

# EFA Global Monitoring Report

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Education for All



## EDUCATION FOR ALL 2000-2015: ACHIEVEMENTS AND CHALLENGES



United Nations  
Educational, Scientific and  
Cultural Organization

# **EDUCATION FOR ALL 2000-2015: ACHIEVEMENTS AND CHALLENGES**



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# Foreword

In 2000, at the *World Education Forum* in Dakar, Senegal, 164 governments agreed on the *Dakar Framework for Action, Education for All: Meeting our Collective Commitments*, launching an ambitious agenda to reach six wide-ranging education goals by 2015. UNESCO initiated the *EFA Global Monitoring Reports* in response, to monitor progress, highlight remaining gaps and provide recommendations for the global sustainable development agenda to follow in 2015.

There has been tremendous progress across the world since 2000 – but we are not there yet. Despite all efforts by governments, civil society and the international community, the world has not achieved Education for All.

On the positive side, the number of children and adolescents who were out of school has fallen by almost half since 2000. An estimated 34 million more children will have attended school as a result of faster progress since Dakar. The greatest progress has been achieved in gender parity, particularly in primary education, although gender disparity remains in almost a third of the countries with data. Governments have also increased efforts to measure learning outcomes through national and international assessments, using these to ensure that all children receive the quality of education they were promised.

And yet, for all this progress, 15 years of monitoring shows sobering results.

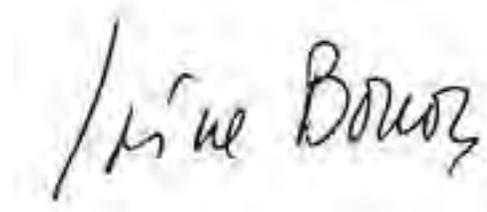
There are still 58 million children out of school globally and around 100 million children who do not complete primary education. Inequality in education has increased, with the poorest and most disadvantaged shouldering the heaviest burden. The world's poorest children are four times more likely not to go to school than the world's richest children, and five times more likely not to complete primary school. Conflict remains a steep barrier, with a high and growing proportion of out-of-school children living in conflict zones. Overall, the poor quality of learning at primary level still has millions of children leaving school without basic skills.

What is more, education remains under-financed. Many governments have increased spending, but few have prioritized education in national budgets, and most fall short of allocating the recommended 20% needed to bridge funding gaps. The picture is similar with donors, who, after an initial boost in aid budgets, have reduced aid to education since 2010 and not sufficiently prioritized those countries most in need.

This Report draws on all of this experience, to make sharp recommendations for the place of education in the future global sustainable development agenda. The lessons are clear. New education targets must be specific, relevant and measurable. Marginalized and disadvantaged groups, hardest to reach and still not enjoying their

right to education, must be a priority. There must be stronger action on financing across the board. While the bulk of costs will be borne by governments, the international community must step up, to sustain and increase aid to education – especially in lower and lower middle income countries where needs are greatest. The future agenda will also need ever-stronger monitoring efforts, including data collection, analysis and dissemination, to hold all stakeholders to account.

In the run-up to 2015, *EFA Global Monitoring Reports* have played a leading role in supporting countries, providing solid assessment and analysis to facilitate policy-making, along with a powerful advocacy tool for governments and civil society. This will continue as we turn to implementing the new Sustainable Development Goals. After 2015, the Reports will continue to provide a trusted and independent voice on the state of global education, producing useful recommendations to all countries and partners. So much has been achieved since 2000 – we need to do far more, to ensure quality education and lifelong learning for all. There is simply no more powerful or longer-lasting investment in human rights and dignity, in social inclusion and sustainable development. Experience since 2000 shows what can be done – we need to draw on this to do more.



Irina Bokova  
Director-General of UNESCO

## Education in complex emergencies is an evolving problem

As defined by WHO, complex emergencies are situations of disrupted livelihoods and threats to life produced by warfare, civil disturbance and large-scale movements of people, in which any emergency response has to be conducted in a difficult political and security environment (Wisner and Adams, 2002). Education in complex emergencies is an evolving problem, and a serious one.

The number of refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs) grew to 51.2 million in 2013, the highest number since the Second World War. Half of these forcibly displaced people are children (Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, 2014b; UNHCR, 2013). More than 172 million people globally were estimated to be affected by conflict in 2012 (Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters, 2013). Conflict-affected countries account for one-third of people living in extreme poverty and over half of global child mortality (Nicolai, 2015). Emergency situations exacerbate marginalization, as poverty, social exclusion, conflict, natural disasters and climate change interact to compound vulnerability (Climate Change and African Political Stability, 2013; Harris et al., 2013; UN Secretary-General, 2013).

A major challenge in addressing or analysing education in emergency situations is a lack of evidence on the educational and economic costs of disruption of school-age populations at the country level (Nicolai et al., 2014). Yet it is clear that education systems are disrupted. The proportion of out-of-school children living in conflict-affected countries increased from 30% in 1999 to 36% in 2012, and increased substantially in the Arab States and in South and West Asia (see Introduction). Research on natural disasters is more limited, but recent estimates suggest that 175 million children are likely to be affected by natural disasters annually (UN Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, 2012). Improved data are leading to growing visibility and recognition of education concerns for internally displaced populations. In Nigeria, data on displacement were produced for the

**The number of refugees and internally displaced persons grew to 51.2 million in 2013, the highest number since the Second World War**

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### Emergency situations lead to a high number of incidents of school attacks, rape and sexual violence

first time in 2013 and, at 3.3 million people, far exceeded earlier estimates of the scale of the problem (Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, 2014b).

Emergency situations weaken the social compact and lead to a high number of incidents of school attacks, rape and sexual violence, further marginalizing already disadvantaged groups (Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack, 2014). Boys and girls are both at risk of being forcibly recruited, sometimes from their classrooms, and exploited as front-line soldiers or used as spies, suicide bombers and sexual slaves (Coalition to Stop the Use of Child Soldiers, 2008). Girls have additional vulnerabilities in conflict situations: more than 200 Nigerian schoolgirls were kidnapped in April 2014 just because they were in school (Abubakar, 2014), and at the height of the Afghanistan war, girls' schools were disproportionately targeted for violent attacks (Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack, 2014). The current situation in the Syrian Arab Republic is the largest displacement crisis in the world (Box 2.4). Natural disasters also result in deterioration of infrastructure and resources, which can lead to permanent loss of human capital, increased prevalence of child labour and setbacks in health and employment opportunities (Baez et al., 2010).

#### Policy has changed since Dakar

*I left because of the things that were happening, with the rebels. They destroyed our school, we couldn't go any more. They didn't like the way some of the girls were dressed. They yelled at us, saying that what we were wearing wasn't good. They broke our school desks, destroyed our school books and our things. School is supposed to be a place where we learn things.*

– Sita, student in Nigeria

In the 1990s, global humanitarian assistance more than doubled (Randal and German, 2002), reflecting growing awareness of civil wars, ethnic confrontations and regional conflicts such as the Balkan wars and the Rwandan genocide (Stockholm International Peace Research Institute, 2000). Despite increased attention to humanitarian crises, there was limited emphasis on education (Boothby, 1992; Nicolai, 2015). UNHCR created its first set of educational field guidelines in the 1990s (Nicolai, 2015); UNESCO's

#### Box 2.4: Education in a situation of dramatic displacement: Syrian Arab Republic

What are the long-term ramifications of the Syrian crisis? Some believe the crisis will lead to a 'lost generation', with the majority of Syrian children lacking fundamental necessities and unable to gain an education. In 2013 alone, over 9,500 people a day fled their homes as the Syrian Arab Republic entered its third year of conflict. As of December 2013, of the 4.8 million school-age Syrian children, some 2.2 million inside the country were out of school, as were a half-million refugee children in Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Lebanon and Turkey. The Syrian Network for Human Rights alleges that the government has turned a thousand schools into detention and torture centres, and numerous schools have been converted into barracks. Two-thirds of the refugee children are out of school, and this group now faces lower enrolment ratios than those found in Afghanistan, a country with a much longer history of conflict and a poorer tradition of education. The sheer numbers of refugee children are overwhelming education systems in neighbouring countries.

The multinational nature of the Syrian crisis is recognized, with separate coordination groups working in each country. In the Syrian Arab Republic, a working group on education focusing on a coordinating role is hosted by Save the Children. A Syria Regional Response Plan examines education activities in Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Lebanon and Turkey. A high-level regional conference on education and the Syrian refugee crisis has been held. Activities include providing school kits, rehabilitating schools and learning spaces, and running summer learning programmes. Child-friendly spaces have been set up in at least 16 camps.

However, meeting the education needs of this diverse population will remain a key challenge, given country capacities and ongoing tensions. Despite major pledges by most wealthy nations, humanitarian aid has trickled in slowly over the past four years. The need for education financing remains underserved.

Sources: Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack (2014), Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (2014), Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (2014a, 2014b, 2014c), Nicolai (2015), UNHCR (2014), Watkins (2013).

Teacher Emergency Package was first used in Mogadishu in 1993; UNICEF began using kits to provide educational and recreational materials in emergencies in 1991, and initiated 'child-friendly spaces' from around 1999 (Sinclair, 2001). International NGOs, such as CARE, Catholic Relief Services, Christian Children's Fund (now ChildFund International), the International Rescue Committee and Save the Children, began playing an important role in the education response (Nicolai and Tripplehorn, 2003).

**Education in complex emergencies is an evolving problem**

The field of education in emergencies struggled in the late 1990s with conceptual hurdles including how to define the duration of an emergency, whether non-formal schooling was acceptable education and whether education in emergencies was its own humanitarian sector, as it fell between emergency humanitarian responses that did not prioritize education and development work on education where actors rarely worked in crisis situations. Unsurprisingly, key humanitarian agencies had limited capacity to provide education in emergency situations (Nicolai, 2015).

Since 2000, education in situations of crisis and emergency has been consolidated as a new field, recognized as one of the six areas of concern at Dakar, and developed since then (World Education Forum, 2000). The UN and international NGOs that attended Dakar formed the Inter-Agency Network on Education in Emergencies (INEE), which has grown into a vast network of organizations and individuals working in over 170 countries.

Establishing minimum standards for education in emergencies was a key advance, developed through a year-long process in 2003 with contributions from over 2,250 individuals and more than 50 countries (Anderson, 2004; Nicolai, 2015). The standards have since been used extensively in both conflict and natural disaster settings, most frequently for preparing for emergencies, but also for advocacy and coordination (INEE, 2012). Global reports such as the Education Under Attack series and the 2011 *EFA Global Monitoring Report* brought widespread attention to the field and the scale of the challenges facing it. A further development is growing financial commitment for fragile states by the Global Partnership for Education (Nicolai, 2015), as this GMR's finance chapter shows.

### **A new cluster approach has helped mainstream the response**

One of the most significant developments for education in emergency has been the cluster approach of the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC). It ensures a holistic response where the education cluster is one of 11 main sectors of humanitarian action such as health, water sanitation and logistics. The approach entails designating a lead agency and assigning

groups of humanitarian organizations to each sector.

At the global level, the Education Cluster Unit and the Education Cluster Working Group focus on strengthening capacity to prepare for, respond to and recover from emergencies. At the country level, Education Clusters have been activated in over 40 countries. An education cluster is activated in a country for a given humanitarian crisis's full duration, either short term or, where crises are protracted, for years. At the time of writing, 20 country-level education clusters were active. The cluster approach, as adapted to education, has been used extensively for policy planning, advocacy, programming and capacity-building, led by UNICEF in the Democratic Republic of the Congo and by Save the Children in Haiti (Lattimer, 2012; Nicolai, 2015).

In the Democratic Republic of the Congo, conflict since 1996 has left more than 5 million people dead (Nicolai, 2015) and displaced as many as 3 million (Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, 2014b). In 2006, the country became one of the pilot countries for the IASC Education Cluster approach. Cluster activities included setting up emergency classrooms, distributing education kits, providing teacher training and accelerated learning programmes, and developing risk reduction plans. As a result of one-year bridging courses, over 126,000 children were able to reintegrate into school in 2013 (Nicolai, 2015).

In Haiti, a massive earthquake in 2010 left over 220,000 dead and 2.3 million homeless. It was followed the same year by a cholera epidemic and Hurricane Tomas. About 80% of the schools in Haiti were damaged or destroyed as a result of the earthquake (Nicolai, 2015). In the months following, the cluster coordinated the work of more than 100 organizations. In the first year of response, nearly 200,000 children benefited from temporary learning spaces and over 500,000 children received basic learning materials (Lattimer and Berther, 2010).

### **Challenges remain**

Despite major advances, persistent challenges remain in addressing education in emergencies. In long-term conflict situations, such as in

**Establishing minimum standards for education in emergencies was a key advance**

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the Democratic Republic of Congo, Nigeria and Pakistan, the length and intensity of the situation have had severe impacts beyond conflict-affected regions, through broader collateral damage, as well as indirect impacts such as forced displacements, reduced foreign investment and increased health problems (Jones and Naylor, 2014).

Furthermore, it is unclear when 'displacement' and 'emergencies' end. Even after displaced populations return, there are problems. In Pakistan, registered IDPs began returning to federally administered tribal areas at the end of military operations in 2009, but the more than 1.4 million who have returned are still struggling to recover their livelihoods, and sorely lack access to schooling (Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, 2014b). The transience of displaced people also complicates the delivery of education. In 22 countries monitored in 2013, more than 60% of IDPs were living outside camps. In some countries, the children of such IDPs may be less likely to attend school than those living in camps where free education is provided (Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, 2014b).

Arguably the most important point is that, with education considered a less immediate concern in an emergency, the lack of funding for education within humanitarian aid budgeting remains a huge problem (see Finance chapter).

**Multilateral institutions and civil society advocates cannot compensate for a lack of involvement by national governments**

## Conclusions

National and international commitments to primary education have led to considerable progress in many low income countries since 2000. Gains achieved through both demand- and supply-side initiatives are impressive, especially considering the challenges faced by many countries in this period, from economic crises and natural disasters to conflict and population growth.

Progress towards universal primary education appears related to legitimacy and power: whether initiatives have political and community support and whether marginalized groups are considered worthy of access to education. The proliferation of non-government education providers, a development mostly unanticipated at the time of the World Education Forum in Dakar, is indicative of this situation, showing a lack of adequate government attention to marginalized groups, and the fact that these providers are better able to meet different types of parental desires, including quality and stratification.

Government and civil society must work together in a concerted way to promote universal primary education for the larger population, and to increase community ownership as well as understanding of the major benefits for everyone in society of improved education and development outcomes for marginalized groups. Multilateral institutions and civil society advocates that work on these issues globally, regionally and locally cannot compensate for a lack of involvement by national governments. Policies recommended at the global level to improve access to education are unlikely to 'trickle down' to the national level, overcome structural barriers and address specific contextual needs.

Finally, the commitment to education access must be equalled by a focus on learning and relevance, as discussed in more detail in Chapter 6 on quality. This will allow progression through the primary school cycle and advancement to further education. Focusing on quality will also ensure that public education can become a vehicle for social mobility for disadvantaged populations.

### *Migrant youth need equitable access to skills*

Increasingly, the world is witness to unprecedented human mobility: in 2010, an estimated 214 million people migrated internationally (World Bank, 2011b). About three-quarters of international migrants originate in the Global South; an estimated 147 million to 174 million migrants were born in developing countries (International Organization for Migration (IOM), 2013). Labour demand, economic crises, urbanization, entrenched poverty, political instability and conflict have contributed to migration since Dakar (Bartlett 2015).

Addressing the needs of migrants and providing them with basic skills have become pressing concerns in all regions (see **Box 3.1**). International migrants, in particular, face more challenges than their native-born peers in obtaining equitable access to learning opportunities and life skills. Several systemic factors – for example, legal status, segregation, school finance and language policy – affect access to both formal and non-formal education (Bartlett, 2015).

Young people and families with young children have been particularly mobile, both across and

within nations, especially from less developed to more developed regions. In more affluent countries, UN estimations show 15.7% of people under age 20 were immigrants in 1990, and the share had increased to 18.9% by 2013 (United Nations, 2013). Access to education is not always guaranteed to migrant youth, especially those with irregular legal status. A survey of migration policies in 28 countries, including 14 developed countries with high rates of human development and 14 developing countries with lower human development scores, found that 40% of the former and more than 50% of the latter did not allow children with irregular status access to schooling (Klugman and Pereira, 2009). In addition to formal restrictions, migrants with irregular status may avoid formal schooling for fear of detention or deportation (Bartlett, 2015). It is difficult to determine how many displaced children and youth are denied access to schooling, but estimates from 2004 suggested at least 27 million children and young people affected by armed conflict were not in school, the vast majority of whom were internally displaced (Ferris and Winthrop, 2010)

Moreover, deportation policies adversely affect migrants and their education opportunities. Several countries have expanded the number of offences that result in deportation and have

**Deportation policies adversely affect migrants and their education opportunities**

#### **Box 3.1: Contrasting approaches to south–south migrants in Ecuador and the Dominican Republic**

Due to an internal economic crisis and intensification of armed conflict in Colombia, between 1999 and 2004 Ecuador experienced increased immigration. Nearly 60,000 Colombians were living in Ecuador by 2013, leading to policy challenges including separated families, children without parental care and growing numbers of asylum seekers. Ecuador addressed these through its 2008 constitution, which, taking a human rights approach, incorporated notions of universal citizenship, free circulation of people, and migrants as deserving full access to services provided by the state. Since 2012, migrant children and youth in Ecuador have no longer been defined as foreigners, but rather as ‘vulnerable’, with special needs related to ‘human mobility’. Under the new constitution, Ecuador is committed to guarantee that private, public and religious schools will provide support and adapt the learning environment to satisfy the needs of this population.

The Dominican Republic and Haiti share the island of Hispaniola and a 380 kilometre border. The Dominican Republic faces pressures because the politically influential

members of the Dominican economic elite rely upon (and therefore tolerate) Haitian immigrant labour, but anti-Haitian sentiment flares regularly. In 2005, the Inter-American Human Rights Court ruled that the Dominican Republic had to comply with its 2002 constitution, which guaranteed access to education for all children, regardless of immigration status. Since that ruling, the government has generally encouraged primary schools to allow all children to register. Nevertheless, birth certificates are required for secondary school students, cutting short the education of thousands of children. Until 2010, Article 11 of the Dominican constitution guaranteed citizenship to almost anyone born on its territory. Then the constitution was changed so that citizenship is reserved for children born in the country to at least one parent who is a ‘legal resident’. In 2013, a Dominican high court denationalized unauthorized people of Haitian descent born in the Dominican Republic since 1929. The denial of birth certificates and national identification cards has led to the denial of other rights, including the right to basic education.

Source: Bartlett, (2015).

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significantly increased the number of migrants deported. Detention and deportation disrupt the schooling of children, not only if the children themselves are subject but if their parents are instead (Chaudry et al., 2010).

Meeting the specific needs of migrant students requires extra financial resources that are put to effective use (Brind et al., 2008). In the Netherlands, the Educational Priority Policy provided additional funding for poorer and ethnic minority students (Karsten, 2006). The British Excellence in Cities programme, for students living in disadvantaged urban areas where many migrants reside, provides support for teaching and learning, mentors, and information and communication technology (ICT), with some positive results (Kendall et al., 2005).

Language education policies and support for language learning is essential for the education of immigrant youth and their future engagement with the labour market (Christensen and Stanat, 2007). According to the OECD's Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), in most countries, immigrants who speak the language of instruction at home maintain an estimated half a grade level advantage on average in mathematics over those who speak a different language at home, with an even greater gap in reading (Christensen and Stanat, 2007; Schnepf, 2004). This partly accounts for the fact that in most OECD countries, except Australia and Canada, first-generation migrants trail on average their native-born peers by about 1.5 school years in PISA assessments (Nusche, 2009).

Many institutional factors affect the education of immigrant youth, including support for early childhood education; age of school entry; the prominence, timing and consequences of ability grouping or tracking; school quality; rigour; diversity and responsiveness of curricula and pedagogies; and openness to cultural and religious diversity (Crul and Holdaway, 2009). A project that compared second-generation Turkish and Moroccan immigrants in six European countries showed that institutional arrangements, including the starting age for compulsory schooling, contact hours in primary school, timing of tracking, and apprenticeships made critical differences for immigrant

students (Crul and Holdaway, 2009; Crul and Vermeulen, 2003).

The challenges facing domestic migrants have often been seen in the context of poor education provision in urban slum areas. Their education needs have received somewhat less attention, perhaps partly because the intensity of internal migration is slightly declining across the globe (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2013). However, unprecedented rates of domestic migration in China, which had already taken place during the 1990s, created enormous pressure on the Chinese education system to respond (**Box 3.2**).

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**Monitoring goal 3 requires information on values, attitudes and non-academic skills**

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the processes or amounts. A results-based approach, strengthening the link between aid intervention and results, involves agreements between donor and recipient to release aid upon the achievement of measurable targets. Although this is a relatively new way to disburse aid, it amounted to more than US\$5 billion in 2010 (Pereira and Villota, 2012), including through models such as cash-on-delivery. The United Kingdom's partnership with Ethiopia in 2012 was the first to introduce a pilot cash-on-delivery aid approach in the education sector. In Rwanda, the United Kingdom allotted 10% of its education support in the form of results-based aid, beginning in 2013 for an initial period of three years (ICAI, 2012a).

It is too early to evaluate the approach's effectiveness. However, a key danger is that donors put their own aims ahead of the needs of beneficiary countries so as to make progress towards time-bound targets. Investment in the education sector, unlike other sectors, cannot be translated into immediate results in a short period. Donors are not focusing on areas of education that have proven benefits; for example, almost no aid was disbursed to ECCE and female literacy over the past decade (Fredriksen, 2012).

### *Aid strategies need to expand beyond achieving access*

The most tangible outcome of education aid has been expanded enrolment, especially in basic education. An increase in aid to education equivalent to 1% of a recipient country's GDP is associated with increases in primary completion of 1.6% per year and in the primary net enrolment ratio of between 2.5% and 5% (Michaelowa and Weber, 2007).

The impact of foreign aid on gender parity has been found to be minimal, perhaps because many countries have reached or are on their way to achieving gender parity in primary education (Maiga, 2014). Girls face larger obstacles in entering primary schooling than boys do, but once in school they have an equal chance of completing (UNESCO, 2012b). While donor education policies often address gender inequity in terms of access and retention, the less easily measurable issue of gender equality is usually not mentioned (Mercer, 2014). Moreover, the more challenging factors that keep girls from entering school in the first

place – such as poverty-related issues, distance to school, the opportunity cost of girls' schooling, and cultural beliefs – could be addressed by more effective donor aid (Maiga, 2014).

More effective aid could also help in achieving the sixth EFA goal, improving the quality of education. A review of DFID aid to education in three East African countries noted that it had largely failed to address learning-related issues. However, DFID's education programme in India has a target of a 2% increase in the proportion of children who, after two years of primary school, have sufficient fluency to read to learn (ICAI, 2012b). To address the poor progress towards goal 6, donor strategies are beginning to look beyond education access and emphasize the importance of quality, including through considerable investment in regional and international achievement assessments (Riddell, 2012).

### **The role of humanitarian aid to the education sector**

A common perception of humanitarian aid is that it is used in the short term to address crises that end. Evidence says otherwise: a majority of international humanitarian assistance goes to long-term recipient countries. In 2012, 66% of humanitarian assistance from OECD donors went to countries that had received above-average shares of aid in the form of humanitarian assistance for eight or more years (Development Initiatives, 2014).

With protracted emergencies occurring more frequently, the education sector in the past decade has tried to convince the humanitarian aid sector that investment in education is life-saving. The Dakar Framework hoped the world could 'meet the needs of education systems affected by conflict, natural calamities and instability and conduct educational programmes in ways that promote mutual understanding, peace and tolerance, and that help to prevent violence and conflict'.

Definitions of aid to education in humanitarian situations continue to be narrow, however. The Central Emergency Response Fund (CERF), a standby pooled funding mechanism intended to make money available for relief work as soon as the need arises, has particular criteria for

**Almost no aid was disbursed to ECCE and female literacy over the past decade**

funding education, including provision of school tents, education and recreational materials, emergency repair of education facilities, teacher training in emergencies and provision of life-saving skills (CERF, 2010). That education is perceived as life-saving in such narrow terms means it continues to be neglected within an already under-resourced humanitarian aid system (UNESCO, 2011b).

### *Humanitarian aid appeals still neglect education*

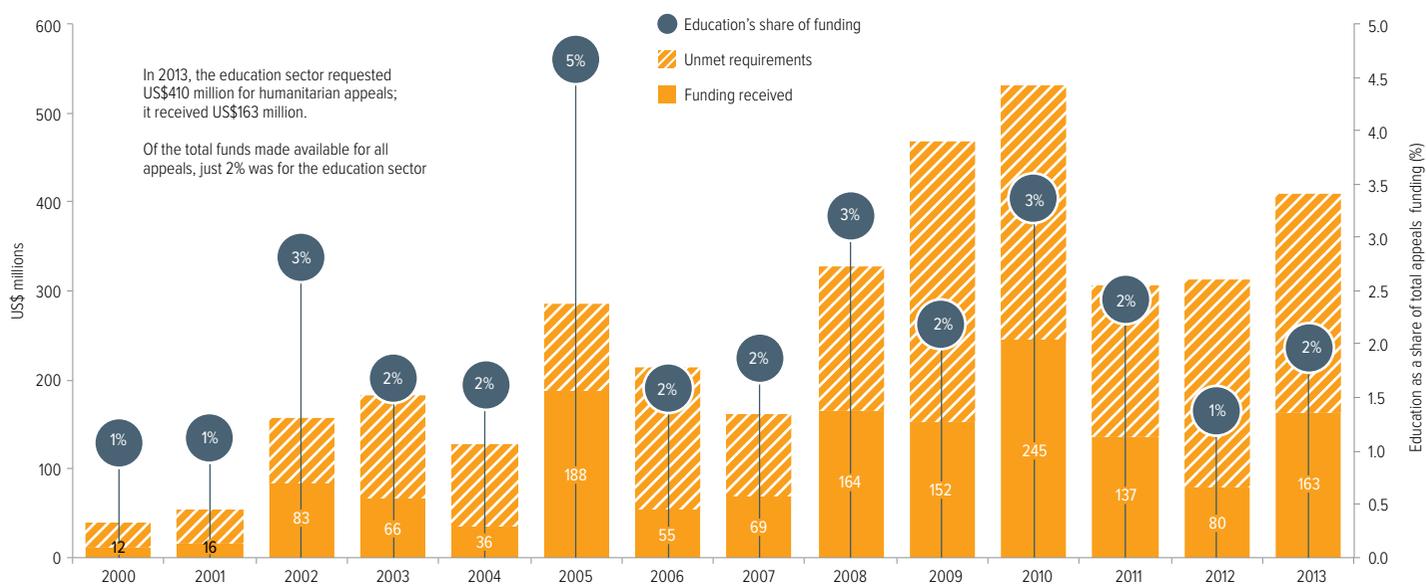
In 2010, a resolution by the UN General Assembly called on member states to increase humanitarian funding to education and supporting diverse funding channels (United Nations, 2010). In 2012, recognizing the importance of the education sector as life-saving, over 20 stakeholders – governments, UN agencies, the private sector and CSOs – called for doubling the percentage of total humanitarian aid earmarked for education to at

least 4% of all funds from humanitarian appeals (United Nations, 2012).

Despite this, the sector has not come close to the target. In 2013, it received 2% of funds from humanitarian appeals (Figure 8.18). It continues to receive one of the smallest proportions of requests for humanitarian aid – 40% of what it requested in 2013, compared with 86% for the food sector and 57% for the health sector.

Moreover, while 4% was a useful target for advocacy, it falls short of the needs of all beneficiaries. In 2013, for instance, 9 million beneficiaries<sup>16</sup> were targeted for education programmes through the UN consolidated appeal process (CAP).<sup>17</sup> The failure to fully fund the CAP requirements meant that only about 3 million beneficiaries received humanitarian funding. In addition, even if the donor community had allocated 4% of humanitarian funding to education, some 19.5 million children would have

**Figure 8.18: Humanitarian funding to education peaked in 2010**  
Share and volume of humanitarian funding to education, 2000–2013



Source: Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (2014).

16. This total comprises children, youth and teachers needing education support.

17. The CAP is an advocacy tool for humanitarian financing and long-term development in which projects managed by the United Nations, NGOs and other stakeholders approach the donor community together to seek funding for international development activities.

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not been covered by the CAP (Education Cannot Wait, 2014).

Humanitarian aid must also go beyond the issue of allotment to ensure prioritization across emergencies. How can different crisis appeals be funded so countries are not left behind? In 2013 in South Sudan, three-quarters of the CAP total was funded, while in Djibouti the figure was one-third (Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs, 2014). High-impact crises that cause many fatalities in a short period tend to be much better funded than protracted emergencies. In all, 7 high-profile events<sup>18</sup> have received 44% of humanitarian funding for education since Dakar, out of a total of 260 education appeals (Dolan, 2011).

*Humanitarian aid is vital to help countries rebuild after crises*

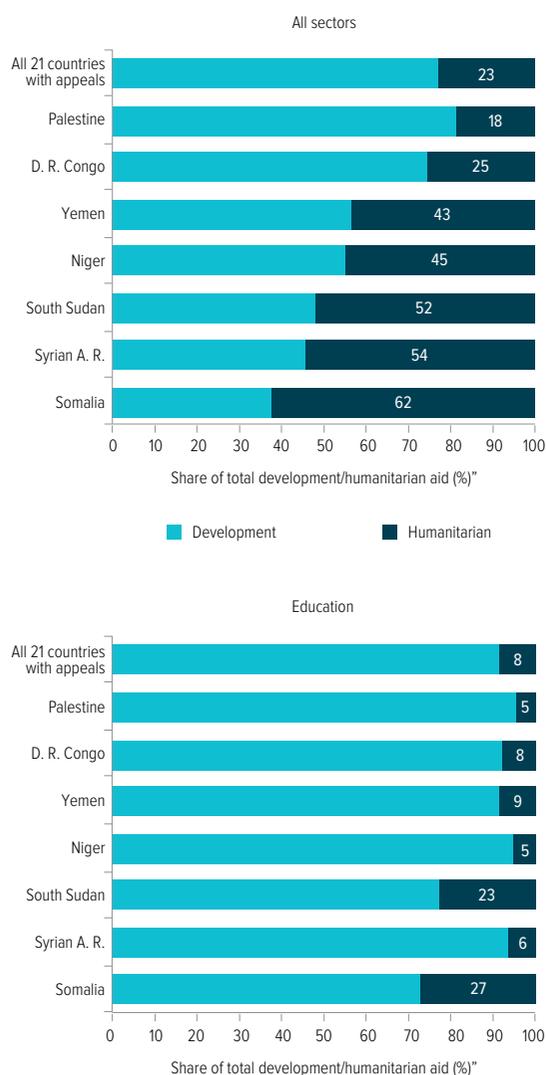
Some 36% of the world's out-of-school children live in conflict-affected countries, up from 30% in 1999. Many of these countries are the furthest from achieving the EFA goals and need support from external donors to help ensure progress. Many conflict-affected countries, together with fragile states, have been the subject of a years-long CAP to raise resources for an effective humanitarian response.

In many cases, humanitarian aid makes up a large share of total resources channeled to such countries. In 2012, for the 21 countries in a CAP, humanitarian aid made up 23% of total resources.<sup>19</sup> Total humanitarian aid for Somalia, where civil war has continued for more than two decades, amounted to over 60% of external resources.<sup>20</sup> However, it represented 27% of total external financing for the education sector; for all 21 countries, humanitarian aid to education accounted for 8% of total external resources (Figure 8.19).

Humanitarian funding for education in conflict-affected countries in 2012 was US\$105 million, much less significant than the US\$1.1 billion

in development aid funding for education. The difference demonstrates the lack of prioritization of education by humanitarian funding, which is particularly problematic in countries that receive more humanitarian funding than development aid. In Mali, development aid to basic education decreased rapidly from US\$136 million in 2008 to US\$40 million in 2012 (OECD-DAC, 2014), yet since conflict began in 2010 the education sector has been one of the most poorly funded through

**Figure 8.19: Humanitarian aid is a key form of financing for many conflict-affected countries, but education's share falls short**  
Share of external financing made up of humanitarian aid, 2012



Sources: OECD-DAC (2014); Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (2014).

18. Invasion of Afghanistan (2001), Indian Ocean tsunami (2005), South Asia earthquakes (2005), Cyclone Nargis in Myanmar (2008), Sudan (2008 and 2010) and the Haiti earthquake (2010).

19. This encompasses humanitarian and development aid. Development aid here means sector allocable aid.

20. External resources are development and humanitarian aid.

humanitarian aid, which has failed to make up for the reduction in development funding. Furthermore, humanitarian and development aid have different governance structures, which must collaborate to address the education sector's disadvantage.

*Pooled funding has had an impact in fragile states but needs to be scaled up*

A variety of mechanisms are open to donors to fund education in fragile states, such as development (recovery) funding, humanitarian appeals and multidonor trust funds. But the Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergency recommends pooled funding for education in fragile states to reduce transaction costs and increase coordination and harmonization. Two years after the conflict in Sierra Leone ended, a multidonor pool provided general budget support for ten years, disbursing GBP 10 million a year. This was crucial in supporting recurrent expenditure as well as complementing efforts in building governance. Higher spending in MDG-related areas had a direct impact on service delivery in the education sector (Manuel et al., 2012).

Three types of pooled funding mechanisms are used in the disbursement of humanitarian aid: CERF, Common Humanitarian Funds (CHFs) and Emergency Response Funds (ERFs). CERF covers all countries affected by an emergency. CHFs and ERFs are country-specific and provide country-based pooled and predictable funding for implementing agencies on the ground.

Despite a recommendation to scale up pooled funding mechanisms, the volume of humanitarian aid for education flowing through CERF, ERFs and CHFs has not changed since 2010. In volume terms, CHFs typically make up the bulk of humanitarian aid resources for education from pooled funding mechanisms. The standby funding from CERF amounts to a very small share of funding to education, averaging 1.37% between 2006 and 2014 (United Nations, 2014c). The share of total humanitarian funding for the education sector disbursed through the three mechanisms rose steeply in proportionate terms from 2010 to 2012 – from 6.7% to 22.1% – then fell, declining to 11.7% by 2013 (Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs, 2014).



**In Bangladesh, the number of children in BRAC pre-schools is estimated to roughly equal that in programmes run by the Ministry**

# EDUCATION FOR ALL 2000-2015: ACHIEVEMENTS AND CHALLENGES

The twelfth edition of the *EFA Global Monitoring Report* – marking the 2015 deadline for the six goals set at the World Education Forum in Dakar, Senegal, in 2000 – provides a considered and comprehensive accounting of global progress. As the international community prepares for a new development and education agenda, this report takes stock of past achievements and reflects on future challenges.

There are many signs of notable advances. The pace towards universal primary education has quickened, gender disparity has been reduced in many countries and governments are increasing their focus on making sure children receive an education of good quality. However, despite these efforts, the world failed to meet its overall commitment to Education for All. Millions of children and adolescents are still out of school, and it is the poorest and most disadvantaged who bear the brunt of this failure to reach the EFA targets.

*Education for All 2000–2015: Achievements and Challenges* provides a comprehensive assessment of country progress towards the EFA goals and highlights the work that remains. It highlights effective policies and makes recommendations for monitoring and evaluating education targets after 2015. It also provides policy-makers with an authoritative source with which to advocate that education be a cornerstone of the post-2015 global development architecture.

The *EFA Global Monitoring Report* is an editorially independent, evidence-based publication that serves as an indispensable tool for governments, researchers, education and development specialists, media and students. It has assessed education progress in some 200 countries and territories on an almost annual basis since 2002. This work will continue, throughout the implementation of the post-2015 sustainable development agenda, as the *Global Education Monitoring Report*.

*One of the major reforms since 2000 is the policy where every child must go to school. This has assisted every person to taste the fruits of education. It may have robbed the farmers of their labour force, but it has given them the seeds for a better life in the future.*

– Sonam, teacher in Bhutan

*Parents that have faced the hardships of not being able to write letters, use mobile phones or ATMs do all they can to provide their children with an education so they don't ever become excluded due to illiteracy.*

– Omovigho Rani Ebireri,  
University of Maiduguri, Nigeria

*I left because of the things that were happening, with the rebels. They destroyed our school, we couldn't go any more. They didn't like the way some of the girls were dressed. They yelled at us, saying that what we were wearing wasn't good. They broke our school desks, destroyed our school books and our things. School is supposed to be a place where we learn things.*

– Sita, student in Nigeria

*Every child under 5 has to attend pre-school. Early childhood education is a major priority.*

– Martha Isabel Castano,  
Primary school teacher, Colombia



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