult literacy appears as a goal in ten PRSPs and as key policy action in Ghana, Guyana, Malawi, Mozambique, Rwanda, Uganda and Zambia. Non-formal education features strongly in the PRSPs of Ethiopia and Guinea. Only Rwanda states its intention to operationalize its policies through an EFA Action Plan.

ActionAid finds that there is a strong focus on the quantitative aspects of UPE and a heavy emphasis on inputs. It also finds clear evidence of World Bank policy prescriptions including decentralization, the role of the private sector post-primary education, targeted public subsidies and an emphasis on cost-efficiency. ActionAid (2002) concludes

Unless the optimistic growth and revenue projections in PRSPs are met . . . the education goals will be difficult to finance. The few progress reports that have been produced point to these potential difficulties (for example Uganda's progress report shows several of the education goals to be unrealistic within the original timeframe and budget plans (p. 3).

The Global Monitoring Report survey of sixteen full PRSPs completed up to July 2002 concludes that while education is recognized as a significant dimension of policies to reduce poverty in PRSPs, the absence of standardized, comparable education indicators leads to considerable variation in the depth to which education is reflected. Most of the PRSPs present a mix of access, completion, quality and financial indicators and in some cases disaggregate these by gender, income, and urban and rural dimensions. Mozambique illustrates a clear effort to disaggregate data in this way (see Table 3.3).

Most countries refer to the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) relating to education and/or to the EFA goals in the education strategies within the PRSPs, but they do not necessarily use the EFA goals as the basis for selecting key education outcomes.

**Most countries do not necessarily use the EFA goals as the basis for selecting key education outcomes.**

**Table 3.3. Mozambique: primary-school completion and enrolment, by rural/urban, sex and poverty status**

Education indicators		Rural				Urban				All Mozambique			
		Very poor	Poor	Non-poor	All	Very poor	Poor	Non-poor	All	Very poor	Poor	Non-poor	All
Head of household who completed primary education or higher (%)		9.8	11.1	17.0	13.4	25.4	28.7	58.4	41.9	12.6	14.1	25.3	18.6
Children enrolled, aged 7–11 (%)	M	48.2	50.1	55.9	51.5	52.7	57.9	77.6	65.6	49.1	63.0	75.2	54.5
	F	29.1	32.9	34.4	62.3	47.2	51.8	75.1	61.4	32.3	50.5	66.3	403

Source: Mozambique Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP), 10 January 2001.

The matrix set out in Table 3.4 presents an overview for the sixteen countries on the level of convergence between key education outcomes and MDGs and EFA goals.

Universal Primary Education is clearly delineated in fifteen of the sixteen PRSPs, but only seven countries have retained the EFA goal and the MDG for eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education. Learning

opportunities for youth and adults is ranked second. In a similar exercise for thirty-one of the forty countries listed in Table 3.2, a comparable pattern emerged. Only Malawi, Nepal, Niger, and the Palestinian Autonomous Territories had clear coverage of all six EFA goals. Paradoxically, Niger is the one country that is not listed under UPE in the PRSP survey.

**Table 3.4. EFA and MDG education goals in PRSPs**

Education for All Goals	Millennium Development Goals	Albania	Bolivia	Burkina Faso	Gambia	Guinea	Guyana	Honduras	Mauritania	Mozambique	Nicaragua	Niger	U.R. Tanzania	Uganda	Viet Nam	Yemen	Zambia	Total
Expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children				✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓			✓		✓	8
Ensuring that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality	Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	15
Ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life skills programs		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓		✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	12
Achieving a 50% improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults				✓					✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓			7
Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality	Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005 and to all levels of education no later than 2015				✓	✓				✓		✓	✓			✓	✓	7
Improving all aspects of the quality of education and ensuring excellence of all so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓				✓		✓		✓			9
	<b>Total (average)</b>	3	3	5	4	5	4	2	2	4	4	3	4	3	5	3	4	

In most cases, education goals are set out in very general terms rather than as specific outcomes that can be assessed or measured. The eighteen core EFA indicators that provided the basis for the 2000 EFA Assessment are not widely used and most PRSPs do not have clear timelines to match proposed key education outcomes.

PRSPs map policy actions in key sectors such as education in different ways, usually at a subsector level, but in some cases against broad objectives or themes. Yemen is an example of the former and Nicaragua of the latter (Table 3.5).

There is an enormous array of proposed policy actions, which revolve primarily around increased coverage, improved financing, better governance and management, better quality, increased literacy and improvement in higher education. It is extremely difficult to assess the financial feasibility of education strategies in PRSPs, which in most cases set out a broad global sector or social sector budget. Burkina Faso is unusual in providing detailed costing of its policy actions for education for the first four years of the programme.

Three broad conclusions emerge from these surveys.

- Whether in PRSPs, or EFA sector plans, there is often a failure to develop a clear relationship between the diagnosis of education and poverty on the one hand, and the education outcomes and actions that are proposed in the plans and strategies on the other. A World Bank study of PRSPs and girls' education also suggests a weak linkage between identification of the need and priority actions (Burnett and Winter, 2002).
- There are not enough clearly set intermediate targets.
- While there are broad indications of intentions to increase expenditure on education and improve internal efficiency, there is rarely detailed costing.

### Setting EFA goals and targets

Based on an analysis of the education plans of thirty countries<sup>5</sup> [out of the forty countries in the Global Monitoring Report survey shown in Table 3.2], it is possible to chart the extent to

which governments are setting time-bound EFA targets. As for PRSPs, UPE expressed in terms of enrolment, and, less frequently, completion, receive the most attention. In addition to broad unqualified statements about achieving UPE, all but four of the countries have set specific targets, including intermediate targets. Thus, Mali, intends to achieve 75% primary gross enrolment rates by 2008. Rwanda will increase primary school net enrolment rates from 73% in 2001 to 80% in 2005, to 90% in 2010. Burkina Faso plans to increase the proportion of Grade 1 pupils who will reach the last year of the primary cycle from 60% to 75% by 2010. While in Pakistan, it is forecast that the participation rate of 5- to 9-year-olds should grow from 66% in 2000 to 79% in 2005 to 90% in 2010. A characteristic of these targets is that they predict quite substantial percentage increases over relatively short periods of time. Eritrea projects an annual increase of 10% in primary enrolment rates, Benin plans an increase of 15% points, from 55% to 70%, in the rate of pupils finishing primary school by 2004/05. The assumptions that underpin these projections are rarely provided.

Targets for the elimination of gender disparities are expressed almost entirely in terms of enrolment, with the occasional reference to time-bound targets for increasing the numbers of female teachers, for example, in Ethiopia and Guinea-Bissau. Cambodia, Guinea, United Republic of Tanzania and Yemen have 2005 targets for lessening gender disparities but there is little direct reference to the MDG for eliminating gender disparities or to the gender-related EFA goal. Targets for adult literacy are set primarily in terms of overall literacy rates. There is rarely reference to female literacy although Mali is an exception. The target annual rates of growth are usually much more modest than those set for primary education.

Assessing goals for the achievement of ECCE and for increasing learning opportunities for youth and adults is more difficult. The evaluation of strategies to improve all aspects of educational quality is also far from straightforward. However, in broad terms the survey of national planning documents confirms the pattern of goal coverage set out in the

**In most cases, education goals are set out in very general terms, rather than as specific outcomes that can be assessed or measured.**

5. Benin, Bhutan, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cambodia, Eritrea, Ethiopia, The Gambia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Haiti, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mozambique, Nepal, Niger, Nigeria, Pakistan, Palestinian Autonomous Territories, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Sudan, United Republic of Tanzania, Uganda, Yemen and Zambia.

**Table 3.5. Contrasting approaches to education in the PRSPs of Nicaragua and Yemen**

Nicaragua: Policy actions in education (PRSP)		Yemen: Policy actions in education (PRSP)	
Areas of Intervention	Objectives/Targets	Subsectors	Objectives/Targets
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Increase coverage</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Increase net primary enrolment to 83.4%, from 75% in 1999</li> <li>■ Reduce illiteracy rate to 18% in 2004, from 19% in 1998</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Basic education</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Raise enrolment to 69% by 2005</li> <li>■ Reduce gender gap; promote enrolment of girls</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Improve the quality of education</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Improve the quality of education by improving relevance of teaching</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Vocational training and technical education</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Raise the percentage of those enrolled in vocational training and technical education</li> <li>■ Try to meet the current and future needs of the labour market quantitatively</li> <li>■ Encourage girls and boys as well as children from poor families and remote areas to enrol in vocational and technical fields</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ School decentralization</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Improve participation of families and communities</li> <li>■ Improve financial efficiency and transparency management</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Higher education</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Develop university education to keep pace with advances in science and technology</li> <li>■ Increase percentage of girls to 27% of total students</li> <li>■ Increase specialized science and practical field graduates to 16%</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Improve social protection for school children</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Design and implement interventions for social protection based on specific vulnerability characteristics</li> </ul>		

Source: IDA/IMF, Review of the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) Approach: Early Experiences with Interim PRSPs and Full PRSPs, March 2002.

**It is not possible in the present Report to assess the financial allocations being given to all six Dakar goals.**

analysis of PRSPs (Table 3.4). Even though targets may be set, the extent to which they determine strategy content is less clear.

#### Budgetary allocations for EFA

The Dakar Framework for Action states that national plans:

will address problems associated with the chronic under-financing of basic education by establishing budget priorities that reflect a commitment to achieving EFA goals and targets at the earliest possible date, and no later than 2015 (para 9).

It is not possible in the present Report to assess financial allocations to all six Dakar goals.

the annex tables show, international data on education finance is weak. Furthermore, the absence of data to enable assessment of the education components of the health budgets and of those allocated to ministries such as population and women's affairs, is also limiting.

However, it is possible to gain some insight into the extent to which countries intend to increase the share of their education budgets relative to total public spending or GDP. For thirteen of the forty countries, Table 3.6 suggests that planning

horizons are lengthening – perhaps reflecting the timescale required to achieve many of the educational goals. No very clear pattern can be discerned from this small sample. However, countries working within relatively short time horizons, with severe financing constraints are not well placed to achieve long-term EFA goals.

As regards the proportion of the budget allocated to education, there is marked variation among the thirty-one countries (from the forty) presenting the data. This gives some broad sense of the priority that is accorded to education but says little about key policy reforms.

A better indicator of a government's commitment to EFA is the proportion of the education budget allocated to primary education. As Table 3.8 shows, there are again very considerable variations. It is possible to have a relatively small percentage of the budget for education but accord high priority to primary education within it. For example in Lao PDR, Nepal, Congo DR and Pakistan, education receives a small percentage of the government budget but primary education is clearly a priority.

### Civil society and planning for EFA

One of the strongest messages to emanate from Dakar is the importance of civil society to the achievement of EFA:

Learners, teachers, parents, communities, non-governmental organizations and other bodies representing civil society must be granted new and expanded political and social scope, at all levels of society, in order to engage governments in dialogue, decision-making and innovation around the goals for basic education.

The Dakar Framework for Action contends that governments need to engage with a much broader constellation of people in shaping policy and planning. Creating and sustaining new learning opportunities is dependent upon individual citizens, civil society and non-governmental organizations having a strong role in their design (UNESCO-IBE, 2001). While governments have the primary responsibility for ensuring that people's right to education is honoured, civil society organizations need to be accepted as policy partners.

To what extent is this happening? Has Dakar been instrumental in forging new partnerships? While there is a broad body of evidence on the service provider role of NGOs, the evidence is much more limited as regards the engagement of civil society in policy dialogue and planning. However, important work is underway by international and regional coalitions and networks such as CCNGO, ASPBEA and the Global March for the Elimination of Child Labour in charting progress and identifying innovative and productive ways of working, as well as the barriers to genuine participation. Evidence for changes in relationships between government and civil society actors is difficult to assess from official documents. So, the results from the survey of plans conducted by the Global Monitoring Report are supplemented by reference to both the work of funding agencies and the research literature.<sup>6</sup>

Participatory planning is a political, institutional and social process. Two issues should be kept in mind. First, it is important to know where the entry points are for an individual citizen to become involved in the process of setting of

**Table 3.6.**  
Time horizons and stated intentions to increase budgetary allocations

Time from 1999 to target date	Increase in percentage points	
	Increase the share of education in the government budget by more than 4 points	Increase the share of education in the government budget by less than 4 points
More than five years	Yemen (2005)* Mali (2008)* Malawi (2012) Burkina Faso (2010) Cambodia (2005)* Lao PDR (2020)* Bangladesh (2015)*	Niger (no date)* Mauritania (2015) Guinea (2005)*
Less than five years	Zambia (2002)* Madagascar (2002/03) Guinea-Bissau (2004)	Pakistan (2003/4) Nepal (2004)

\* Countries that have set clear targets within their policies and plans for the achievement of UPE.

Source: Table 3.2 in this chapter and EFA Monitoring Report 2002 survey.

education priorities. Constitutional and legal rights to education represent an important indicator of what may be possible for civil society engagement. Second, there are ways in which 'spaces' to participate are available or have been created. These may be the 'traditional' spaces afforded by governments and the less formal, more autonomous 'spaces' created outside of government (Brock, Cornwall and Gaventa, 2001).

In some countries, broader governance and development reforms have established new policy processes in which civil society can participate. Much has been written about the influence that decentralization has had in participatory processes. One analysis (Schonwalder, 1997) highlights a pragmatic approach whereby decentralization is a policy tool, an approach that relies on organizations and intermediaries that operate between the state and local communities. In other words decentralization is a *technical* and administrative process. Whereas, a *political* approach to decentralization has a much broader meaning. It has the potential to open up new channels for participation in the political system and offers new avenues for direct participation. It is to both approaches that The Dakar Framework for Action refers, but the spirit and intention of EFA is directed towards the latter.

6. Evidence on the participatory processes in the development of PRSPs suggests that considerable caution should be exercised in drawing substantive conclusions on the basis of the process described in government documents (McGee and Norton, 2000). Donnelly-Roark et al., (2001).

**Table 3.7. Share of government budgets allocated to education**

Education receives more than 20% of the government budget	Education receives between 10% and 20% of the government budget	Education receives less than 10% of the government budget
Kenya, Lesotho, Niger, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Togo, Uganda	Benin, Burkina Faso, Cambodia, Ethiopia, Gambia, Guinea, Haiti, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mozambique, Sudan, United Republic of Tanzania, Yemen, Zambia	Bangladesh, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Eritrea, Guinea-Bissau, Lao Peoples Democratic Republic, Nepal, Nigeria, Pakistan

Source: Table 3.2 in this chapter.

**Table 3.8. Allocations to primary education**

> 55%	45%–55%	< 45%
Benin, Burkina Faso, Dem. Rep. of Congo, Lao PDR, Nepal, Niger, Pakistan, U. R. Tanzania	Bangladesh, Cambodia, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Gambia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritania, Mozambique, Sierra Leone, Sudan, Togo, Uganda, Yemen	Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Haiti, Kenya, Lesotho, Mali, Nigeria, Rwanda, Zambia

Source: Table 3.2 in this chapter.

**In Mali, the decentralization process in the education sector includes wide consultation and dialogue at community level.**

There is a range of examples of opportunities provided by government to enable formal consultation to take place. In Mali, the decentralization process in the education sector has included wide consultation and dialogue at community level. This has provided opportunities to clarify roles and responsibilities. In The Gambia, regional consultations on the outcomes of the EFA 2000 assessment and the World Education Forum have taken place. Key documents have been translated into local languages. Consultations have been held across the country including meetings with young people. The Cambodian Government has created a broad-based National EFA Committee that involves NGOs on a consultative basis.

Less common are examples – at least from the evidence of government documents – where more autonomous dialogue and engagement of civil society is an integral element of educational planning in a regular and sustainable way. In Ghana, a national coalition of NGOs and civil society groups campaigns for basic education of good quality for Ghanaian children, irrespective of gender, ethnicity and geographical location. The campaign acts as a pressure group on the government, urging the Ministry of Education and the Ghana Education Service to keep their promise for education reform, free and compulsory universal basic education and

Education for All. It is involved in policy dialogue at the national level and carries out research and advocacy activities (UNESCO-IBE, 2001). Burkina Faso offers another example of where a move is taking place in the direction of regular and ongoing engagement (Box 3.7).

In Bhutan, community participation encompasses not only the building and maintenance of school facilities (especially in rural areas), but extends to the development of non-formal education programmes built around community-learning centres. School head-teachers and elders from the community are responsible for the planning and management of the literacy programmes. There are possibilities for government to incorporate this type of 'autonomous space' activity in a formal and sustainable process of decentralization.

The evidence so far available suggests that the Dakar challenge has been met with a mixed response and that the 'technical' approach is more prevalent than the 'political'. The extent to which these different forms of dialogue are connected in the processes of policy development and planning is difficult to track. For civil society engagement to expand, a strong sense of what constitutes a *good planning process* is needed (McGee and Norton, 2001). In addition, more 'spaces' are needed to allow review as a matter of course, rather than as part of the occasional consultation.

Furthermore, in many countries, international partner agencies are increasingly seeking to provide development assistance through central and sector budget support where domestic policies are judged to reflect a 'credible' national consensus resulting the engagement of civil society.

**The balance sheet two years on from Dakar**

So, what is the balance sheet two years after Dakar? The answer is that the full account has not yet been compiled. However, if the expected outcome was a set of finely honed National EFA Plans, providing the basis for an early dialogue with international agencies for enhanced levels of funding, then this expectation has not been met. If, on the other hand Dakar is assessed in

terms of injecting some urgency and some EFA focus into the education and development planning process, then there is some evidence to suggest that this is happening. The available database does not support a clearer or stronger conclusion.

In some cases, EFA planning appears to run the risk of duplicating or running parallel with existing planning processes. It is important to ensure that systems with scarce technical capacity do not follow this path. It is also necessary for EFA to be argued strongly and energetically across national planning processes. As Chapter 1 has demonstrated, the case for EFA is a strong one, but EFA must not create a fence around itself. It is a national priority that cuts across many dimensions of social and economic development.

## Planning for HIV/AIDS

The extent to which schools and other education institutions are able to continue functioning as part of the essential infrastructure of societies and communities will influence how well societies eventually recover from the epidemic (UNAIDS, 2002d).

The scale of the HIV/AIDS pandemic is set out in stark terms in the *Report on the Global HIV/AIDS Epidemic*: 40 million adults and children live with HIV/AIDS, 28.5 million in sub-Saharan Africa. Some 14 million children up to and including the age of 14 have lost one or both of their parents; 508 thousand children died from AIDS in 2001. It follows then that for countries where the impact of HIV/AIDS is high, there are major challenges in planning for, and sustaining progress towards, the attainment of EFA goals.

In 14 of the 29 countries shown in Table 3.2 for which there is HIV/AIDS data, over 5% of 15–49-year-olds live with HIV/AIDS. The impact is highest in Southern Africa. In Botswana, the figure is 38.8%, in Zambia, 21.5% and in Lesotho, 30%. In the 29 countries together, nearly 22 million children and adults live with HIV/AIDS: 3.9 million in India, 3.5 million in Nigeria and 2.1 million in Ethiopia. This is more than 50% of the global total.

The most visible demographic impact of the HIV/AIDS epidemic is the growth in the number of orphans (Kelly, 2000). In the Democratic Republic of the Congo it is estimated that nearly 1 million children (aged 0–14) are AIDS orphans. In Uganda, the figure is 810,000 and in Zambia, it is well over half a million. Based on a study of 34 countries (26 in Africa), one estimate suggests that by 2010 there will be 44 million orphans. Of these, 70% of those who have lost their mother or both parents will be orphans of the impact of HIV/AIDS (Hunter and Williamson, 2000). A global estimate predicts that the number of orphans will continue to rise for at least the next decade. Today's prevalence rates will largely determine the geography of orphans for the next ten years

### Box 3.7. Improving civil society engagement in planning for EFA: Burkina Faso

Burkina Faso has a long history of including its local-level institutions in governance. In the early 1980s, a policy of participatory development was launched to promote the systematic involvement of all communities in planning processes across sectors. However, the relationship between civil society and the military was not conducive to a genuine process of participation (Bangura, 1999). Then, the new democracy of the 1990s opened the door for more plural politics. In 1995, a Dialogue Framework in Basic Education (*Cadre de concertation en éducation de base au Burkina Faso*, CCEB/BF) began a process for civil society engagement in educational planning. To start with, the NGOs that operated in the education sector were identified to facilitate better coordination of their activities. This process evolved into a 'space' where NGOs and other bodies had the opportunity to become more involved in planning for EFA. However, while structures have been developed, the quality of civil society involvement in the planning process has not been totally productive.

Neither citizens nor government have found it easy to reflect fully the views of citizens in major forums and meetings (GREFCO, 2001). But in April 2000, the Ministry of Education (MEBA) established committees that included CSOs and NGOs as part of a nationwide consultation process. Committees at the national, regional and provincial level, comprising a broad spectrum of civil society and public institutions, worked to develop the Ten-Year Plan for the Development of Basic Education (*Plan décennal de développement de l'éducation de base*, PDDEB). This Plan now sits within the wider objectives of the United Nations Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF) and the PRSP (GREFCO, 2001). With inter-agency cooperation these development frameworks are being integrated and EFA goals included within them.

Education reforms that encourage plurality are still taking root, slowly modifying the forms of engagement between civil society and the state at lower levels of authority. This process is foreseen as a basis for sustainable and community-driven education planning (Donnelly-Roark et al., 2001).

Sources: Bangura (1999), GREFCO (2001), and NSSD, Burkina Faso: Planning Framework, <http://www.nssd.net/country/burkina/bfo2.htm>

Ministries and institutions are losing skilled and experienced staff who are difficult – sometimes even impossible – to replace, due to HIV/AIDS.

(UNICEF/UNAIDS/USAID, 2002). While the numbers say something about the scale of the pandemic, they cannot convey the real story of being an orphan and the poverty of the life which young children are forced to live (Box 3.8).

So, in systems that in many cases already require radical sector reforms and significantly increased levels of resources for education, the challenge of planning to achieve EFA is complicated and compounded by HIV/AIDS.

The HIV/AIDS pandemic impacts on learning opportunities and education systems in a myriad of ways. Enrolments fall. Orphans become children out-of-school. The gender gap widens. Schools are unable to function effectively so the quality of learning deteriorates. Resources are diverted from education to meet the demands being placed on the health and welfare services. Ministries and institutions lose skilled and experienced staff that are difficult and sometimes impossible to replace.

The impact on teachers deserves particular attention. An estimated 860,000 children lost their teachers to AIDS in sub-Saharan Africa in 1999. The World Bank refers to recent research that suggests that teachers are affected in the same proportion as adults in general, sickness evolves over ten years and, on average, during that period, teachers are absent for 260 days (World Bank, 2002a). However some evidence emerging from Southern Africa suggests that mortality rates among teachers may be lower than that of the general adult population and that within the profession, rates vary according to gender, qualifications, marital status and location (Bennell et al., 2002).

What then is needed to plan and implement strategies that can sustain and strengthen education in the face of the pandemic and prevent the further spread of HIV/AIDS? What are the dimensions of the task and how should they be addressed?

Hyde suggests that an understanding of the complex relationships between HIV/AIDS and education has developed quite rapidly in the last few years but that the number of detailed local and country studies on HIV/AIDS and education still remains small (Hyde et al, 2002). For nearly

two decades, the response of the education sector to HIV/AIDS has been muted and fragmented. Now, there is a clearer understanding that for a growing number of countries, HIV/AIDS is not just an additional factor that needs to be accommodated in educational planning and practice (e.g. Bennell et al., 2002; Coombe, 2000; ID21 website; Kelly, 2000; UNICEF, 2002c; Whiteside, 2000; World Bank, 2002b). It is now a fact of life that requires that every policy, procedure and activity should be re-worked and rethought within an AIDS-centred policy framework. This in turn requires a major shift in the mindset and the process of educational planning. Kelly identifies nine policy development and planning imperatives:

- mainstream HIV/AIDS across the education sector;
- keep the education system functioning;
- adopt prevention, care and support as basic principles to guide system and institution interventions and programmes;
- keep the curriculum under constant review to ensure that it is relevant in a world with HIV/AIDS;
- ensure that the needs of the poorest and those in difficult circumstances are met;
- address the gender inequalities that fuel HIV/AIDS;
- build capacity for the management and control of the epidemic;
- promote community participation and support; and
- work multi-sectorally and with a wide range of partners.

This list embraces quite fundamental processes, many of which lie at the heart of education reform but take on added significance within a framework of education and HIV/AIDS. Strategic planning which integrates all relevant government structures is needed to protect and sustain systems and to develop measures for achieving EFA within the framework of AIDS (Kelly, 2002; Bennell et al., 2002).

Two years after Dakar there are good examples of efforts that are being made to plan for education in the context of HIV/AIDS, although

the 40-country survey does not suggest that planning for EFA within a national AIDS framework is a reality in most countries with high prevalence rates. But Botswana, Thailand and Uganda provide examples of countries that are taking the task seriously.

**Botswana** has one of the highest HIV/AIDS prevalence rates in the world. In the past three years there has been a discernible change in the approach of the Botswana government to the HIV/AIDS pandemic stimulated in part by the launch of the Botswana Human Development Report for 2000, which demonstrates very clearly the decline in human development performance and in the rates of increase in the level of GDP as a result of HIV/AIDS (UNDP, 2000). The report is the product of a strong upstream research partnership between the Government and UNDP.

HIV/AIDS has been declared a national crisis, resulting in the creation of a National Aids Coordinating Agency (NACA). This is the secretariat for the National AIDS Council that is chaired by the President of Botswana. NACA is charged with responsibility for mobilizing and coordinating a multi-sectoral approach to HIV/AIDS. One result of this approach is that a full education sector review has been instituted, backed by research and assisted by external agencies. One study has assessed the impact of HIV/AIDS on primary and secondary schooling (Bennell et al., 2001) and its summary findings are set out in Box 3.9. These findings have policy implications for sex and health education in the curriculum, school and community welfare services, and teacher support and management.

In **Thailand** the situation is different. There has been research on HIV/AIDS stretching over nearly twenty years. After experiencing escalating infection rates in the 1980s, Thailand initiated a comprehensive prevention programme. This included the 100% condom programme targeted at brothels; broad-based awareness activities, which involved many sectors of society; and strong human rights protection measures. By the end of the 1990s, the number of new infections had fallen by 80% from the levels prevalent prior to the national prevention programme (Global Action Group Prevention website).

### Box 3.8. The characteristics of orphanhood: Zomba, Malawi

#### Zomba, Malawi<sup>1</sup>

There are three cycles of deprivation associated with orphanhood. The poor give birth to children who are likely to become poor, orphans procreate children likely to become orphans, and HIV-positive parents produce children likely to become HIV-positive. The poverty and exclusion associated with girl orphans is a significant feature of this deprivation. Orphans have little food, few clothes, no bedding and no soap. The hunger and social exclusion that result undermine school attendance and lead to further social exclusion. Many orphans are socially excluded and feel disillusioned and desperate.

Some elements of community provision that work well include distribution of food and clothing, and support. Less successful are fund-raising or provision of education (chiefly vocational), school fees and food. As a whole, community care is overwhelmed by the numbers, and is breaking down. Vocational education is in great demand by both orphans and those who care for them.

#### AIDS orphans<sup>2</sup>

The increase in numbers of AIDS orphans is stretching the capacity of families and societies at large. In many cases, the extended family is finding it extremely difficult to cope economically and psychologically with the numbers that is required to absorb. Few orphans are able to pay their school and training fees. Many have to care for others in the home where they live. Many have to work to support themselves or younger siblings dependent on them. Many carry responsibilities well beyond their capabilities as children. Some are so traumatized by what they have experienced when their family member died of AIDS that they cannot learn. A significant number are at risk of contracting HIV/AIDS through virtually inescapable income-generating prostitution.

Most of these orphans are excluded from the joy and gaiety of a normal childhood. Economically and psychologically, they have needs that differ from those of other children in school, needs to which the school must necessarily respond.

Source: 1. McBride (2002), reported in *ID21*, <http://www.id21.org/>, (August 2002); 2. Kelly (2000).

Adult prevalence rates are now below 2% although 670,000 adults and children continue to live with HIV/AIDS and there are 290,000 orphans. So while prevalence rates have fallen there remains concern for localized epidemics and children and young adults (World Bank, 2002b). Interventions are needed to strengthen and, where necessary, re-orient education and training programmes. This requires strong partnerships across government ministries, NGOs, community organizations, and the business sector, to ensure good programme coverage and a sufficiency of resources to reduce risks among the young.

Schools provide a strong base for teaching sex education but significant education challenges remain, which are being assessed and planned for by a number of ministries. The Department of Health is promoting wider public acceptance of sex education as a necessary part of life. Together with the Department of Mental Health,

**Botswana has one of the highest HIV/AIDS prevalence rates in the world.**

**Box 3.9. Research on HIV/AIDS and education in Botswana**

**Research findings**

- A sharp drop in teenage pregnancy and sexually transmitted diseases since the mid-1990s, but the HIV prevalence rate among pregnant girls aged 15–19 remains high – 28.6% in 1998 and 25.3% in 2000.
- Sexual relationships are reported to be common in secondary schools. The ‘integration and infusion’ of HIV/AIDS topics into the primary and secondary school curriculum has not produced the desired changes in sexual behaviour.
- Double orphans account for 10% of children in Botswana, a figure projected to reach 35% to 40% by 2010. Orphans from the poorest households generally have the most problems with their education, although the overall attendance of orphans at school is surprisingly good.
- Mortality rates among teaching and other Ministry of Education staff are currently at least one-half the overall adult mortality rate. Teacher mortality currently accounts for one-third of all attrition, and is highest among male primary teachers.
- Teacher absenteeism is not generally perceived to be a serious problem at most schools, but at least one teacher was reported to be ‘persistently’ ill at each of the survey schools.
- Detailed demographic projections show that the school-age population will be 30% smaller in 2010 than it would have been without AIDS.

Source: Excerpt from *ID21* (2002), summary; Bennell et al. (2002).

guidelines are being prepared for a sex-education curriculum across the formal education system. These include human development, sexual health, sexual behaviour, personal skills, and social, cultural and gender issues. This framework enables the Ministry of Education to develop the detailed school curriculum. Additionally, government agencies and NGOs that provide counselling services are encouraged to network and coordinate their work, share their knowledge and experiences and strengthen the referral system. Box 3.10 provides an interesting example of a response by Buddhist monks.

HIV/AIDS was first recognized in Uganda in 1982. By 1993, the country had the highest prevalence rates in the world. Now, it is one of very few countries to have succeeded in reversing the epidemic. President Museveni announced recently that prevalence rates were down to 6.1% from 30% in 1990, with the most noticeable decline being in the 15–29 age group.

The Uganda AIDS Commission was established in 1992 under the Office of the President to coordinate national strategies. Its work has been characterized by a multi-sectoral approach involving a wide range of stakeholders backed by open political commitment at the highest level

of the Government (UNFPA, 2001). HIV/AIDS programmes are integrated within the country’s revised Poverty Eradication Action Plan and HIV/AIDS has a special vote in the national budget (UNDP, 2001).

Under the national poverty reduction strategy, civil society is engaged in the development of the Education Sector Investment Plan (ESIP) that together with support for the networks of People Living with HIV/AIDS has promoted a strong coalition of involvement with HIV prevention programmes. New alliances and coalitions, often with NGOs at their centre, have opened up opportunities for people living with HIV/AIDS to influence policy debate and reduce discrimination and stigma. There is now a public voice able to influence policy frameworks and legal systems in order to eliminate practices that discriminate against those living with HIV/AIDS.

Within the context of Uganda’s National Strategic Framework and Action Plan for HIV/AIDS and its own sector planning, the Ministry of Education and Sports has set out nine major objectives for combating HIV/AIDS over a five year period:

- develop and implement effective policies for the sector;
- intensify advocacy efforts for children’s rights and needs in the context of AIDS;
- incorporate HIV/AIDS into the curriculum, across all education institutions and non-formal venues;
- promote skills-based teacher training in colleges;
- promote AIDS education, counselling and health services support at educational institutions at all levels;
- foster the welfare of AIDS orphans;
- build partnerships with community and non-governmental organizations, and undertake joint activities and
- encourage research on various aspects of HIV/AIDS and its impact on education and related sectors; and
- promote joint planning, coordination, monitoring and evaluation of HIV/AIDS activities in the education sector (Malinga, 2000).

These broad objectives have been translated into a set of quantifiable goals. For example, by 2005–06, at least 90% of teacher-training collectives will have introduced skills-based modules on HIV/AIDS into their programmes. By the same year, at least 50% of educational institutions will have introduced welfare and support schemes for HIV/AIDS orphans, 80% of the institutions will have started HIV/AIDS counselling and health services, and at least five major research studies on education and HIV/AIDS will be underway.

The action plan utilizes a wide variety of communication strategies. These include workshops, training kits and modules, competitions for best article or performance, the use of radio, video and television, lobbying and outreach activities, T-shirts and trophies, curriculum redesign, press campaigns, national debates, parental involvement and joint projects with community organizations.

These three countries demonstrate the value and importance of education policies and plans for HIV/AIDS that are clearly part of a wider and well-integrated national effort that is designed to create and build close relationships across groups, communities, associations and faiths. This national effort has to deal with the impact of the disease on key national institutions including strategies for personnel and human resource support, re-training and replacement. It needs good research and the means to use and communicate the findings. It is also critical that strategies are gender sensitive. All of these needs and plans have their costs, an issue which is explored in Chapter 4.

There is a growing international resource, on which those charged with policy development and planning responsibilities can draw: the newly established UNAIDS Inter-Agency Task Team on Education. This now involves eight agencies including UNDP, UNDCP, UNESCO, UNFPA, UNICEF and WHO. The Team is developing a strategic framework which takes as its starting point the UNGASS Declaration of Commitment on HIV/AIDS which sets the target of reducing HIV infection among 15–24-year-olds by 25% in the most affected countries by 2005 and globally by 2010. It calls on governments to develop by

### Box 3.10. The Sangha Metta project in Thailand

The Sangha Metta Project engages Buddhist monks in HIV/AIDS prevention and care. It was initiated by the monks themselves who wished to take a more active role in HIV/AIDS prevention and care. Taking the Buddha's teachings as their inspiration, the monks concluded that a core aspect of HIV/AIDS was ignorance about the condition among both the sufferers and the general public.

#### Home visits

In line with their traditional role as teachers, the monks decided they could teach both groups about the realities of HIV/AIDS. The project teaches monks, nuns and novices about HIV/AIDS. It equips them with modern participatory social management skills and tools so that they can work effectively in their communities to prevent further HIV transmission and to help families living with HIV/AIDS. A crucial part of training is close contact between monks and sufferers, which includes monks having to accept and eat alms food prepared by people with HIV/AIDS. Sensitized in such basic ways they are soon able to work freely with affected people.

#### Young novices

In strong contrast with their formal roles, project-trained monks have become active in community work. Using Buddhist ethics as their guideline, they now teach villagers how to avoid high-risk behaviour, help to set up support groups, train people with HIV/AIDS in handicrafts, donate their alms and take care of AIDS orphans. Because local people are accustomed to telling monks their troubles, the latter have become a conduit for identifying many secret HIV+ people who, once identified, can be referred to support groups and public assistance programmes. 'HIV-friendly' temples encourage these people to participate in community activities. They also provide training in meditation as well as grow and dispense herbal medicines in collaboration with local hospitals. This more active role among monks is strengthening trust between them and the people. It is also developing community potential and encouraging greater grass roots participation in solving problems at the local level. Because the project has given monks a way to become actively involved in their communities, something they have always wanted, it is spreading rapidly into other regions of Thailand, as well as neighbouring countries such as Lao People's Democratic Republic, Myanmar, Cambodia, Southern China, Viet Nam, Mongolia and Bhutan.

Source: Taken from Buddha Dharma Education Association website.  
<http://www.buddhanet.net/sangha-metta/project.html>

2003 and implement by 2005, national strategies to provide a supportive environment for orphans and children infected and affected by HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS, 2002a).

A new World Bank strategy document (World Bank, 2002b) concludes that providing a basic education to children and especially equal opportunity for girls, is among the most promising directions in responding to HIV/AIDS. Long-term strategic planning, school-based prevention programmes, peer education and a focus on youth, support for orphans and out of school youth, multi-media campaigns and strong partnerships, national and international, are all seen as essential.

**Box 3.11. Alliance of mayors and municipal leaders on HIV/ AIDS in Africa**

In 1997, during the Tenth International Conference on STD/AIDS (Abidjan, Côte d'Ivoire), an Alliance of Mayors Initiative for Community Action on AIDS at the Local Level (AMICAALL) was established to promote an expanded, multisectoral response to the HIV/AIDS epidemic. It was designed to provide concrete examples of how local governments, working in partnership with civil society and local communities, could translate principles and goals into actions. The Alliance strategy is inclusive (involving a broad range of stakeholders), responsive (reacting to locally articulated needs and brokering dialogue among local people, municipalities, policy-makers and decision-makers), gender sensitive (responding to the different experiences of men and women in terms of vulnerability, response and impact), and dynamic (local action informs national policy which in turn supports a more enabling environment for sustained responses; strengthened management and financial systems at the local level provide the foundations for scaling up responses to the epidemic). It develops mechanisms to facilitate rapid disbursement of funds to communities in need and to help countries diversify their sources of funding to address the epidemic. Additionally, action-oriented monitoring and reporting tools are also being developed to promote understanding of what is working, and what is not, and to make the necessary adjustments.

This Alliance is part of a broader International Partnership against AIDS in Africa, where actors who have chosen to work together to achieve a shared vision for scaling up efforts in Africa to curtail the spread of HIV, reduce its impact and halt the further reversal of human, social and economic development.

*Source:* From Alliance of Mayors and Municipal Leaders on HIV/AIDS in Africa's Website (2002); UNAIDS (2002b); UNAIDS Policy Notes.

Funded by USAID, and founded by the University of Natal in 2000, The Southern Africa Mobile Task Team on HIV/AIDS in Education (MTT) assists ministries of education to develop strategic planning responses to mitigate the impact of HIV/AIDS on education. A rather different example of an international partnership is the Alliance of Mayors and Municipal Leaders on HIV/AIDS in Africa (Box 3.11).

All of this suggests a growing understanding that planning to achieve the EFA goals must take account of HIV/AIDS and that the HIV/AIDS pandemic will not be addressed in the absence of progress towards the EFA goals. Nevertheless, for most countries, while the importance of HIV/AIDS is acknowledged, it is still treated as one problem requiring stand-alone educational activities rather than recognizing its place at the heart of educational planning.

## Planning to combat conflict, disaster and instability

Education is probably the best tool for defusing many of the problems exacerbating and perpetuating crisis situations (Vargas-Baron, 2001).

The Dakar Framework for Action is clear:

Conflicts, instability and natural disasters take their toll on education and are a major barrier towards attaining Education for All. The capacity of governments and civil society should be enhanced to rapidly assess educational needs in contexts of crisis and post conflict situations for children and adults, to restore learning opportunities in secure and friendly environments, and to reconstruct destroyed or damaged education systems.

As with HIV/AIDS, many countries are grappling with crisis and emergency (see also Chapter 4, section entitled 'Education in Emergencies'). One estimate suggests that seventy-three countries have an internal crisis or are engaged in post-crisis reconstruction. At the beginning of the new millennium, there were armed conflicts in fifty countries, at least thirty countries have large refugee populations from neighbouring states, and another fifteen countries were afflicted by natural disasters (Talbot, 2002a; Vargas-Baron, 2001).

UNESCO's International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) has created the Global HIV/AIDS Impact on Education Clearing House that provides access to comparative information on formal and non-formal systems and experience of measures to cope with, as well as curb, the pandemic. UNICEF too has been active in this field, in addressing the needs of young people (UNICEF, 2002c) and orphans (UNICEF/UNAIDS/USAID, 2002).

A growing number of international partnerships can assist with planning and programming. In partnership with DFID, IIEP and Partnership for Child Development, the World Bank is working with educational planners in Africa on the new Ed-SIDA/AIDS planning tool, designed to quantify the impact of HIV/AIDS on education supply and demand. Mapping this relationship makes it possible to estimate the number of teachers needed to meet the EFA goals in the context of HIV/AIDS. UNESCO, UNICEF, WHO, the World Bank and Education International are also working with other agencies in support of school-based prevention programmes using the FRESH framework (Focusing Resources on Effective School Health).

**The HIV/AIDS pandemic will not be addressed in the absence of progress towards the EFA goals.**

The challenge is complex: in the midst of conflict, insecurity and instability, how can education be kept alive and contribute to the realization of sustainable peace? In countries with severe humanitarian emergencies there are major internal displacements of people. How can the educational needs of people living in camps and settlements be met? Many refugees move to neighbouring countries – some 500,000 in 2001 alone. How can host nations, many of whom are confronted with major educational challenges of their own, act as hospitable and effective educational hosts? And what are the most effective ways of rebuilding education systems after conflict and disaster? Nearly half a million people returned to their home countries in 2001.

Planning and developing workable strategies for EFA in these contexts is very demanding (Box 3.12). But it is essential to help:

- meet the psychosocial needs of crisis-affected populations;
- provide a channel for disseminating survival messages and developing skills for conflict resolution and peace building;
- prepare for reconstruction and social and economic development;
- provide protection from harm particularly for children; and
- promote personal development and readiness for responsible citizenship (Sinclair, forthcoming).

Afghanistan, Kosovo, Argentina, the Palestinian Autonomous Territories and East Timor are five countries and territories living with conflict or crisis, or engaged with reconstruction after years of trauma and destabilization. While their experience makes clear that conflict and its resolution is context specific, there are lessons to be learned and shared regarding approaches to planning for EFA.

**Afghanistan** is confronted with enormous challenges. It has some of the worst education indicators in the world. A recent needs assessment concluded:

The Afghan education system has been undermined by twenty-three years of war, by widespread physical destruction, by restructuring under a

### Box 3.12. Education in emergency: challenges to ministries of education

The onset of an emergency brings enormous challenges to an education system. Physical infrastructure is frequently destroyed or damaged, with school buildings often unavailable. Textbooks, reading materials, syllabi and teachers' guides may be destroyed or scarce. Children, parents and teachers may have witnessed terrible scenes of barbarity or may even themselves have inflicted violence on others. Even if people have not personally experienced the horrors of war and conflict, the fact of forced displacement to another country or region is profoundly destabilizing. Moreover, the education of children who are not displaced may be severely disrupted, as attention and resources are diverted to military or security purposes. Those who take up teaching in refugee or internally displaced camps may be unqualified and unable to cope with teaching in an unfamiliar, perturbing setting. A desperate need at the beginning of an emergency is to provide safe, structured activities for children, to help re-establish a routine of normality in their lives.

When an emergency occurs, national ministry of education managers and planners often find themselves unprepared to deal with the situation. These officials frequently feel demoralized and marginalized during emergencies, as bilateral, multilateral and non-governmental actors commonly take much of the initiative to meet the needs of populations affected by crises. The international agencies have far greater material and human resources. Ministry officials can find themselves lacking in confidence, capacity, skills, resources, credibility and even authority. There is also a tendency, in complex emergencies, for governments to assign provision of services to beneficiaries, often including education, to security-oriented ministries, leaving the technical staff of the line ministries in a weak position. Information and statistics about refugees and internally displaced persons are often fragmentary and inaccurate. Usually there is no coordinated system for collection of data on refugee or displaced students receiving assistance from different sources. As a population moves towards return, pressure may quite suddenly come upon the Education Ministry to plan and implement massive educational projects, after months or years of comparative neglect by the international community. This can cause reconstruction efforts to be hobbled from the start.

Source: From Talbot (2002).

communist regime, and by its use as a political and religious pawn by succeeding governments. The concept of secular education has been under constant attack for decades – first as a source of foreign ideas that led to the communist takeover and then by the Taliban who banned education for girls entirely, and promoted and expanded the system of religious schools at the expense of secular schools. As the school year started in March 2002, the capacity to supply education has been decimated in both quantity and quality (ADB, 2002).

The Assessment goes on to state that

a revitalized education system can contribute significantly to resolving many of Afghanistan's daunting problems. Education is a key ingredient to rebuilding Afghanistan, igniting progress in all other development sectors. Education will build the human and social capital needed for economic development as well as serve as a key vehicle for promoting peace, stability and social cohesion. In short it will develop a sense of nationhood.

**In the midst of conflict, insecurity and instability, how can education be kept alive and contribute to the realization of sustainable peace?**

Argentina is in the middle of a deep-seated economic crisis that started in 1998.

Some broad key principles for initial investment have been agreed:

- rapid mobilization to reinstate basic education, with a goal of enrolling 1.5 million children in 2002 and at least 2 million children by 2003;
- equitable distribution of assistance so that resources reach the provinces as well as Kabul, and rural as well as urban areas;
- meeting recurring costs of the system, particularly teacher salaries;
- promoting girls' education to remedy past injustices;
- maintaining a balance between subsectors, based on demand, supply, and the contribution to national development;
- linking education and vocational training to practical skills that will lead to jobs; and
- capacity building of Afghan institutions.

International assistance is being provided throughout 2002 to support the development of a comprehensive sector strategy that will be the basis for an investment plan. UNESCO has been instrumental in helping to draw up a ten-point plan of action with the Ministry of Education. But translating these principles into action will require a concerted international effort.<sup>7</sup>

Kosovo illustrates many of the political, policy and practical problems that arise in post-conflict reconstruction of education provision (Talbot, 2002b). Concerns about ethnic identity and government legitimacy dominate the debate on education. The Serb minority disputes the legitimacy of the new Kosovo Government in the education sector. These tensions restrict rational planning and education reform. While there is a general commitment to a multi-ethnic system that recognizes cultural pluralism and minority rights, the detailed working out of that principle remains highly problematic. Languages pose a particular problem: the principle of mother tongue language is accepted but there are objections to a proposal that all students should learn Albanian.

Argentina is in the middle of a deep-seated economic crisis that started in 1998. This has caused increased levels of poverty, unemployment and open violence, including

in schools. Drug consumption among young people has increased. More than a hundred private schools have been closed, as middle class parents are unable to pay fees. Children from these families have emigrated to public schools where public school students have been dropping out of school altogether because of the increasing incidence of poverty. Many children look for work to supplement family income, while many families now find it impossible to buy textbooks or meet the cost of school transport.

Falling enrolment has lowered the demand for teachers, so teachers launched a campaign to try to persuade students back to school. UNICEF joined the campaign, as did Argentina's professional footballers. But for the education authorities, the necessity has been to focus on the short term and address immediate issues, as the budgetary allocation to education has become squeezed. For example, the provincial government in Buenos Aires province has cancelled all school scholarships.

Nepal is another country beset by conflict and more recently by a major economic downturn (Box 3.13).

The provisional Five-year Education Plan for the **Palestinian Autonomous Territories** for the years 2001–2005 identifies three major priorities: maintenance of enrolment levels for basic education in the face of a possible 30% increase in the population of primary school age children, expanded enrolment at the secondary level from 56% to 68%, and an improvement in the quality of education. It elaborates a framework of priorities against a backdrop of almost universal basic education, fiscal sustainability at current levels of provision and recognition of the need to involve civil society in enhancing the quality of education. An important objective is better coordinated donor support given a heavy dependence on investment funding by external agencies.

With the advent of the second Intifada, and civil strife in the West Bank and Gaza, there has been a significant loss of revenue and a consequent decline in public services. Budget shortfalls are being met in part by emergency donor support but non-salary costs are being squeezed. As a

7. The nature of this international support is elaborated further in Chapter 4.

result, education has been hit hard. Damage to schools, curfews and frequent closures reduce learning opportunities, teaching hours have been shortened, and teachers have difficulty in reporting to school. A World Bank assessment suggests that the inability to meet recurrent expenses, brought about by the current crisis, could cause the educational system to collapse and consequently risk resources that the Palestinian authority and donors have invested over the last eight years (World Bank, 2002d). But the cost is greatest in the lives of children and young people. All of this is taking place in an environment where it is estimated that half the population is living below the poverty line (UNRWA website).

The present imperative is to keep the formal education system operational; a point clearly made in the *Palestine Human Development Report 2002* (UNDP, 2002). One international response is the development of the Trust Fund Credit for an Emergency Services Support Project (World Bank, 2002d). This includes assistance for the provision of textbooks, school furniture, administrative costs such as water electricity and transport, refurbishment of damaged infrastructure, scientific and computer laboratories and teacher training.

East Timor is building its education system after achieving independence from Indonesia and the ravages inflicted on the country immediately after the referendum in August 1999. Pro-Indonesian militia burned down 95% of the schools and Indonesian teachers left with the result that the education sector collapsed completely.

Two years later in 2001, 86% of school classrooms had been rehabilitated and made useable. Nine hundred and twenty two schools were operational. There was a substantial increase in enrolment from poor households, among girls and for rural children aged 6–14. The gap in school participation rates narrowed between the richest and the poorest, boys and girls, and urban and rural areas.

A number of factors contributed to stimulating demand: national pride, the rebuilding of the nation by the East Timor Transitional

### Box 3.13. Nepal's uncertainty

In the Government of Nepal's 10th Development Plan (2002-2007) education expenditure is planned to increase by 63% (2002/2003 to 2006/2007). In the Medium Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF 2002//03-2004/05) education expenditure is set to increase by 30%. This prognosis depends on relatively high rates of economic growth, sustained foreign assistance (in loans and grants), improvements in governance as set out in the Local Governance Act of 1999 and on an improved security situation in the face of a Maoist insurgency in the country.

However, Nepal's situation changed dramatically after the violent death of the King in mid-2002 and the spread of violence within the country. Government revenues declined and subsequent expenditure on security surged dramatically to over 15% of the annual budget. 'There is virtually no revenue surplus for development activities' (*The Kathmandu Post*, 23 August 2002).

Speaking about the Tenth Plan, an adviser at the Ministry of Finance said that 'the Plan has lost relevance as the country's conditions and political scenario has changed . . . from the scenario when its drafting was started. The current thrust is the restoration of peace and security in the country and if need be, a plan holiday should be announced to achieve this goal'

Source: *The Kathmandu Post* (2002).

Administration (ETTA) with the assistance of the United Nations and multilateral and bilateral agencies, allied to a reduction in the costs of schooling through the abolition of school fees and the need to wear school uniforms. Enrolments in primary education rose from about 167,000 in 1998/99 to about 183,000 in 2001, although enrolments in junior secondary education declined over the same period, largely due to the lack of qualified teachers and the partial rehabilitation of facilities.

These are important first steps. International support has been, and will be, an essential component of the national effort to rebuild and strengthen education. A variety of organizations are at work, among them UNICEF and the World Food Programme, which responded very quickly to immediate needs, and the World Bank, which is providing project grants for both short- and longer-term reconstruction (Box 3.14).

These brief examples highlight a few of the complex challenges of keeping education alive, being responsive to emergency needs and retaining a longer-term vision and strategy for the rebuilding and strengthening of systems, which is in itself a critical contribution to sustaining peace. Work is now emerging, stimulated in part by Dakar, that draws lessons and offers guidance to those directly engaged in planning and implementing education in situations of conflict, disaster and instability.

East Timor is building its education system after achieving independence from Indonesia and the ravages inflicted on the country immediately after the referendum in August 1999.

**Box 3.14. International support for education in East Timor**

**UNICEF:** Immediate interventions revived the primary education system and brought routine back to shattered lives. It was important that some order be re-established in East Timor's devastated communities. By establishing volunteer committees in the districts, UNICEF helped organize teachers and reopen schools, even without furniture, textbooks or a curriculum. Providing basic teaching and learning materials, and supplying a financial incentive to all primary school teachers were crucial in getting more than 170,000 children into primary school by the end of the teaching year. In the next two years, the teacher-training programme will be greatly expanded through teacher resource centres and a management training programme for primary school principals, most of whom were grade teachers until last year. A range of appropriate teaching materials will be developed, and a school health and nutrition programme will aim to improve the health of all children at school, particularly those with special needs. To better understand the requirements of teachers and pupils, support will be given to the emerging East Timor education department to improve

**The World Bank** has provided grants for two projects; the first for an Emergency School Readiness Project (ESRP) which supported the rebuilding of classrooms to a basic operational level as well as the provision of furniture, textbooks, information and management support. Launched in July 2000, ESRP was completed in twenty-four months. The second project, the Fundamental School Quality Project (FSQP), supports follow-on educational infrastructure development. The objectives of FSQP are to maintain the existing level of primary education enrolment and possibly increase it as still more refugees return and school-age population grows; and recover quality in primary and junior secondary education by rehabilitating physical facilities, providing textbooks and other instructional materials, and supporting education research and management capacity development.

Source: UNICEF (2001a);  
Ministry of Education Culture Youth and Sports (2002).

**In general, multilateral and bilateral donors have not given policy priority to emergency and post-crisis education.**

One such product is set out in Box 3.15 that draws on the experience of United Nations and NGO practitioners in the field of emergency education. The basic rubric is no different from any education plan with concerns for access, quality, good management and co-ordination, and securing sufficient resources. But the interpretation of these principles is informed by urgency, by the particular circumstances, experiences and needs of children and young people, and by the art of the possible in damaged systems.

External assistance is also of critical importance in planning and helping to deliver education services in crisis situations. But it still does not fit well into the logic of most relief and development agencies, or indeed, most governments. There are particular tensions regarding international agency support for short-term emergency work as opposed to longer-term reconstruction and development. The separation of these two components can be costly, as the example of Sudan suggests

(Box 3.16). This is clearly a tension that needs more concentrated international attention.

Although, in general, multilateral and bilateral donors have not given policy priority to emergency and post-crisis education, useful work by some of the international organizations is designed to support planning for EFA (Vargas-Baron, 2001). For example, UNESCO's Section for Emergency Education and Special Operations is heading an inter-agency flagship programme entitled Education in Emergencies. This has created the Inter-Agency Network on Education in Emergencies (INEE), designed to provide information on types of intervention, good practice and learning resources. A checklist has been developed which incorporates education strategies for preventing emergencies as well as responding to conflict and crisis (Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE; website: <http://ineesite.org/>). A website partnership between UNESCO and the University of Pittsburg – Global Information Networks in Education (GINIE) – is a major feature of this work.

UNESCO IIEP is launching a programme of guidebooks and policy studies that draws heavily on country case studies. As from 2003, IIEP will offer training programmes in emergency and reconstruction education. UNICEF has an agency-wide programme for education in crisis situations with a strong emphasis on the integration of education, health and social support for families. UNHCR's education programmes for refugees and internally displaced persons are active in many countries and many valuable lessons are being learned (UNHCR, 2001).

Among bilateral agencies Swedish International Cooperation Development Agency (SIDA) includes crisis and emergency education in its overall education strategy and the Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation (NORAD) has a long history of providing support in emergency education. Other agencies are beginning to show interest. Both DFID and USAID have sponsored publications on education in situations of conflict (Smith and Vaux, 2002; USAIDa, 2002).

These signs are all positive, and represent both growing awareness and expanding resources. The test will be to bring awareness and resources together so as to enable those charged with education and development in their own countries, and in countries meeting the needs of refugees, to meet the burgeoning demand for education in crisis and in reconstruction.

## Credible planning, credible plans

The Dakar Framework for Action calls for comprehensive National EFA Plans by 2002 at the latest. These plans will:

- be developed by government leadership in direct and systematic consultation with national civil society;
- specify reforms addressing the six EFA goals;
- establish a sustainable financial framework;
- be time-bound and action oriented;
- include mid-term performance indicators; and
- achieve a synergy of all human development efforts, through its inclusion within the national development efforts (Dakar Framework for Action, para. 16).

This statement recognizes the need for genuine and inclusive political processes, synergy with overall government policy, and results-based plans that set clear directions for programme implementation and accountability. By implication, these are broad characteristics of a *credible plan*.

Any plan should be credible, otherwise planning is of little worth. So why has the term 'credible plan' received so much attention since Dakar? In large measure it is because the notion of a credible plan is linked in the discussion in Dakar to governments needing to be seriously committed to such plans, as a prerequisite for accessing additional external financing.

But the evidence set out in the first two sections of this chapter also points to other factors which are increasingly seen by governments, funding agencies and non-governmental organizations as critical facets of planning for EFA. Six of these factors are highlighted here.

### Box 3.15. Principles of emergency education

#### Access

- The right of access to education, recreation and related activities must be ensured, even in crisis situations.
- Rapid access to education, recreation and related activities should be followed by steady improvement in quality and coverage, including access to all levels of education and recognition of studies.
- Education programmes should be gender-sensitive, accessible to and inclusive of all groups.
- Education should serve as a tool of child protection and prevention of harm.

#### Resources

- Education programmes should use a community-based participatory approach, with emphasis on capacity building.
- Education programmes should include a major component of training for teachers and youth/adult educators, and provide incentives to avoid teacher turnover.
- Crisis and recovery programmes should develop and document locally appropriate targets for resourcing standards, adequate to meet their educational and psychosocial objectives.

#### Activities/Curriculum

- All crisis-affected children and young people should have access to education, recreation and related activities, helping meet their psychosocial needs in the short and longer term.
- Curriculum policy should support the long-term development of individual students and of the society, and for refugee populations should be supportive of a durable solution, normally repatriation.
- Education programmes should be enriched to include life skills for health, safety, and environmental awareness.
- Education programmes should be enriched to include life skills for peace/conflict resolution, tolerance, human rights and citizenship.
- Vocational training programmes should be linked to opportunities for workplace practice of the skills being learned.

#### Coordination and capacity-building

- Governments and assistance agencies should promote coordination between all agencies and stakeholders.
- External assistance programmes should include capacity building to promote transparent, accountable and inclusive system management by local actors.

Source: Sinclair (forthcoming).

First, and by no means specific to education, there is a growing acknowledgement that if the development of policy and planning is conceived as a purely technical process, it is unlikely to serve poor and disadvantaged people well. Unless the processes of policy development, planning and programme delivery are part of a wider engagement with people and their representatives, education that is inclusive and meaningful will be unlikely to materialize. This is not to deny the pivotal role of government, nor of the need for well-trained and committed planners, it is rather to recognize that a credible

**A plan should be credible; otherwise planning is of little worth.**

**Box 3.16. Tensions in supporting education in Sudan**

Sudan's civil war has raged for nineteen years. It has displaced more than four and a half million citizens, four million of which have remained within Sudan's borders. Given the length of the war, many Sudanese have assumed a regional perspective, viewing problems and opportunities existing not only in different parts of Sudan but in other countries as well, including the Kakuma refugee camps in North-eastern Kenya.

As Sudanese perspectives of their identity and community expand, bureaucratic viewpoints have remained inflexible. What matters is not where Sudanese go, but the territory and population category each agency is responsible for. Accordingly, agencies such as UNHCR address Sudanese refugee issues, and rarely, if ever, venture into Sudan itself. Likewise, agencies aiding Sudanese within Sudan may never visit Sudanese refugee camps. As a result, perspectives of Sudan and Sudanese vary widely. Agencies working within Sudan tend to highlight areas of stability where they can carry out initiatives such as education. They view the refugee camps as being over-invested, including the education sector, and a magnet that draws Sudanese from stable areas within Sudan. To them, the refugee camps represent locations that undermine reconstruction and development efforts.

Agencies working with Sudanese refugees, alternately, evaluate the situation within Sudan in terms of areas of war and 'pockets' of peace. Southern Sudan, the chief war zone and area where most refugees and IDPs have come from, seems inhospitable and dangerous. As a result, the agencies have concentrated their efforts on preparing Sudanese refugees for a future regardless of where that may be. In Kenya, the refugee students study a Kenyan curriculum while hoping for scholarship and resettlement opportunities elsewhere.

Considerable tensions have arisen between agencies working on education development in stable areas of Sudan and agencies working with refugees. Many of the tensions are related to the poor coordination and information sharing among education programs

for Sudanese inside Southern Sudan and in nearby refugee asylum countries. Agencies may know very little about what is going on in another part of Sudan or in refugee camps. They may use different curricula and pay teachers significantly different levels of 'incentives' (no teacher salaries are provided anywhere).

Poor coordination has also arisen from the fact that relief and development agencies approach education problems in different ways. Whereas relief agencies have invested in diverse and comparatively high-quality education programmes in refugee camps, development agencies have been involved in reconstructing an education system within Sudan that was virtually eliminated by conflict. The relief agencies have essentially created separate education systems while development agencies in some areas of Sudan work with education officials from the de facto government in Southern Sudan. In terms of quality, the education available in refugee camps in Kenya and Uganda is demonstrably better than nearly anything available inside Sudan: most investments inside Sudan are spread thinly across a broad expanse, while investments for refugee communities are directed at a much smaller and relatively finite population.

The poor coordination between relief and development actors is illuminated by the fact that USAID is supporting education programming within Southern Sudan that is explicitly termed development work while the Bureau for Population, Refugees and Migration (BPRM) in the U.S. Government's State Department is supporting the education work of UNHCR in refugee camps for Southern Sudanese in Kenya. Two agencies that are part of the same government are thus working on Sudanese education but according to different goals: USAID is working to rebuild Southern Sudan's education system while BPRM is supporting education that prepares refugees either for repatriation or prolonged exile.

*Source: From Sommers (2002a).*

plan will reflect the outcomes of ongoing dialogue and participation designed to provide qualitative as well as quantitative information and understandings. This was a major message from Dakar.

Second, there is a notion of being comprehensive: all of education as well as Education for All. Different countries will have different priorities and rightly so, but EFA recognizes a full range of learning opportunities. It views education neither as circumscribed by age nor by the cycle of the formal school system, nor indeed, by the prosperity of learners. Credibility depends upon extending learning. EFA embraces all the goals, their interconnections and their cumulative benefits.

Third, planning that does not recognize that one of the single greatest stumbling blocks to the

achievement of Education for All is gender discrimination (UNICEF, 2002b) is not credible. But the evidence from the first part of this chapter, albeit limited, does not yet suggest that gender planning and budgeting have been central to planning for EFA thus far.

Fourth, for many millions of people, planning for traditional formal systems of education is insufficiently responsive to their learning needs. For example, as this Chapter has demonstrated for a sizeable group of countries, a comprehensive understanding of HIV/AIDS is central to planning and delivering on every aspect of education. Planning that does not recognize the diversity of learning circumstances and needs is not credible.

Fifth, too many education plans have been broad statements of intent with many objectives but

lacking prioritization. In these circumstances, plans have failed the test of budgetary credibility – with or without external funding. Some of the evidence in this chapter suggests that there continues to be a failure to link EFA goals to well-costed strategies.

Finally, the nature of the engagement of funding agencies with governments is changing. Dialogue is less about projects and more about overall strategy. There is growing attention to an international dialogue across agencies and with governments, seeking a clear set of outcomes, indicators and processes. Where this is present, funding agencies are increasingly willing to commit resources for longer periods of time than in the earlier era of projects.

Against this background, it is instructive to examine the interpretation of planning for EFA and credible plans in a small sample of international organizations and agencies.

UNESCO has stated that National EFA Action Plans are the very foundations of the drive towards Education for All, and it has elaborated the characteristics of a credible EFA plan, building on the statement from the Dakar Framework for Action at the beginning of this section (UNESCO, 2001*k*; 2001*m*; 2002*h*).

UNESCO has issued guidelines for preparing EFA plans (UNESCO, 2001*n*) that are described as an ‘orientation’, and not a technical planning tool. They emphasize participatory planning, building political and social support for EFA, prioritizing EFA in national budgets and its integration into wider sector and national development strategies, reaching the excluded, and promoting better co-ordinated international partnerships. The Organization has also developed generic criteria for assessing the credibility of National EFA Plans in both political and technical terms, analysed by planning process and by the content of plans. The office in Bangkok prepared a detailed *EFA Planning Guide for South and East Asia*, which incorporates a projection model (UNESCO-PROAP, 2001). The guide argues that ‘the EFA Plan should not be an additional plan to already existing plans. Instead, the EFA Plan should be a framework, in the form of a large programme, integrating in a coherent

way all EFA aspects of all other presently valid plans and policy documents.’ In this interpretation (Figure 3.1), the EFA Plan is an integrating mechanism, a coherent sector-wide framework to guide the EFA activities of all government bodies. ‘The normative function of this integrated EFA plan obliges all government bodies, as well their external funding partners to adhere to it and abstain from launching separate initiatives’ (UNESCO-PROAP, 2001). Other UNESCO Regional Bureaux have developed their own guidelines.

It is difficult to form a judgement concerning the extent to which this guidance and other forms of technical input from UNESCO are having an impact at the country level. The approach is characterized by a relatively strict interpretation of the centrality of a distinctive EFA plan and placing considerable weight on preparation by the 2002 target date. At its best, this work is adding value to national planning processes and helping to bring coherence through EFA plans in a highly complex area. But there is also a danger, for which there is some evidence, that a separate short-term EFA planning process to meet an international requirement creates additional or parallel planning activities to the mainstream of education sector planning. If this is happening this is not a creative use of scarce resources. This raises the question that is reflected in the title of this Chapter – EFA plans or planning for EFA? The two are not necessarily the same. There is no single model.

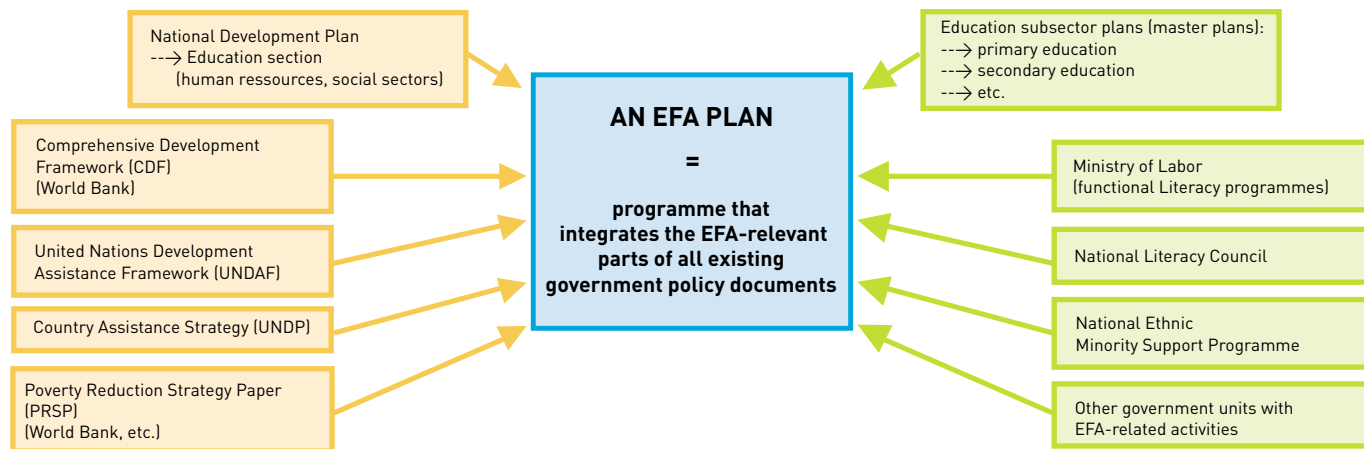
The international NGOs also place considerable weight on national plans for EFA. Many were to the fore in Dakar, in arguing for national plans by 2002. The Global Campaign for Education (GCE) represents this view:

... any global effort must be firmly rooted in national plans for achieving education for all. These should be developed with cross-sectoral participation of key ministries and civil society groups, and should be embedded wherever possible in national strategies for poverty reduction as well as in medium term expenditure frameworks (GCE, 2002a).

Collectively, the NGO community stresses the importance of reaching international consensus

**International NGOs also place considerable weight on national EFA plans.**

Figure 3.1. Relationship between EFA plans and other plans and strategic instruments, including EFA-related activities



Source: UNESCO/PROAP (2001).

The Education Task Force for G8 in 2002 emphasized that the responsibility for developing sound education plans and providing sufficient resources lies with governments of developing countries.

on criteria that define credibility and provide the basis for global and country level compacts (Box 3.17). They regard EFA plans, or plans that encompass EFA goals, as the primary basis for determining the financial gap which should be filled by external resources (see Chapter 4). As Chapter 5 outlines, international NGO campaigns have had significant political impact internationally. It is activity that is increasingly backed by strong analysis and by support for national NGOs and CSOs in their efforts to engage in planning for EFA.

Since the World Education Forum in 2000, the World Bank has given priority to one of the Dakar goals in particular: universal primary education (UPE), and defined a technical framework for achieving universal primary completion, as distinct from enrolment. The Bank has not advanced a comprehensive EFA view, although it undertakes technical and project work on other EFA-related goals. Its work is informed primarily by the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). It has certainly injected some urgency into international dialogue (see Chapter 5) on UPE, and invested in comparative analysis on the financing and management strategies that are important for achieving quality primary education for all. This analytical work (World Bank, 2002a) has been influential in the development of the Fast-Track Initiative (see Chapter 5).

While the Bank states the importance of context-specific, national solutions, it promotes the case for particular attention to be given to the share of

the budget directed to primary education; average teacher salaries, pupil-teacher ratios, non-salary expenditure; repetition rates and unit construction costs. It builds its case on evidence from countries where progress is being made towards higher levels of primary completion.

The Bank concludes that the road to UPE will be different for different countries depending on their current and projected levels of costs and the management of their service delivery. For poorly performing countries internal sector reform is more important than incremental funding. A *credible plan* in these terms is one that establishes strategies based on a commitment to the equitable financing of primary education and is clear in its intent to deliver on major service reform. Critics hold this to be an overly narrow, technical view of planning for education. They argue that despite protestations to the contrary, the Bank is seeking a too rigid and normative approach to planning. The fact remains that the type of comparative analysis that the Bank has conducted is significant. Its international critics need to be similarly engaged.

The Education Task Force for G8 in 2002 emphasized that the responsibility for developing sound education plans and providing sufficient resources lies with developing-country governments. Political commitment and transparent budgets are essential. National education plans should be comprehensive, and deal with access, equity, and quality issues and integrating primary education into an overall

education policy. This is essentially a slight reworking of the existing Dakar Framework.

Bilateral agencies have tended to interpret Dakar according to the circumstances of the countries in which they have bilateral programmes and according to their overall development policies and strategies. They have given far less weight to the development of distinctive all-encompassing EFA Action Plans than does the United Nations system. Many place emphasis on sector-wide planning and poverty reduction strategies, and on giving priority to the goals of EFA within those planning frameworks. Some, like the United Kingdom's Department for International Development (DFID), prioritize the MDGs for education, arguing that planning for the realization of UPE and gender equality in poverty reduction is key (DFID, 2001a; 2001b). The Nordic countries emphasize the importance of planning within a human rights framework (e.g. SIDA, 2001) as does the Netherlands (Netherlands, 2000). Canadian CIDA sets planning for EFA within a broad social and human development framework (CIDA, 2002).

## Conclusions

This chapter points to some general judgements about the extent to which Dakar commitments for planning for EFA are being met, two years after the World Education Forum. Three conclusions stand out.

First, the comprehensive EFA National Action Plans prescribed by the Dakar Framework by the end of 2002 have not yet materialized widely. Government structures continue to militate against a comprehensive approach. But there is some evidence of a greater sense of urgency in planning for EFA, and of the need to be inclusive, although the evidence of gender responsive planning needs particular focus.

Second, it does seem to be the case that EFA and/or the MDGs for education are gaining higher priority in overall national government policies and plans. This is particularly so where PRSPs are being prepared and where there is a clear expression of public demand and support.

### Box 3.17. Assessing education plans: Transparent norms

Donors and developing country governments must 'agree to agree' on a small number of flexible but specific normative criteria for transparent assessment of the strength of national education plans. These criteria should not become new conditionalities. They should be derived from the commitments made by 180 governments in Dakar, which in turn reflect growing international evidence on the prerequisites for a successful education system.

The principal benchmark of 'serious commitment' should be that the country's leaders have identified education for all (EFA) as a national priority and have put in motion a credible and participatory process for producing a cost and time-bound national plan to achieve the EFA goals. While plans must grow out of country needs and priorities, the Dakar consensus makes it evident that any serious plan would need to include:

- commitment to adequate and efficient public financing of education, the abolition of household payments for public primary education, and a net reallocation of spending in favour of educationally disadvantaged groups and schools (i.e. girls and women, working children, the rural poor, ethnic and linguistic minorities);
- a mechanism for broad, representative and sustained participation of civil society in determining education policy priorities and monitoring policy implementation;
- a sensible balance between immediate priorities, including the education MDGs; and the need for balanced education development over the longer term, with renewed commitment to the crucial role of early childhood and adult basic education in reducing poverty;
- bold reforms to improve learning outcomes (including a commitment to decent salaries and training for teachers), and increased space for local innovation within the public system; and
- steps to cope with the impact of HIV-AIDS on teachers, learners and schools.

Source: GCE (2002a).

Third, there is not yet much evidence of governments being publicly held to account against their stated goals. Regional forums are potentially helpful in this regard. It would be useful to assess the role of MINEDAF and other regional forums in this respect. National monitoring reports and national education watches also have potential. *The Indian Report: A Profile of Basic Education* (Govinda et al., 2002) is interesting in this regard. The Bangladesh Education Watch Report was started in 1998; the 2001 Watch Report is entitled *Renewed Hope, Daunting Challenges: State of Primary Education in Bangladesh* (Education Watch, 2001).

It can be concluded that the jury is still out. Dakar has injected some life into a process that was flagging in the second half of the 1990s. It is absolutely critical that this momentum not be lost. Planning for EFA must remain firmly within the time-bound parameters of the EFA goals, the first of which is in 2005.

There is not yet much evidence of governments being publicly held to account against their stated goals.