World education report

2000

The right to education

Towards education for all throughout life

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Foreword

The *World Education Report 2000*'s focus on education as a basic human right is a fitting choice for the International Year for the Culture of Peace. Education is one of the principal means to build the 'defences of peace' in the minds of men and women everywhere – the mission assumed by UNESCO when the Organization was created more than half a century ago. The twentieth century saw human rights accepted worldwide as a guiding principle. Our ambition for the new century must be to see human rights fully implemented in practice.

This is therefore a good moment for the international community to reflect on its understanding of, and commitment to, the right to education. Education is both a human right and a vital means of promoting peace and respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms generally. If its potential to contribute towards building a more peaceful world is to be realized, education must be made universally available and equally accessible to all.

The challenge is daunting. Despite the progress made in the decades that have passed since the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was proclaimed, there are more than 800 million illiterate adults in the world today, and nearly 100 million primary-school-age children (and an even larger number of secondary-school-age children) are not in school. Moreover, millions of those who are in school do not benefit from an education of sufficient quality to meet their basic learning needs. These needs are daily becoming more pressing as the vast changes in the world wrought by globalization and the revolution in information and communication technologies threaten to marginalize entire populations still living in dire poverty.

This report, the fifth in UNESCO's biennial series of *World Education Reports*, is aimed at promoting reflection on the many different facets of the right to education, extending from initial or basic education to lifelong learning. The report is also designed to complement the Education for All 2000 Assessment undertaken by the international community as a follow-up to the World Conference on Education for All (Jomtien, Thailand, 1990). This assessment process, culminating at the World Education Forum in Dakar, Senegal, in April 2000, is leading to a global renewal of and re-commitment to Education for All as a bedrock of peace and all forms of development, to pledges to intensify efforts and accelerate progress towards EFA, and to the resolve to find new and better ways to achieve EFA goals. The perspectives in this report should serve both as a backdrop to, and motivation for, this commitment and the new intensive courses of action that it is generating.

It is my hope that this report, through its wide-ranging and yet concise overview and analysis, will contribute to a better international understanding of the nature and scope of the right to education, of its fundamental importance for humanity and of the challenges that still lie ahead to ensure its full implementation.

Koïchiro Matsuura
Director-General of UNESCO

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Figures and tables for which no source is indicated have been drawn from the database of the UNESCO Institute for Statistics. In these figures and tables, where a regional breakdown is shown, there is an overlap between the two regions of sub-Saharan Africa and the Arab States (see Appendix II, page 112).

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Acknowledgements

THE INFORMATION presented in this report is drawn selectively from the range of information available to UNESCO from both official and unofficial sources, including in particular the national reports of Member States presented at past sessions of the International Conference on Education, the replies of Member States to the Sixth Consultation on the Implementation of the Convention and Recommendation against Discrimination in Education, and the reports and other material provided by Member States, international organizations and other participants at recent international conferences organized by UNESCO on Adult Education (Hamburg, 1997), Higher Education (Paris, 1998) and Technical and Vocational Education (Seoul, 1999).

The report has been prepared by the World Education Report Unit of the Secretariat's Education Sector, under the general direction of Colin N. Power, Deputy Director-General for Education, in collaboration with the UNESCO Institute for Statistics. The staff of both the Education Sector and the Institute for Statistics provided advice and suggestions as well as background material.

A number of individuals and organizations outside UNESCO also contributed advice and suggestions and/or background material. A preliminary draft of the report was reviewed by members of an editorial advisory group comprising Victor Billeh, Stephen P. Heyneman, Phillip Hughes, Pai Obanya, Adama Ouane, Sema Tanguiane, Katarina Tomasevski and Peter R. C. Williams. Background papers were provided by Stephen P. Heyneman, Maria Teresa Siniscalco and Robert Wood. Two international meetings were sponsored by UNESCO as part of the background preparation of this report: a round table on the theme, 'The role of measurement and evaluation in education policy', organized by the International Association for Educational Assessment (IAEA), held at the headquarters of Educational Testing Service (ETS) in Princeton, New Jersey, United States, 29–30 June 1998, and an international colloquium on the theme, 'Le droit à l'éducation: nouveaux contenus de l'éducation pour le vingt-et-unième siècle', organized by the French National Commission for UNESCO in co-operation with the Centre international des études pédagogiques (CIEP) in Sèvres, France, 1–3 July 1999. The proceedings of these meetings have been published in Frances M. Ottobre (ed.), *The Role of Measurement and Evaluation in Education Policy*, Paris, UNESCO, 1999, and in the *Revue international d'éducation*, Sèvres, Nos. 24–25, December 1999–March 2000. The kind co-operation of all these individuals and organizations is gratefully acknowledged. None of them necessarily agrees with the views expressed in the report.

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A multi-faceted right

International Year for the Culture of Peace (2000) has reminded the world of the conditions that ultimately need to be established if a lasting peace is to be realized. These conditions are stated in the Preamble of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights: 'Recognition of the inherent dignity and of the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world'. As the new century unfolds, young and old alike will be called upon to examine their understanding of and commitment to these rights.

It is in this spirit that the present report focuses on the right to education, both as a right in itself and as a means of promoting peace and respect for human rights generally. The story of how this right originally came to be expressed in the now-familiar terms of Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (Box 1.1) is told in Appendix I (pages 93–107). The report itself is concerned with developments since then, in particular the successive commitments to implementation of this right that have been agreed by the international community over the years since the Declaration was proclaimed, and in broad terms the progress that has actually been made towards its implementation.

Readers who are not familiar with the background of how the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was drawn up are encouraged to read Appendix I first. The unique spirit of co-operation and tolerance for sometimes very different points of view that went into the preparation of the Declaration is itself a wonderful example of what education everywhere should aim to foster, indeed, of what Article 26 of the Declaration aims to promote.

Before taking up the whole story of what has happened in regard to the right to education since the Universal Declaration was proclaimed, it will be useful in this introductory chapter to deal with certain general questions about this right and how progress towards its implementation can be assessed.

A multi-faceted right

As spelled out in the three separate paragraphs of Article 26, the right to education has several different facets, both quantitative and qualitative. Moreover, questions concerning its implementation are to a considerable extent bound up with questions of interpretation. 'Everyone has the right to education', the Declaration proclaims. But what does this mean? The right to any kind of education? At any time? Who shall provide it?

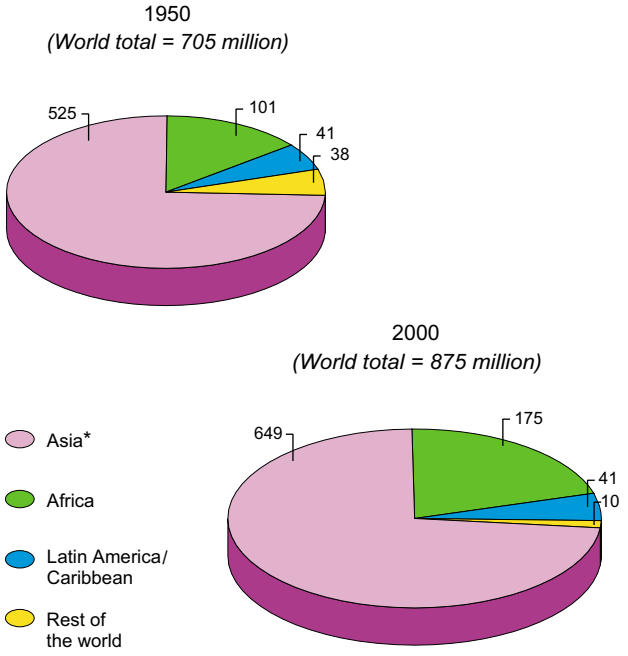
That these questions are not easy to answer is in part a measure of the changed circumstances in which the right to education has come to be applied. When the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was drawn up, only a minority of the world's young people had access to any kind of formal education, let alone a choice among different kinds, and little more than half of the

Box 1.1
The right to education:
Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights

1. Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.
2. Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.
3. Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children.

Source: Universal Declaration of Human Rights Adopted and Proclaimed by the General Assembly of the United Nations on the Tenth Day of December 1948, Final Authorized Text. New York, United Nations, 1950.

Figure 1.1
Estimated number of illiterate adults (aged 15 and over) by major region of the world, 1950 and 2000



* For 1950, data for the Asian countries of the former USSR are included in Rest of the world.

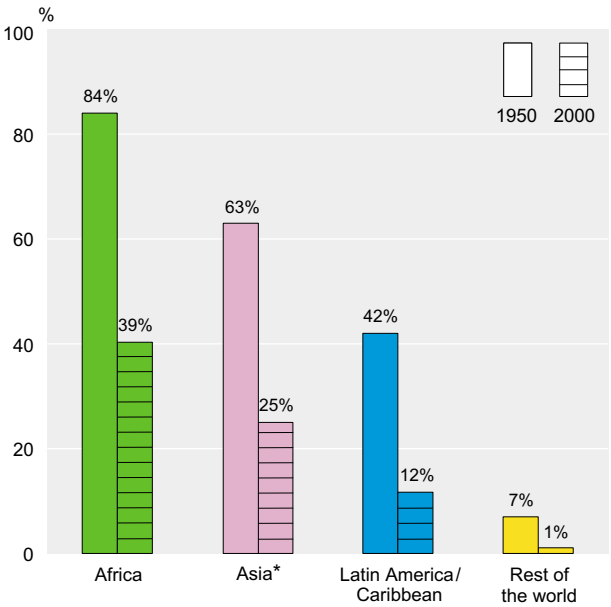
Source: Figures for 1950 are taken from *World Illiteracy at Mid-Century,* p. 15, Paris, UNESCO, 1957.

world's adults could read and write a simple passage about their everyday lives. For those who drew up and adopted the Declaration, it was vital to ensure first that access to and participation in education should be universal: 'Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages', and 'Elementary education shall be compulsory'. At the same time, 'Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit'.

Educational opportunities have greatly increased in the years since the Declaration was proclaimed. A majority of the world's young people now go to school, and participation in formal education beyond the elementary and fundamental stages has expanded. Four out of five adults in the world today are estimated to have at least some simple literacy skills (see Appendix II, Table 3, page 114). Although the absolute number of illiterate adults in the world is larger than it was in 1948 (Figure 1.1), it is now estimated to be falling, and the percentage of illiterate adults in every region of the world has significantly declined (Figure 1.2).

Yet, despite these advances, it is uncertain how much real progress has been made. The problem is not just one of assessing trends in opportunities for access to education. The right to education was conceived from the beginning as having a qualitative as well as a quantitative aspect. 'Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental

Figure 1.2
Estimated adult illiteracy rates by major region of the world, 1950 and 2000



* The same footnote applies as for Figure 1.1.

Source: Same as for Figure 1.1.

Box 1.2
'The time to learn is now the whole lifetime'

Education is coming to occupy an ever larger place in people's lives as its role among the forces at work in modern societies increases. There are several reasons for this. The traditional division of life into separate periods – childhood and youth devoted to schooling, adulthood and working life, and retirement – no longer corresponds to things as they are today and corresponds still less to the demands of the future. Today, no one can hope to amass during his or her youth an initial fund of knowledge which will serve for a lifetime. The swift changes taking place in the world call for knowledge to be continuously updated, and at the same time, the initial education of young people is tending to become more protracted. A shorter working life, shorter working hours and a longer expectancy of life after retirement are also increasing the time available for other activities.

Education, too, is changing fast. More and more opportunities for learning out of school are occurring in all fields, while skills, in the traditional sense of the term, are giving way in many modern sectors of activity to the ideas of developing competence and adaptability.

The traditional distinction between initial education and continuing education therefore needs to be reconsidered. Continuing education that is really in harmony with the needs of modern societies can no longer be defined in relation to a particular time of life (adult education as opposed to the education of the young, for instance) or to too specific a purpose (vocational as opposed to general). The time to learn is now the whole lifetime, and each field of knowledge spreads into and enriches the others. As the twenty-first century approaches, education is so varied in its tasks and forms that it covers all the activities that enable people, from childhood to old age, to acquire a living knowledge of the world, of other people and themselves. [...] It is this educational continuum, coextensive with life and widened to take in the whole of society, that the Commission has chosen to refer to in this report as 'learning throughout life'. A key to the twenty-first century, learning throughout life will be essential for adapting to the evolving requirements of the labour market and for better mastery of the changing timeframes and rhythms of individual existence.

Source: J. Delors et al., *Learning: The Treasure Within, Report to UNESCO of the International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century*, pp. 99–100, Paris, UNESCO Publishing, 1996.

freedoms', proclaims the second paragraph of Article 26. 'It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace'. How well have these purposes been fulfilled? Are people's literacy skills, for example, whether in industrial or developing countries, adequate to enable them to participate fully in the political, economic, social and cultural life of their society? And what of 'tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups'? Memory of the abuse of education for the purposes of political propaganda and stirring up racial and national hatreds in the period before the Second World War was still fresh when the Declaration was drawn up. How much better is the situation today? Are schools doing all that they can to counter problems of social exclusion and discrimination? In sum, mere access to education still leaves open the question of whether the education is directed to good purposes, for the individual and society.

There remains too the question of choice: by whom, and how, are the purposes and contents of education to be decided? 'Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children', proclaims the third paragraph of Article 26. While this of course was never intended to imply the right to choose an education that would be inconsistent with the principles of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights itself, since Article 2 of the Declaration proclaims that 'Everyone is entitled to all the rights

and freedoms set forth in this Declaration', it nonetheless recognizes that within the broad limits of Article 2, and of Article 26 itself, there can be different approaches to the purposes and contents of education. How widely today, though, have appropriate mechanisms and conditions for the exercise of such choice been established?

Finally, there is the question of education's boundaries, indeed, the meaning of the notion of 'education' itself. If it is the case that 'the time to learn is now the whole lifetime', and that education is a 'continuum, coextensive with life', as suggested for example by the International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century (Box 1.2), then 'education' can not be taken to mean just 'schooling'. While not denying the importance of schooling, the World Conference on Education for All (Jomtien, Thailand, 1990) essentially defined 'basic education' as action designed to meet 'basic learning needs' (Box 1.3). Yet, beyond the satisfaction of such 'needs', what is it that everyone has the right to? Any and all action designed to meet 'learning needs'? Equal opportunity to learn? Equal educational opportunity? Education throughout life? Learning throughout life? All such possibilities?

These and other related questions have all been raised at one time or another over the past half century since the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was proclaimed, as will be seen later in this report. They cannot really be avoided if the basic principle of 'Everyone has the right to education' is accepted.

The chapters which follow consider the extent to which the worldwide expansion of education over the past half century, and successive stated commitments by the international community to ensure the implementation of the various aspects of the right to education, have represented progress towards the realization of this right. Chapter 2 focuses on the expansion of education at what is referred to in Article 26 of the Universal Declaration as the 'elementary and fundamental stages'. Chapter 3 focuses on the expansion of education beyond these stages. Chapter 4 considers the successive commitments that have been agreed to by the international community in regard to education's purposes.

Box 1.3
Meeting basic learning needs

1. Every person – child, youth and adult – shall be able to benefit from educational opportunities designed to meet their basic learning needs. These needs comprise both essential learning tools (such as literacy, oral expression, numeracy, and problem-solving) and the basic learning content (such as knowledge, skills, values and attitudes) required by human beings to be able to survive, to develop their full capacities, to live and work in dignity, to participate fully in development, to improve the quality of their lives, to make informed decisions, and to continue learning. The scope of basic learning needs and how they should be met varies with individual countries and cultures, and inevitably, changes with the passage of time.
2. The satisfaction of these needs empowers individuals in any society and confers upon them a responsibility to respect and build upon their collective cultural, linguistic and spiritual heritage, to promote the education of others, to further the cause of social justice, to achieve environmental protection, to be tolerant towards social, political and religious systems which differ from their own, ensuring that commonly accepted humanistic values and human rights are upheld, and to work for international peace and solidarity in an interdependent world.
3. Another and no less fundamental aim of educational development is the transmission and enrichment of common cultural and moral values. It is in these values that the individual and society find their identity and worth.
4. Basic education is more than an end in itself. It is the foundation for lifelong learning and human development on which countries may build, systematically, further levels and types of education and training.

Source: World Conference on Education for All, Meeting Basic Learning Needs, Jomtien, Thailand, 1990, *World Declaration on Education for All*, Article 1, New York, Inter-Agency Commission (UNDP, UNESCO, UNICEF, World Bank) for the World Conference on Education for All, 1990.

Box 1.4
The right to education: Articles 13 and 14 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966)

Article 13

1. The States Parties to the present Covenant recognize the right of everyone to education. They agree that education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and the sense of its dignity, and shall strengthen the respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. They further agree that education shall enable all persons to participate effectively in a free society, promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations and all racial, ethnic or religious groups, and further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.

2. The States Parties to the present Covenant recognize that, with a view to achieving the full realization of this right:
(a) Primary education shall be compulsory and available free to all;
(b) Secondary education in its different forms, including technical and vocational secondary education, shall be made generally available and accessible to all by every appropriate means, and in particular by the progressive introduction of free education;
(c) Higher education shall be made equally accessible to all, on the basis of capacity, by every appropriate means, and in particular by the progressive introduction of free education;
(d) Fundamental education shall be encouraged or intensified as far as possible for those persons who have not received or completed the whole period of their primary education;
(e) The development of a system of schools at all levels shall be actively pursued, an adequate fellowship system shall be established, and the material conditions of teaching staff shall be continuously improved.

3. The States Parties to the present Covenant undertake to have respect for the liberty of parents and, when applicable, legal guardians to choose for their children schools, other than those established by the public authorities, which conform to such minimum educational standards as may be laid down or approved by the State and to ensure the religious and moral education of their children in conformity with their own convictions.

4. No part of this article shall be construed so as to interfere with the liberty of individuals and bodies to establish and direct educational institutions, subject always to the observance of the principles set forth in paragraph 1 of this article and to the requirement that the education given in such institutions shall conform to such minimum standards as may be laid down by the State.

Article 14

Each State Party to the present Covenant which, at the time of becoming a Party, has not been able to secure in its metropolitan territory or other territories under its jurisdiction compulsory primary education, free of charge, undertakes, within two years, to work out and adopt a detailed plan of action for the progressive implementation, within a reasonable number of years, to be fixed in the plan, of the principle of compulsory education free of charge for all.

Source: The International Covenants on Human Rights and Optional Protocol, pp. 8–9, New York, United Nations Office of Public Information, 1976.

Commitments to implementation

The international community's commitment to implement the rights and freedoms set out in the Universal Declaration, i.e. to adopt measures designed to ensure their effective recognition and observance, has over the years taken various forms ranging from international treaties to internationally agreed Programmes and Frameworks for Action. Those relating to the right to education are of particular concern to this report. Their main forms are noted briefly below.

The most important are the multilateral treaties. The Universal Declaration itself, although of historic importance in setting out standards of achievement in human rights, does not have the

force of law. It is not a treaty but an internationally endorsed statement of principles. The transformation of the principles into treaty provisions establishing legal obligations on the part of each ratifying state was undertaken in two covenants prepared after the Declaration was adopted: the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights.

In contrast to the preparation of the Declaration, the preparation of the Covenants was a much longer process undertaken over a period of eighteen years. The two Covenants were adopted by the United Nations' General Assembly in 1966, but another ten years were to pass before a sufficient number of States (thirty-five) had ratified them to bring them into force, i.e. make them legally binding on the ratifying States.

The right to education is dealt with in Articles 13 and 14 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (Box 1.4), and is also mentioned in Article 18(4) of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights. The latter affirms the 'liberty of parents and, when applicable, legal guardians to ensure the religious and moral education of their children in conformity with their own convictions', as stated in paragraph 3 of Article 13 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.

Besides the Covenants, which together aim at a comprehensive coverage of the rights and freedoms set out in the Universal Declaration, a large number of other international treaties have been adopted over the years in regard to specific rights, or specific aspects of some or all of the rights, e.g. the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1979). The five principal international treaties relating directly to education are:

- International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966);
- Convention against Discrimination in Education (1960);
- Protocol Instituting a Conciliation and Good Offices Commission to be Responsible for Seeking the Settlement of any Disputes which may arise between States Parties to the Convention against Discrimination in Education (1962);
- Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989); and
- Convention on Technical and Vocational Education (1989).

The position as regards ratification of these treaties is shown in the table at the end of Appendix I (pages 108–109).

While the number of countries which have ratified a given treaty can be taken as a fair measure of the international community's overall degree of 'commitment' to its provisions, it should be noted that the ratification process allows countries, if they wish, to include with their instruments of ratification a formal declaration on how the country intends to interpret one or more of the treaty's provisions, or alternatively a reservation that it does not intend to implement one or more provisions at all. For example, in respect to Article 13 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (henceforth referred to as 'the Covenant'), Ireland made the following Reservation:

> Ireland recognizes the inalienable right and duty of parents to provide for the education of children, and, while recognizing the State's obligation to provide for free primary education and requiring that children receive a certain minimum education, nevertheless reserves the right to allow parents to provide for the education of their children in their homes provided that these minimum standards are observed.

In regard to the same article, Japan indicated that it 'reserves the right not to be bound by "in particular by the progressive introduction of free education" referred to in the said provisions', while Zambia indicated that although it 'fully accepts the principles embodied in the same article and undertakes to take the necessary steps to apply them in their entirety, the problems of implementation,

and particularly the financial implications, are such that full application of the principles in question cannot be guaranteed at this stage'. With particular reference to paragraphs 3 and 4 of Article 13, the government of the former People's Republic of the Congo declared: 'In our country, such provisions are inconsistent with the principle of nationalization of education and with the monopoly granted to the State in that area'.

Nevertheless, the number of States which have made formal interpretative Declarations and/or Reservations in regard to Article 13 and/or Article 14 of the Covenant is relatively minor: 16 out of a grand total of 139 ratifying States.

Ratifying the Covenant or any of the other treaties is one thing; concrete measures by countries to implement their provisions is another matter altogether. With the exception of the special case of the UNESCO Protocol, each of the treaties provides for a procedure or mechanism to monitor implementation: basically the submission of periodic reports by countries to the United Nations or UNESCO, as the case may be, on the measures taken to implement the provisions of the treaty in question. In the case of the Covenant, for example, the national reports are examined by the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights of the United Nations' Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC).

The effectiveness of the monitoring is highly dependent on the quality of the national reports submitted by countries. There are no sanctions of course for failure to implement the treaties. Nevertheless, the monitoring bodies can exert moral pressure on countries by issuing reports and making recommendations. The ECOSOC Committee mentioned above, for example, has also developed the practice of periodically issuing General Comments on the implementation of particular Articles; a General Comment in regard to Article 13 was issued in 1999 *(General Comment No. 13, The Right to Education [Article 13 of the Covenant]*, United Nations, Economic and Social Council, Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, Twenty-first session, 15 November–3 December 1999, Document No. E/C.12/1999/10). In addition, the United Nations' Commission on Human Rights – the body which originally drafted the Universal Declaration – decided in 1998 to appoint for a period of three years a Special Rapporteur on the right to education, with the mandate specifically 'to report on the status, throughout the world, of the progressive realization of the right to education', as well as to carry out several other tasks.

Besides these official monitoring arrangements, it also remains open to individual citizens in each ratifying country, depending on the legal system in the country, to challenge their own State on non-compliance with the provisions of a given treaty if they believe that to be the case. In countries with highly developed legal systems, as in Western Europe for example, there now exists a substantial body of case law in regard to the right to education.

All these considerations point to the need for caution in taking the ratification of a given treaty as a clear signal of 'commitment' – in other than a legal sense – to implement its provisions.

In addition to treaties, countries have adopted many other forms of commitment to implementation of the right to education or particular aspects of it, ranging from agreed Recommendations of international conferences of States, e.g. the Recommendation concerning the Status of Teachers (1966), which was highlighted in the previous edition of this report *(World Education Report 1998)*, to Declarations and Programmes or Frameworks for Action adopted by intergovernmental conferences, or by 'mixed' conferences composed of representatives of governments, international organizations and civil society such as the World Conference on Education for All.

While the Recommendations formally agreed by international conferences of States do not have the legally binding force of treaties, they are normally adopted by consensus on the understanding that States will make best efforts to implement

their provisions. As regards the various international Declarations and Programmes of Action that have been adopted from time to time by 'mixed' international conferences: they also do not have the legally binding force of treaties, but in so far as their provisions substantially overlap with existing treaties and Recommendations (as in the case of the Declaration and Framework for Action adopted by the World Conference on Education for All) they provide an additional impulse to implementation of previous, formally agreed commitments. At the same time they have more flexibility for introducing new concepts that are not directly expressed by existing treaties and Recommendations, e.g. 'Meeting basic learning needs'.

Shifts of emphasis

Different aspects of the right to education have been emphasized by the international community at different times over the years since the Universal Declaration was adopted. These shifts of emphasis are of particular concern in the chapters which follow because in some cases, as will be seen, they have been accompanied by the expression of less than full commitment to one or other of the principles originally proclaimed in Article 26 of the Universal Declaration, and in other cases by the affirmation of new principles not specifically mentioned in the Declaration.

Consider, for example, the relatively straightforward case of 'free' education. 'Free' fundamental education is mentioned in the Declaration but not in the Covenant. On the other hand, 'the progressive introduction of free education' in respect to both secondary and higher education is mentioned in the Covenant but not in the Declaration. In the Convention on the Rights of the Child, 'free education' is mentioned in respect to secondary, but not higher education, while 'fundamental education' is not mentioned at all (Box 1.5). In the light of all this, what is the extent and depth of the international community's commitment to the principle of 'free' education? Does this principle apply to 'basic education', for example?

Or take a different case: 'lifelong learning'. This concept is not mentioned in the Universal

Box 1.5
Article 28 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989)[1]

1. States Parties recognize the right of the child to education, and with a view to achieving this right progressively and on the basis of equal opportunity, they shall, in particular:
(a) Make primary education compulsory and available free to all;
(b) Encourage the development of different forms of secondary education, including general and vocational education, make them available and accessible to every child, and take appropriate measures such as the introduction of free education and offering financial assistance in case of need;
(c) Make higher education accessible to all on the basis of capacity by every appropriate means;
(d) Make educational and vocational information and guidance available and accessible to all children;
(e) Take measures to encourage regular attendance at schools and the reduction of drop-out rates.
2. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to ensure that school discipline is administered in a manner consistent with the child's human dignity and in conformity with the present Convention.
3. States Parties shall promote and encourage international co-operation in matters relating to education, in particular with a view to contributing to the elimination of ignorance and illiteracy throughout the world and facilitating access to scientific and technical knowledge and modern teaching methods. In this regard, particular account shall be taken of the needs of developing countries.

1. The second of this Convention's two Articles concerning education, Article 29, is shown in Box 4.7 on page 82.

Source: Convention on the Rights of the Child, New York, United Nations, 1989 (A/RES/44/25).

Box 1.6
'A war can never be reduced to an unpredictable event'

A conflict never begins on the day that war is declared. Indeed, there is a more general rule; namely, that no given event – of little or great importance – such as a revolution, a coup d'état, a riot, etc., begins on the day that it hits the headlines. An event builds up over time, developing slowly underground, causing brief tremors on the surface of current events, small intermittent signs of a potential crisis that is not quite ready to 'break out' (as a war breaks out) in the media. Those in the communications field have a remarkable gift for ignoring or underestimating the piece of 'news' that is truly worthy of our attention, to wit, a long string of small incidents symptomatic of trouble and unrest that should be dealt with before it is too late – events which, if left to build up for too long, will inevitably explode into conflicts serious enough to make the lead story of the television news.

The many warning signs are surely, for citizens, the only piece of news worth having. But because they are not 'spectacular' enough, the short-sighted approach to news as 'entertainment' results in their being ignored. Then, suddenly, war with its waves of horrifying images, ceases to be *bona fide* news and turns into entertainment complacently served up for television viewers.

At the beginning of February 1993, a television newscaster spoke of what he naïvely referred to as 'a forgotten conflict' – meaning the Armenia-Azerbaijan conflict – which was no longer televised because, as he said, 'we haven't any footage'. But if professional journalists are not sent out to look for the facts, cover the news and bring us a true picture of reality, then what purpose do they serve? The news-entertainment show thus becomes a source of ongoing disinformation. A news service worthy of the name will patiently and doggedly try to detect the symptoms of unrest and to decipher their meaning before the event violently surfaces, and will ensure that the situation is not forgotten.

A war can never be reduced to an unpredictable event. The Caen Peace Memorial clearly demonstrates the slow process that led to the Second World War and the deaths of 50 million people. It was a time of economic crisis, unemployment and despair, marked by the emergence of demagogues claiming to be 'saviours', mass hysteria brought on by social and cultural frustrations, intense bitterness, national and ethnic chauvinism and the wild antics of frenzied crowds. The real 'event' resided in these phenomena, and the war itself was just the summit of the volcano. The lethal chain of circumstances seems clear – after the event. At the time, very few people saw the danger coming before it was too late. And even fewer dared to speak out.

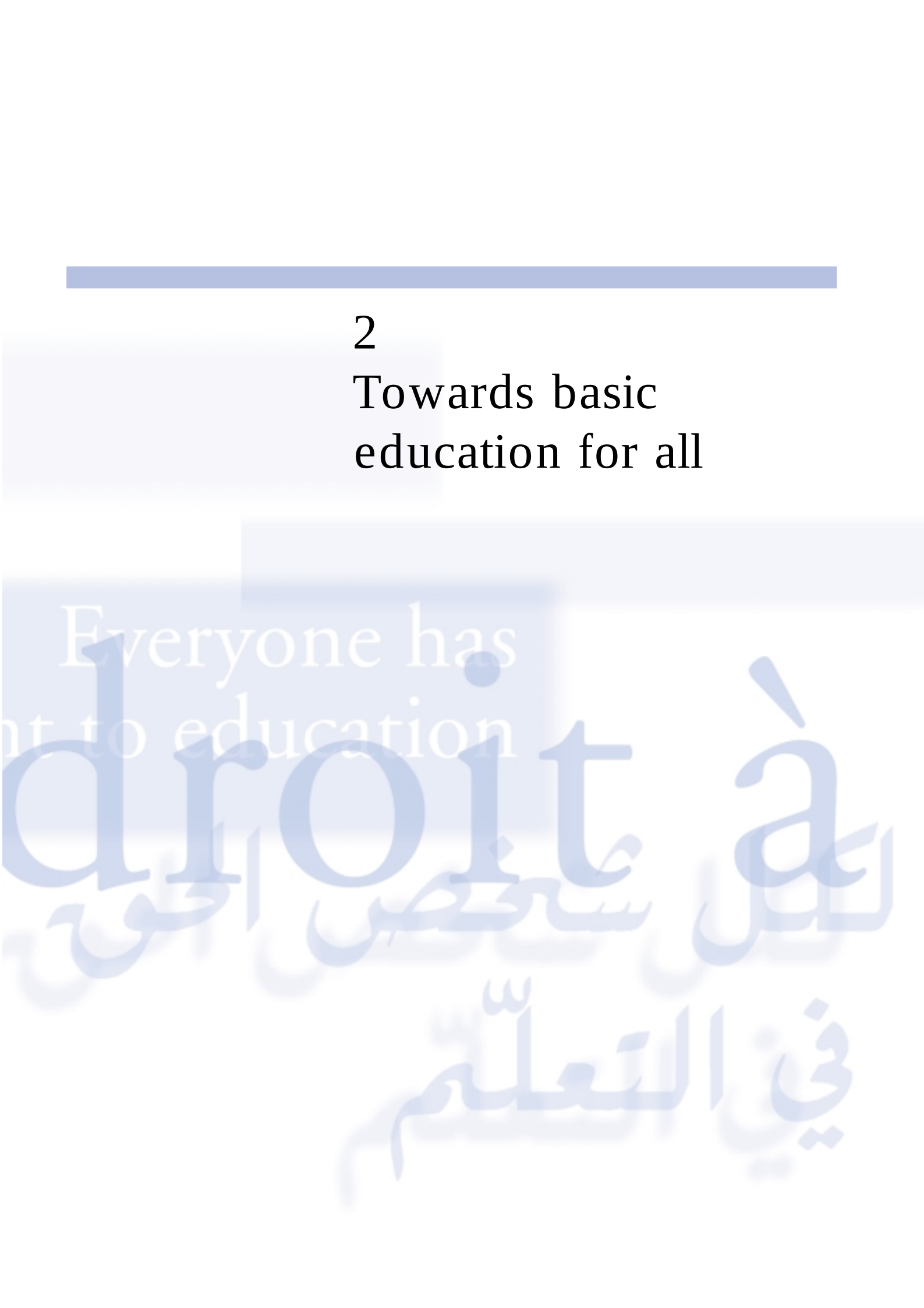
Source: Bernadette Bayada et al. (eds.), *L'éducation à la paix*, pp. 6–7, Paris, Centre national de documentation pédagogique (CNDP), 1994. (Compiled at the close of the 15th International Congress for Peace. Preface by Claude Julien.)

Declaration or in any treaty, but features in the World Declaration on Education for All as something for which 'basic education' is 'the foundation' (see Box 1.3 on page 19). How much priority can, or should be, given in 'basic education' to laying this 'foundation' as distinct from, say, 'strengthening respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms'?

Words matter, for they are used to express principles. Recognizing this, the General Assembly of the United Nations, immediately following the adoption of the Universal Declaration, specifically called upon all member countries to publicize the text of the Declaration and 'to cause it to be disseminated,displayed, read and expounded principally in schools and other educational institutions. . . '. Yet, if different principles are emphasized today over those that are embodied in one or more of the rights proclaimed in the Declaration, especially the right to education, how can it be convincingly explained to young people that such rights, indeed any of the rights proclaimed in the Declaration, are 'inalienable'?

It would be through apparently small 'exceptions' to particular rights – as the result of 'a long string of small incidents', so to speak (Box 1.6) – that the hopes embodied in the Declaration as a whole could eventually be undermined.

2
Towards basic education for all



THERE HAS BEEN A CHANGE in the world's perception of the right to education over the past few decades. Whereas the Universal Declaration of Human Rights proclaims that 'Everyone has the right to education', that elementary and fundamental education shall be 'free' and that 'Elementary education shall be compulsory', the Declaration adopted by the World Conference on Education for All proclaims that 'Every person – child, youth and adult – shall be able to benefit from educational opportunities designed to meet their basic learning needs'. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights does not mention 'learners' or 'learning needs', and the World Declaration on Education for All does not mention 'elementary', 'fundamental', 'free' or 'compulsory' education.

The twin notions of 'elementary and fundamental education' have been overtaken by the notion of 'basic education', while at the same time there has been a shift of emphasis from 'education' to 'learning': from what society should supply, so to speak, i.e. education that is 'free', 'compulsory' and 'directed towards', to what members of society are said to demand ('educational opportunities designed to meet their basic learning needs').

This chapter considers how these changes came about and their implications for the implementation of the right to education. The parallel shift of emphasis in respect to post-compulsory education, from 'lifelong education' to 'lifelong learning', is considered in Chapter 3.

Historically, the changes occurred in three phases or stages. In the first phase, lasting from the late 1940s up until the early 1960s, international concern over the provision of 'fundamental education' came to focus particularly on the eradication of illiteracy, while at the same time pressures built up for the expansion of elementary education, especially in the newly independent developing countries. In the second phase, lasting from the mid-1960s up until the late 1970s, the focus on illiteracy broadened to encompass 'functional illiteracy', while at the same time a vast expansion of elementary education got under way. In the third phase, lasting from the early 1980s up until the present, 'functional literacy' came to be regarded as a particular aspect of 'learning needs', while at the same time 'elementary education' came to be regarded as forming part of 'basic education' designed to meet 'basic learning needs'.

The chapter has three main sections. The first two consider global trends and developments in education and educational policies relating to the shift from 'fundamental education' towards 'functional literacy' and 'learning needs'. The third focuses on trends and developments relating to the shift from 'elementary' to 'basic' education.

'Fundamental education'

The term 'fundamental education' has largely gone out of use today, at least in international debate and discussion about education, but at the time when the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was drawn up, it was more in vogue. It was included in the Declaration specifically in order to recognize the right to education for illiterate adults and others who had not had the opportunity when they were young to receive a full elementary education (see Appendix I, pages 97–99).

The question of interpretation

The term first came into use internationally when it was adopted by the Preparatory Commission of UNESCO in 1946. This Commission, composed of representatives from the various countries involved in establishing UNESCO, was charged with drawing up a proposed plan of work for the Organization to be submitted to UNESCO's first General Conference in November-December 1946. Among other things, the Commission's proposals included provision for work in the field of 'Fundamental Education', which was put forward as one of UNESCO's primary fields of interest. In the

Box 2.1
The content, means and methods of 'fundamental education' (UNESCO, 1949)

Content
While the whole range of human activity provides the subject matter of fundamental education, each particular programme should give first attention to the most pressing needs and problems of the community concerned. The content, therefore, varies widely with circumstances; but in the long run it should include:

- Skills of thinking and communicating (reading and writing, speaking, listening and calculation);
- Vocational skills (such as agriculture and husbandry, building, weaving and other useful crafts, and simple technical and commercial skills necessary for economic progress);
- Domestic skills (such as the preparation of food and the care of children and of the sick);
- Skills used in self-expression in the arts and crafts;
- Education for health through personal and community hygiene;
- Knowledge and understanding of the physical environment and of natural processes (for example simple and practical science);
- Knowledge and understanding of the human environment (economic and social organization, law and government);
- Knowledge of other parts of the world and the people who live in them;
- The development of qualities to fit men to live in the modern world, such as personal judgment and initiative, freedom from fear and superstition, sympathy and understanding for different points of view;
- Spiritual and moral development; belief in ethical ideals, and the habit of acting upon them; with the duty to examine traditional standards of behaviour and to modify them to suit new conditions.

Means and methods
The very difficulty of the task of fundamental education brings with it a sense of urgency. If the measures taken are to be effective, they must produce widespread and lasting results. Full use should be made of all possible educational agencies, and the latest techniques for the teaching of adults should be tried.

Corresponding to the diverse human needs, several forms of activity have been developed in fundamental education programmes: adult literacy campaigns, agricultural and health training and extension services, co-operatives, organizing of community groups for cultural ends. An expanded and improved primary schooling can provide one firm institutional basis for fundamental education: community centres, with library and museum techniques, may play a similar part. All these activities require teaching methods which include but go beyond the direct teacher-pupil relationship – hence the importance of the media of mass communications: the printed word, the film and the radio.

Fundamental education is concerned with the community as a whole, and should lead to social action. The methods must therefore be chosen with this end in view: to help people to help themselves.

Source: Fundamental Education, A Description and Programme, pp. 11–12, Paris, UNESCO, 1949.

words of Julian Huxley, the Executive Secretary of the Preparatory Commission and UNESCO's first Director-General:

Where half the people of the world are denied the elementary freedom which consists in the ability to read and write, there lacks something of the basic unity and basic justice which the United Nations are pledged together to further. Fundamental Education is only part of the wider and fuller human understanding to which UNESCO is dedicated, but it is an essential part.

There was some uncertainty at that time over what exactly was meant by 'fundamental education', especially as this term did not correspond to any of the terms then in use in most countries to describe a particular level or part of their education systems, but there was general agreement that it meant an education that would provide for the acquisition of literacy and the other essential skills, knowledge and values needed for full participation in society (Box 2.1). It was preferred to other cognate terms which were circulating then,

such as 'Mass Education', 'Popular Education' (a term which was included in UNESCO's Constitution) and 'Basic Education'. 'Mass Education' for example, was specifically rejected because it 'evoked unpleasing connotations of educational methods which paid insufficient attention to individual differences' (*Fundamental Education: Common Ground for All Peoples,* p. 12, Paris, UNESCO, 1947. Report of a Special Committee to the Preparatory Commission of UNESCO, Paris, 1946).

As can be seen by comparing Box 2.1 with Box 1.3 in the previous chapter (page 19), the content at least of 'fundamental education' was conceived not very differently from that of 'basic education' half a century later, the main differences being the emphasis of 'fundamental education' on the 'pressing needs and problems of the community', and that of 'basic education' on preparation for 'lifelong learning'. The latter notion was not current in the 1940s. 'Fundamental education' was regarded as a kind of 'minimum' or 'basic amount' of education that each community or society needed to provide for everyone; the question of access to, or preparation for education beyond this 'minimum' was mostly left to one side.

From an operational standpoint, in terms of 'means and methods' of implementation, 'fundamental education' was broadly interpreted as community education (adult literacy programmes, agricultural and health education, and so on). In some formulations of the community education approach, as seen for example in Box 2.1, it was suggested that primary schooling could serve as 'one firm institutional basis for fundamental education', along with community centres. This later developed into the idea of 'community education centres' providing primary schooling as well as adult literacy and other non-formal adult education programmes.

At that time, some experience of the community education approach had been accumulated in certain countries such as Brazil, India and Mexico, but there was little real understanding internationally of how to go about implementing this approach on a scale that could seriously respond to the 'fundamental education' needs of the vast rural populations of Africa, Asia and Latin America which had never experienced any formal education. At the grass-roots level, the approach presupposed a certain degree of community initiative and responsibility, as well as the capacity of communities to mobilize the necessary material and human resources for education, whether for formal education such as primary schools, or for non-formal education such as agricultural extension and health education. In much of Africa and Asia in the 1940s and 1950s, and also to a large extent in Latin America, significant advances in the provision of 'fundamental education' at the community level could hardly be made without the injection of substantial financial and/or material and human resources from outside the community, and this was not a major priority for most governments at that time.

Still, those who drew up the Universal Declaration of Human Rights were arguably less concerned with the precise form that 'fundamental education' should take than with the problem it was intended to address, namely, the millions of illiterate adults and others in the world who had not previously had an opportunity for modern education, whether formal or non-formal. How this problem could best be tackled was essentially a practical and not a theoretical matter: it would depend on the efforts undertaken – and the experience thus gained – by individual countries, whatever the label these efforts went under.

Overlap with adult education and literacy

The notion of 'fundamental education' remained current internationally for only a decade or so, while its concern with literacy was absorbed into an expanded concept of 'adult education'.

At first, 'fundamental education' and 'adult education' were regarded as two different aspects of

'popular education' (the term, of French origin, that was included in UNESCO's Constitution). In the majority of countries then Member States of UNESCO, 'adult education' was an older and more well-established concept than 'fundamental education', but it was mainly concerned with the learning needs of adults who had already received an elementary education and wanted 'further' or 'continuing' education. Thus, at the first International Conference on Adult Education (Elsinore, Denmark, 1949) it was agreed that illiteracy should be treated 'as part of the fundamental education field, closely related to but distinguishable from adult education'.

However, this narrow interpretation of 'adult education' could hardly be sustained in those parts of the world where a majority of adults were illiterate. Thus, in the following years, the international focus of adult education gradually widened to include literacy and the learning needs of adults who had not previously received any formal education. As a result, little room was left for a separate concept of 'fundamental education'.

In 1960 the Second International Conference on Adult Education, held in Montreal, Canada, proposed that regional seminars be organized for countries in Latin America, Asia and Africa 'having common problems in regard to Adult Education in general, and illiteracy in particular'. In 1972 the Third International Conference on Adult Education, which was convened in Tokyo, Japan, went even further, declaring flatly that 'Literacy is a cornerstone of adult education'.

More than any other factor, the advent of a large number of countries to independence in the late 1950s and early 1960s was probably decisive in shifting international concern away from the notion of 'fundamental education', in its broad 'community education' sense, to what was coming to be considered as the key problem that 'fundamental education' (and 'adult education') needed to address: the eradication of illiteracy. Since literacy is quintessentially something that is gained (or not) by the learner, this shift was the earliest sign of that larger shift of emphasis from 'education' to 'learning' which eventually culminated, many years later, in international consensus on the priority of 'meeting basic learning needs'.

Eradication of illiteracy

Pressures for international action to help eradicate illiteracy built up soon after the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was proclaimed. The United Nations was particularly concerned over the situation in colonial territories. In 1950, the General Assembly called upon UNESCO 'to communicate . . . full information on measures for suppressing illiteracy which could be applied with satisfactory results in Non-Self-Governing Territories, and to communicate annually to the United Nations an account of these measures' (Resolution 330[IV]).

In the course of the 1950s, illiteracy acquired pre-eminent status among indicators of the denial of the right to education. By the early 1960s, its eradication had become a national priority in probably a majority of the newly independent and other developing countries. The challenge was to translate this priority into effective action.

'Functional literacy'

At that time, international understanding of the various factors that needed to be taken into account in devising effective approaches to the promotion of literacy was still limited. Certain countries (notably Mexico and the former USSR) had carried out large-scale literacy campaigns before the Second World War, and there had been community education campaigns in a number of colonial territories (e.g. Northern Nigeria) after the war, but aside from these, a comprehensive body of international experience that could be drawn upon simply did not exist.

Table 2.1
Percentage of illiterates in the population aged 15 years and over as reported in national censuses in selected countries and territories[1] around 1950[2] and 1990[3]

	1950			1990		
	MF	M	F	MF	M	F
Algeria	82	79	86	50	37	64
Argentina	14	12	15	4	4	4
Bolivia	68	58	77	20	12	28
Brazil	51	45	56	20	20	20
Chile	20	18	22	6	5	6
Ecuador	44	38	50	12	10	14
Egypt	80	69	91	56	43	69
El Salvador	61	56	65	26	23	29
Greece	26	12	39	5	2	7
Guatemala	71	66	76	36	28	43
India	81	71	92	48	36	61
Mexico	43	40	47	12	10	15
Paraguay	34	25	43	10	8	11
Philippines	40	36	44	6	7	6
Portugal	44	35	52	12	8	15
Puerto Rico	27	23	30	10	11	10
Romania	23	15	31	3	2	5
Spain	18	12	23	4	2	5
Thailand	48	31	64	7	4	9
Trinidad and Tobago	26	22	31	3	2	4
Turkey	68	52	83	21	10	32
Venezuela	48	43	53	10	9	11

1. For which UNESCO has relevant data for both dates.
2. Nearest census to 1950, in no case earlier than 1946 or later than 1952.
3. Nearest census to 1990, in no case earlier than 1987 or later than 1992.

Source: Figures for 1950 are taken from *World Illiteracy at Mid-Century,* p. 47–170, Paris, UNESCO, 1957. Figures for 1990 are taken from *UNESCO Statistical Yearbook,* 1992.

A critical uncertainty was whether the ease of acquiring literacy varied from one language to another. In order to throw some light on this question, UNESCO's 'fundamental education' programme had included, among other activities, an international study of the teaching of reading and writing (W. S. Gray, *The Teaching of Reading and Writing: An International Survey,* Paris/London, UNESCO/Evans Brothers, 1956), the conclusions of which greatly influenced subsequent international action for the promotion of literacy. Two conclusions in particular were especially influential: (1) that 'the basic attitudes and skills involved in reading are the same in all languages', and (2) that the only meaningful standard of literacy is a functional one ('a person is functionally literate when he has acquired the knowledge and skills in reading and writing which enable him to engage effectively in all those activities in which literacy is normally assumed in his culture or group').

The first of these conclusions helped to pave the way for increased international co-operation in promoting literacy, although the study's concentration on reading and writing in the mother tongue left a significant gap that was not fully appreciated at the time: literacy in a second language. This has since come to be recognized as a key problem in much of Africa and in many parts of Latin America and Asia, where, in the absence of sufficient learning materials in the mother tongue, literacy in a second language is often the only literacy that learners can realistically aspire to.

The second conclusion eventually led to the adoption, in the following decade, of a 'functional literacy' approach in the design of literacy programmes and projects. It also called into question the continued usefulness of the then-international standard definition of a 'literate' person as someone 'who can with understanding both read and write a short simple statement on his everyday life'.

World illiteracy at mid-century

Other work by UNESCO in the 1950s, notably in the area of statistics, also significantly influenced subsequent national and international efforts to eradicate illiteracy. The earliest statistical estimates of the worldwide extent of illiteracy (summarized in Figures 1.1 and 1.2 in the previous chapter) were published by UNESCO in 1957. These estimates were based on an extensive review of national censuses and other surveys going back in some cases to the beginning of the century. The situation in selected countries around 1950 (and comparisons with the situation recorded by

Box 2.2
Census questions on literacy (with instructions to enumerators) used in selected countries in various censuses taken between 1900 and 1948

Argentina. (1947) 'Do you know how to read?' 'Do you know how to write?' (It is enough to know how to read and write . . . any language. . . . Return 'No' for persons who can only write numerals or sign their names.)

Brazil. (1920) 'Can you read and write?' (Answer 'Yes' or 'No'.) (1940) 'Can you read and write? (Answer 'Yes' if the person enumerated can read and write and 'No' if illiterate.)

Canada. (1931) 'Can read and write.' (If the person can *read* and *write* in any language the question will be answered by writing 'W', but if the person is able to read *only* in any language write 'R'; for a person who cannot read nor write enter 'No'. For a blind person write 'Yes' if the person could read and write in any language before becoming blind or, if, being born blind he or she has been taught to read and write. Do not return any person as able to read and write simply because he can write his own name. For persons under 5 years of age leave the column blank.)

Egypt. (1907) 'Able or not able both to read and write.' (1917) (State whether the enumerated person is able to read fluently a printed paper in some one language. . . . State whether the enumerated person is able to write by himself or from dictation a short letter in some one language. . . . Each of the two questions . . . must be put to each person, whatever his age. Refrain from putting them to children under 5 years.)

France. (1901) 'Can you read and write? (1911, 1921, 1931, 1936) 'Can you both read and write?' (1946) 'Can you read?' ('Yes' or 'No'.) 'Can you write?' ('Yes' or 'No'.)

India. (1901) (Enter against all persons, of whatever age, whether they can or cannot both read and write any language.) (1911, 1921, 1931) (Enter against all persons who can both read and write any language the word 'literate' . . . Only those are to be considered literate who can write a letter to a friend and read the answer to it.)

Italy. (1901, 1911) 'Can read' 'Cannot read.' (1921) 'Can you read?' ('Yes' or 'No'.)

Turkey. (1927) 'Can the enumerated person read printed matter?' (1935) 'Able or unable to read in the new alphabet?' 'Able or unable to write in the new alphabet?'

Source: Progress of Literacy in Various Countries, pp. 13–7, Paris, UNESCO, 1953.

national censuses conducted around 1990) is shown in Table 2.1. It may be noted that the countries with the higher illiteracy rates in 1950 generally still had the highest such rates in 1990.

An important finding of the comparative analysis of national censuses was the great variety of questions utilized in the questionnaires to identify persons who were either 'literate' or 'illiterate' (Box 2.2). In some countries, for example Italy, the question was simply whether the person could read, whereas in others (the majority) it was whether the person could both read and write. Some countries specified a level or standard of reading and/or writing, for example India ('can write a letter to a friend and read the answer to it'), and Turkey ('Able or unable to read in the new alphabet'). Canada carefully formulated its census instructions so as to allow for the special situation of blind persons. There still are differences between countries today in the questions utilized by national censuses to identify literacy/illiteracy, but a comprehensive analysis of current international practices is lacking.

This early work by UNESCO on world literacy data contributed greatly to international appreciation of the sheer scale of the challenge to eradicate illiteracy. Taking 'ability to read and write' as the criterion of literacy, and after making as much allowance as possible for differences between countries in their census definitions, it emerged that in around half the countries in the world in 1950, half or more of the adult population

Table 2.2
Estimated distribution of the world's illiterate population around 1950

Countries or territories with illiteracy rates	*Number of countries or territories*	*Estimated number of illiterate adults (millions)*	*Percentage of world's illiterate adults*
greater than or equal to 50%	97	615 to 655	90%
less than 50%	101	65 to 75	10%
World	198	680 to 730	100%

Source: World Illiteracy at Mid-Century, p. 14, Paris, UNESCO, 1957.

(persons aged 15 years and over) were estimated to be illiterate (Table 2.2). The great majority of such countries were located in Africa and Asia. In Africa, only in Lesotho and Mauritius were more than half the adults estimated to be literate. In Asia, among the larger countries or territories (those with a population of one million or more), only in Hong Kong, Israel, Japan, Myanmar, Philippines, Sri Lanka and Thailand were more than half the adults estimated to be literate. In Latin America the situation was somewhat better with more than half the adult population estimated to be literate in Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Ecuador, Mexico, Paraguay, Puerto Rico, Uruguay and Venezuela.

An important finding of the historical analysis was that the world's illiterate population appeared to be steadily increasing even as the illiteracy rate was decreasing, which broadly indicated that the expansion of educational opportunities was not keeping up with population growth. This phenomenon had been suspected at the time, but had not up to then been clearly demonstrated statistically at the global level, although it was known to be the case in certain countries. In Brazil, for example, the 1950 census showed an illiterate population of 15.3 million persons aged 15 years old and over, amounting to 51 per cent of the total population in that age-group, whereas in the previous census (1940) the corresponding figures were 13.3 million and 56 per cent. Other countries with good historical census data where the same phenomenon could be observed included Egypt, India, Mexico, Portugal, Sri Lanka, Turkey and Venezuela. Looking forward, it would not be until the late 1980s that the world's illiterate population would eventually peak (at just under 900 million). Thus, for forty years after the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was proclaimed, the absolute number of persons in the world with no meaningful experience of the right to education was actually to increase.

Alternative strategies

Two general conclusions for educational policy were drawn from the findings above. The first was the need to step up national efforts to reach out to the increasing number of illiterate adults, and the second (considered later in this chapter) was the need to accelerate access to elementary education for the younger generation so as to 'cut off the problem at its base', as was stated at the time.

Many countries expanded their literacy activities in the 1960s. Internationally, two competing views emerged concerning the appropriate strategy. One view, based largely on the pre-war experience of the former USSR (Box 2.3), stressed the 'national campaign' approach. However, national political, economic, social and cultural circumstances varied so much that this type of approach could not easily be replicated. In any case, critics charged that this approach too often resulted in people just acquiring a superficial level of literacy that could contribute little to the society's overall development. Putting 'the struggle against illiteracy' on a 'war footing', they argued, could not dispense with the need for a sound methodology based on a thorough understanding of what would induce illiterate persons to make the effort to learn to read and write.

Box 2.3
'The largest literacy campaign in history'

During the past 40 years, the Soviet Union has been the scene of the largest literacy campaign carried on in all history. In 1917, Russia was a poor backward country. She was behind in many respects, but worst of all in the matter of literacy. A census taken in 1897 revealed that 76 per cent of the population above the age of nine was unable to read or write. Illiteracy among women was three times as high as that among men. Literacy varied sharply with nationality and region. [. . .]

As long as illiteracy and ignorance prevailed the people could not be expected to participate effectively in the building of a new life, in restoring the nation's economy, developing science and raising technical standards. That is why the wiping out of illiteracy became such a pressing problem after the October Revolution. A Soviet Government decision of December 26, 191,9 'On the Liquidation of Illiteracy Among the Population [etc.]' started a country-wide literacy campaign to teach the three R's to the entire illiterate population from 8 to 50 years of age.

During the first years of the Revolution (1917–20) the task of fighting illiteracy was no easy matter. The civil war was in progress, but even then an important step was taken to eliminate illiteracy. The army became a huge school for the many millions of illiterate peasants in uniform. Compulsory schooling was introduced in every company, squadron, battery and detachment in September 1919. When the war ended, the demobilized soldiers returned to their native villages as literate men and assumed the initiative in spreading knowledge in the countryside.

From 1920, the fight against illiteracy began to be waged on a tremendous scale. Government institutions, trade unions, youth organizations, and various voluntary societies, such as the 'Down with Illiteracy' organization, all engaged in the work of teaching millions of workers and peasants to read and write. An all-Russian Emergency Commission for the Abolition of Illiteracy was set up by the People's Commissariat of Education (now the Ministry of Education) in July 1920 to co-ordinate the efforts of all the different bodies combating illiteracy.

Despite its meagre resources, the war-ravaged country allocated thousands of tons of paper for notebooks and textbooks, firewood and kerosene for heating schools, warm clothing and boots for travelling instructors.

Literacy students had their workday cut by two hours without loss of pay. Special anti-illiteracy departments were set up under town and village auspices. Educational authorities were allowed to use not only the schools but other government and public premises to teach illiterates.

Teachers, doctors, agronomists, librarians, engineers, government clerks and all college and senior high school students were enlisted in the fight. Every literate person felt it his patriotic duty to join in the growing national drive against illiteracy.

By 1926, the number of literates in the country had more than doubled. In 1932, the 'cultural army' of literacy fighters comprised about 1,200,000 recruits, while the 'Down with Illiteracy' society had more than 50,000 local branches with a membership exceeding 5,000,000. Upwards of 32,000,000 persons were taught to read and write by the illiteracy elimination schools during 1929–32 alone.

The campaign had been built up with astonishing speed and results: 1,300,000 persons were taught to read and write between 1927–28; 2,700,000 between 1928–29; 10,500,000 between 1929–30 and 22,000,000 between 1930–31.

By 1939, no less than 95.1 per cent of the men and 83.4 per cent of the women in the USSR were literate.

Source: Serafima Liubimova, 'The Largest Literacy Campaign in History', *The UNESCO Courier*, March 1958, pp. 11–12.

Thus, there emerged by the mid-1960s the idea of the 'selective approach' closely linked to the notion of 'functional literacy'. People are not 'made' literate, proponents of this approach contended, but make themselves literate when they have the motivation and incentives to do so. In other words, they learn when literacy meets their 'learning needs', although this term was not widely used at the time. Next, it was argued that in place of the 'national campaign', efforts to promote literacy should be focused intensively on organized sections of society where motivation for literacy is strongest and where opportunities exist for using education to raise the level of living and

accelerate development. This was taken to mean that literacy programmes needed to be closely integrated with socio-economic development programmes, while literacy instruction needed to be combined with the provision of relevant information and vocational training tailored to the learner's specific socio-economic (especially work) situation within the broader development context. The term 'work-oriented adult literacy training' was used at the time to describe this approach.

These ideas came to the fore internationally at the World Congress of Ministers of Education on the Eradication of Illiteracy held in Teheran in September 1965, and they provided the basic rationale for what was to become the largest ever internationally-sponsored programme specifically focused on eradicating adult illiteracy: the Experimental World Literacy Programme (EWLP) launched in 1966 by UNESCO and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP).

The Experimental World Literacy Programme and aftermath

This programme was to be a watershed in international co-operation for the eradication of illiteracy. EWLP was 'experimental' in the sense that it embraced a number of national pilot projects aiming to try out the 'selective approach' focused on 'functional' (especially 'work-oriented') literacy, and in particular to test and demonstrate literacy's economic and social 'returns'.

The hopes and expectations originally associated with EWLP were high. The 1960s marked the United Nations' first 'Development Decade', and EWLP was widely regarded at the time as a breakthrough in international recognition of the role of education in development. Among other things, EWLP was expected to provide valuable information on the relationship of literacy to social and economic development, produce a considerable impact on economic development in the countries where projects were to be conducted and prepare the way for an eventual World Campaign for the Eradication of Mass Illiteracy. Altogether, eleven countries participated directly in EWLP before the programme was phased out in the mid-1970s: Algeria, Ecuador, Ethiopia, Guinea, India, Iran, Madagascar, Mali, Sudan, the Syrian Arab Republic and the United Republic of Tanzania. A number of other countries adopted similar approaches to those of EWLP.

By virtue of its sheer size and complexity, as much as by the ideas associated with it, EWLP attracted worldwide interest. At the time of the programme's full operation, around 1971, a total of nearly a quarter of a million adults were enrolled in the various national EWLP projects, and a vast amount of original instructional materials were developed. In contributing directly to expanding the capabilities of large numbers of relatively poor people, EWLP was highly successful. However, the ambitious hopes of achieving a methodological 'breakthrough' that could justify the launching of a World Campaign were never realized. The differences between the various projects in organization, target populations, pedagogical objectives and methods were more pronounced that the similarities, and a well-defined model 'work-oriented' adult literacy methodology that could be applied on a global scale never emerged.

Promoted mainly as a technical solution to problems of 'socio-economic development' rather than simply as a transfer of resources to help implement a human right, EWLP was fated to disappoint almost as soon as it started. From the outset, due to the very nature of literacy work – compared, say, to the construction of a new road or power station – it was never really possible for EWLP to demonstrate the social and economic 'returns' that would satisfy orthodox investment criteria. Thus, the whole idea of a World Campaign to eradicate illiteracy fizzled out and has never since been revived.

The international discussion and debate over the purposes and means of promoting literacy that

flourished in the aftermath of EWLP maintained a broad consensus in favour of the concept of 'functional literacy', but this concept became increasingly accepted as relevant to a wider range of activities than just work and employment. Moreover, notwithstanding the international interest surrounding EWLP, many countries continued to mount mass campaigns for the eradication of illiteracy throughout the 1970s, e.g Algeria, Brazil, Burma (now Myanmar), Cameroon, China, Colombia, Ethiopia, Guatemala, Guinea, Indonesia, Jamaica, Mexico, Peru, Somalia, Thailand, United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia, among others. The success of many of these campaigns (in most cases achieved without any significant external assistance) and the diversity of approaches followed, further challenged the idea of a single 'model' approach as originally envisaged by EWLP.

It was at this time, in the aftermath of EWLP, that the Brazilian educator Paulo Freire's ideas concerning literacy became influential internationally. For Freire, the process of acquiring literacy, i.e. learning to read and write, was necessarily accompanied by the learner's increasing consciousness of his/her existential situation and of the possibility of acting independently to change it, a process which he termed 'conscientization', and which today would more likely be called 'empowerment'. In that perspective, literacy programmes necessarily had a 'political', and not merely technical-pedagogic, dimension (Box 2.4).

Freire's ideas were influential in opening the way to an appreciation of the many uses of literacy beyond those relating to work and employment which had been given so much emphasis in EWLP: uses ranging from the exercise of civil and political rights to the upbringing of children, from reading for pleasure and enjoyment to reading for self-instruction or spiritual enlightenment. Learning to read and write, many advocates urged, was a crucial step in the process of learning to learn.

Thus, the notion of 'functional literacy' was gradually pointed towards a more inclusive

Box 2.4
The 'political option' in literacy teaching (Paulo Freire, 1921-1997)

Whenever I have had to deal with the problem of adult literacy programmes, as now, I have never reduced it to a set of techniques and methods. I do not want to underestimate or overestimate their importance. But methods and techniques, which are obviously indispensable, are always created and re-created in the context of their real applications. What seems fundamental to me is the clear-cut position which the teacher must assume in relation to the political option; this implies values and principles, a position with respect to the 'possible dream' that is to be accomplished. It is impossible to dissociate techniques and methods from the 'possible dream'. For example, if a teacher opts for capitalist modernization, then adult literacy programmes cannot go beyond, on the one hand, enabling persons to read texts with no regard to content, and on the other, increasing their chances of selling their labour on what is not accidentally called the 'job market'. If the teacher opts for another solution, then the essential task of the literacy programme is to help illiterates to discover the importance not of being able to read alienated or alienating stories, but of making history, while being fashioned by it.

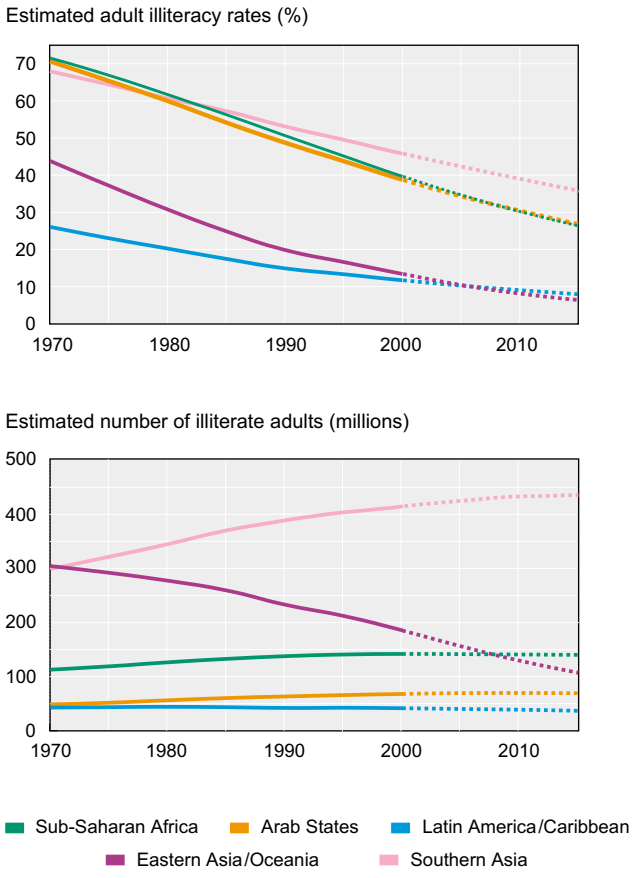
[. . .]

When the separation between thought and language, and reality no longer exists, then being able to read a text requires a 'reading' of the social context from which it stems. It is not enough to know mechanically the meaning of 'Eve saw the vineyard'. It is necessary to know what position Eve occupies in the social context, who works in the vineyard, and who profits from this work.

Those who defend the neutrality of adult literacy programmes are right in accusing us of political acts when we try to clarify the reality in the context of such a programme. But they also falsify the truth in denying the political aspect of their own efforts to mask reality.

Source: Paulo Freire, 'Are Literacy Programmes Neutral?', in Leon Bataille (ed.), *A Turning Point for Literacy*, Oxford, Pergamon Press, 1976, pp. 195–200. (Proceedings of the International Symposium for Literacy, Persepolis, Iran, 3–8 September, 1975.)

Figure 2.1
Trends in adult illiteracy in the less developed regions, 1970-2015



concept, that of 'learning needs', under which literacy could be accommodated both on its own account and as a necessary condition for satisfying many other 'learning needs'. By the mid-1980s, the idea of illiterate adults and others who lacked formal education having a 'right to learn' had entered international discussion and debate. The Fourth International Conference on Adult Education (Paris, 1985), for example, felt moved to declare that 'recognition of the right to learn is now more than ever a major challenge for humanity'. At this time, as will be noted later in the chapter, elementary education, whether formal or non-formal, was increasingly coming to be regarded as a process that should be designed to meet 'basic learning needs'. From this point, it was only a short step towards the demands of the World Conference on Education for All that society should aim to satisfy the 'basic learning needs' of everyone, whether children, youth or adults.

Secular trends

Trends in world literacy have reinforced the shift above towards the more inclusive concept of 'learning needs'. Throughout the 1970s and 1980s – the earliest decades for which UNESCO has continuous time series estimates – illiteracy rates in the world's less developed regions steadily declined (Figure 2.1). This trend continued into the 1990s. In a growing number of countries, illiteracy as such, at least by the traditional measure of being unable to read and write a short simple statement about one's everyday life, was no longer the characteristic educational condition of the majority of the adult population. Thus, whereas half the countries in the world had estimated adult illiteracy rates of over 50 per cent in 1950 (Table 2.2), only twenty-three countries are estimated to have such high rates today (see Appendix III, Table 2, pages 132–5). A majority of countries in the world today have estimated illiteracy rates of below 10 per cent; in these countries and many others with low illiteracy rates, implementation of the right to education for adults represents a more complex challenge than was the case fifty years ago.

Nevertheless, illiteracy is still the characteristic educational condition of large numbers of adults in the world's less developed regions, and the numbers are estimated to be increasing in most of these regions, although at progressively slower rates (Figure 2.1). In Eastern Asia/Oceania, a long-standing national literacy campaign in China appears to have been decisive in bringing the number down. In the other regions, the expansion of elementary education, which has mainly been

responsible for bringing down the overall rates of illiteracy, has not so far managed to stem the flow of 'new recruits' to the existing population of illiterate adults.

Moreover, despite the progress made over the past few decades in reducing world literacy inequalities, whether these refer to differences in literacy rates between males and females or between the major regions of the world (Table 2.3), the majority of illiterate adults in the less developed regions of the world still are females (Figure 2.2) and there still are regions (Southern Asia, Arab States and the group of Least Developed Countries) where the majority of adult females themselves are estimated to be illiterate. In every region with the exception of Latin America and the Caribbean, females account for a growing percentage of all illiterate adults. The percentage will continue to grow if girls are not given equal access to primary schooling.

Besides its growing concentration among women, world illiteracy is also increasingly concentrated geographically in Southern Asia and the least developed countries in sub-Saharan Africa. Of the twenty-three countries with estimated adult illiteracy rates higher than 50 per cent today, fifteen are located in sub-Saharan Africa and five in Southern Asia (see Appendix III, Table 2, pages 132–5). The three large Southern Asia countries, Bangladesh, India and Pakistan, are together estimated to account for nearly half (45 per cent) of the world's illiterate adults today, compared to around one-third in 1970 (Table 2.4).

Yet, notwithstanding that there is still a vast number of illiterate adults in the world, growing numbers of the world's adults have received some formal education and have acquired some simple literacy skills. Even in those countries with the largest numbers of illiterate adults, listed in Table 2.4, that today account for nearly three-quarters of the world's illiterate adults, the estimated increase in the number of literate adults

Figure 2.2
Estimated number (millions) of literate and illiterate males and females aged 15 and over in the less developed regions, 2000

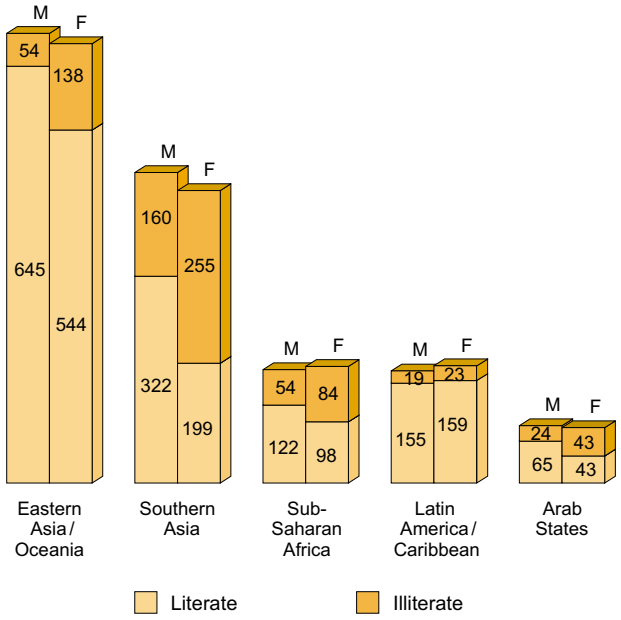


Table 2.3
Estimated adult literacy rates, by region, 1970 and 2000

	1970			2000		
	MF	M	F	MF	M	F
World	63	71	55	79	85	74
More developed regions and countries in transition	95	97	94	99	99	98
Less developed regions	47	59	35	73	81	66
of which:						
Sub-Saharan Africa	29	39	19	61	69	54
Arab States	29	44	15	62	73	50
Latin America/Caribbean	74	78	70	88	89	88
Eastern Asia/Oceania	56	70	42	86	92	80
Southern Asia	32	45	18	56	67	44
Least developed countries	27	39	16	51	61	41

Table 2.4
Estimated adult illiteracy in 1970 and 2000 in countries with more than 10 million illiterate adults in 1970

	1970					2000						
	Number of illiterate adults (millions)		Adult illiteracy rate (%)			Number of illiterate adults (millions)		Adult illiteracy rate (%)			Proportion of world total illiterate adults (%)	
	Total	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Female	Total	Male	Female	1970	2000
China	244	157	49	34	64	152	111	16	8	24	28	17
India	221	130	67	53	81	289	179	43	32	55	26	33
Indonesia	30	20	44	31	56	19	13	13	8	18	3	2
Pakistan	28	15	79	68	91	49	30	54	40	69	3	6
Bangladesh	28	15	76	65	88	49	29	59	48	70	3	6
Nigeria	22	12	80	69	90	23	14	36	28	44	3	3
Brazil	18	10	32	28	36	18	9	15	15	15	2	2
Egypt	14	9	69	54	83	20	12	45	33	56	2	2
Ethiopia	14	8	87	81	94	21	11	62	56	67	2	2
Sub-total	618	376	57	43	71	640	409	29	20	38	72	73
World	858	527	37	29	45	875	559	21	15	26	100	100

over the past thirty years (1,108 million, of which around half live in China) has far exceeded the increase in the estimated number of illiterate adults (22 million). In the world as a whole, over the same period, the increase in the number of literate adults is estimated at 1,926 million, compared to an estimated increase of 17 million in the number of illiterate adults.

Undoubtedly many of the 'literate' adults to which these statistics refer have acquired only rudimentary literacy skills. Most will have received only primary education, often of dubious quality, and some will have dropped out of school before completing their primary school studies. Thus it is uncertain what percentage of the world's adults can be classified as functionally literate in their respective societies. Recent surveys carried out in some of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries suggest that up to 20 per cent of adults in these countries can be regarded as functionally illiterate. In the less developed regions of the world, the figure is unlikely to be lower.

In a global perspective, therefore, implementation of the right to education for adults has become less a question of literacy in the traditional sense – although this indicator is still useful for the purposes of identifying the most flagrant instances of denial of the right to education – than a question of access to relevant 'learning opportunities', i.e. opportunities for the world's adults to satisfy their 'basic learning needs' (Box 2.5).

In so far as such 'learning opportunities' are embraced by the original notion of 'fundamental education', they arguably should be provided 'free' to all adults who wish to profit from them. This question, though, is bound up with the larger question, considered below, of whether 'basic education' generally should be provided free.

Elementary education

In contrast to 'fundamental education', 'elementary education' had a relatively clear interpretation in most countries at the time when the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was proclaimed. At least, it could be understood in practice to refer to the first stage or level of formal education. Most

Box 2.5
'We, the leaders of nine high-population developing nations of the world, hereby reaffirm our commitment . . . to meet the basic learning needs of all our people'[1]

1. We, the leaders of nine high-population developing nations of the world, hereby reaffirm our commitment to pursue with utmost zeal and determination the goals set in 1990 by the World Conference on Education for All and the World Summit on Children, to meet the basic learning needs of all our people by making primary education universal and expanding learning opportunities for children, youth and adults. We do so in full awareness that our countries contain more than half of the world's people and that the success of our efforts is crucial to the achievement of the global goal of education for all.

2. We recognize that:
2.1 the aspirations and development goals of our countries can be fulfilled only by assuring education to all our people, a right promised both in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and in the constitutions and law of each of our countries;
2.2 education is the pre-eminent means for promoting universal human values, the quality of human resources, and respect for cultural diversity;
2.3 the education systems in our countries have made great strides in offering education to substantial numbers, and yet have not fully succeeded in providing quality education to all of our people, indicating the need for developing creative approaches, both within and outside the formal systems;
2.4 the content and methods of education must be developed to serve the basic learning needs of individuals and societies, to empower them to address their most pressing problems – combating poverty, raising productivity, improving living conditions, and protecting the environment – and to enable them to play their rightful role in building democratic societies and enriching cultural heritage;
2.5 successful education programmes require complementary and convergent actions on adequate nutrition, effective health care and appropriate care and development of the young child, in the context of the role of the family and the community;
2.6 the education and empowerment of girls and women are important goals in themselves and are key factors in contributing to social development, well-being and education of present and future generations, and the expansion of the choices available to women for the development of their full potential;
2.7 the pressure of population growth has seriously strained the capacity of education systems and impeded needed reforms and improvements; moreover, given the age structure of the populations in our countries, it will continue to do so throughout the coming decade; and
2.8 education is, and must be, a societal responsibility, encompassing governments, families, communities and non-governmental organizations alike; it requires the commitment and participation of all, in a grand alliance that transcends diverse opinions and political positions.

1. Extract from the 'Delhi Declaration' of the Heads of State of Nine High-Population Countries, 1993.

Source: Education for All Summit of Nine High-Population Countries, New Delhi, 12–16 December 1993, *Final Report*, pp. 5–6, Paris, UNESCO, 1994.

countries already had primary schools of one kind or another, and probably in the majority of the fifty or so countries which were then Member States of the United Nations there existed constitutional requirements and/or legislation providing for some measure of free and compulsory education. In some countries at that time, the duration of compulsory education already extended beyond the primary stage or level. For those who drew up and adopted the Declaration, the principle of free and compulsory elementary education would not have appeared at the time to be an especially difficult principle to implement in the rest of the world, if there were the necessary political will and determination.

However, when interpreting subsequent progress towards the implementation of this principle, it should be borne in mind that the notion of 'elementary education' as utilized in the Declaration was not intended to refer to any particular stage

or level in the systems of formal education that were then in existence. It broadly meant an education that would give all children a good start in life.

Scope of the challenge

The scope of the challenge to provide free and compulsory elementary education for all children in the world was not fully appreciated internationally until a decade or so after the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was proclaimed. By that time, UNESCO had managed to assemble the first statistical estimates of the numbers of children in the world who were in and out of school, and national educational policy-makers in the less developed regions of the world had begun to implement initial strategies for expansion of their primary school systems.

UNESCO's earliest statistical estimates concluded that somewhat less than half of the world's children aged 5–14 years were enrolled in any kind of primary or secondary school in 1952. In half of the 201 countries and territories covered by these estimates, barely one quarter of the children aged 5–14 years were estimated to be enrolled.

Nevertheless, by the mid-1950s a considerable momentum of expansion of school enrolments had begun in most parts of the world. Behind this momentum two forces were at work. In those countries where compulsory education was already well-established, there were pressures to lengthen its duration. Measures to that effect were taken, for example, in Belgium, parts of Canada, Finland, the then-Federal Republic of Germany, Switzerland and the former USSR. In cases where the duration of compulsory education already was longer than the first stage or level of formal education, this meant extending the duration further into post-primary (sometimes called 'intermediate') or secondary education. However, in other cases, where the duration of compulsory education covered only part of the full primary cycle, and/or where the duration of this cycle was considered to be too short, measures were taken to extend compulsory education to cover the full cycle and/or to lengthen the cycle, as for example in the then-Federation of Malaya, the Philippines and Thailand.

In those countries (mostly in Africa and Asia) where compulsory education was not already established, or where it largely existed in name only, as was then the case in many countries in Latin America, there were pressures both for wider access to primary schooling as such and for better opportunities to complete it.

However, the existing model of primary schooling in many countries was unsuitable for general application and needed to be reconsidered, especially with regard to the needs of rural populations which had not hitherto had access to formal education. The contents of textbooks especially were a problem in many of the newly independent developing countries because so many of the textbooks were originally designed for use in the schools of the former colonial power. In any case, whatever school model was adopted, it could hardly be made compulsory unless it was first made generally available.

Opening up access, 1950-1970

Most of the newly independent governments in Africa and Asia in the 1950s and 1960s were much more ready to give increased priority to education in the allocation of national resources than the previous colonial administrations had been. The 1950s and 1960s, therefore, witnessed a tremendous – and historically unprecedented – expansion of primary enrolments in the less developed regions of the world (Table 2.5). Between 1950 and 1970 – barely the space of one generation – primary enrolments nearly quadrupled in Africa and trebled in Asia/Oceania and Latin America/Caribbean. In absolute terms, total primary enrolment in the three continents taken together increased from just over 100 million (half the

world total) in 1950 to over 300 million (three-quarters of the world total) in 1970.

The driving forces behind this expansion were the huge, pent-up social demands in all regions for increased access to formal education combined with the commitments of most governments to provide increased access to and resources for education.

If free and compulsory elementary education represented the ultimate goal, most governments approached the matter pragmatically. This was evident, for example, in the positions adopted at a series of regional conferences on Free and Compulsory Education organized by UNESCO during the 1950s: South Asia and the Pacific (Bombay, 1952), Arab Countries of the Middle East (Cairo, 1955) and Latin America (Lima, 1956). The Bombay conference, for example, while recommending that 'the duration of compulsory education should be no less than seven years', nevertheless conceded that 'States could begin with a shorter duration, considering it as a provisional measure until such time as they could afford a longer period of compulsory education'. The Cairo conference, which recommended a minimum duration of six years, also conceded that some States could not immediately afford it. The Lima conference, in also recommending a minimum duration of six years, noted that many Latin American countries had already established an official duration of six years but did not apply this in rural areas, where there typically existed a duration of only three years and 'a few centrally located 6-year primary schools'. The Lima conference also observed that the existing legislation in some Latin American countries put the onus of implementing compulsory education on parents, which was unfair: 'Just as school legislation imposes upon the parent the duty of sending his children to school, States should accept the obligation of providing enough schools to educate all children'. In all three conferences, it was implicitly recognized that schooling could not realistically be made compulsory unless schools were made generally available and were essentially 'free'.

The question of 'free' education, like that of compulsory education, was also approached pragmatically. In most countries at that time, 'free' education was generally taken to mean at least the absence of fees charged for attendance, but it could also be taken to mean in addition the provision of free textbooks (as was recommended, for example, by the Bombay and Cairo conferences mentioned above). Nevertheless, in all of the less developed regions of the world at that time there was wide acceptance of the idea that local communities themselves, especially in rural areas, would contribute more or less to the construction and maintenance of primary school premises, which often led to demands on parents for ad hoc contributions in cash or in kind.

The concept of 'elementary education' itself was broadly understood in most countries to mean primary schooling. While the duration and contents of this stage or level of education varied a great deal among countries, normally the aim was to provide for more than just the mere acquisition of literacy and numeracy. By the early 1960s, primary and secondary schooling were coming to be considered as 'successive phases of a continuing process' that should be

Table 2.5
Primary enrolments (millions) by continent, 1950- 1997

	1950	*1960*	*1970*	*1980*	*1990*	*1997*
WORLD TOTAL	206	342	411	542	597	668
Africa	9	19	33	62	81	100
Asia/Oceania*	84	183	253	339	367	410
Europe*	75	79	55	52	49	46
Latin America/Caribbean	15	27	44	65	76	85
Northern America	24	34	26	23	25	27

* For 1950 and 1960, the figures for Europe include data for the former USSR. For later dates, the figures for Europe include data for the Russian Federation while data for the Central Asian countries which were part of the former USSR are included under Asia/Oceania.

Box 2.6
Primary and secondary schooling considered as 'successive phases of a continuing process'

Throughout the world, over the past two decades in particular, the view has been increasingly accepted that education is a continuing process from childhood to adulthood, and that schooling should not be conceived of as comprising two radically different kinds of educational process, one primary and one secondary, for two different kinds of children, whether these different kinds of children be separated one from the other on socio-economic grounds or on the basis of their abilities and aptitudes. The terms 'primary schooling' and 'secondary schooling' are coming more and more to be considered as no longer referring to different entities, but rather to successive phases of a continuing process that cannot be sharply distinguished except arbitrarily and by doing violence to the real continuity of growth and education. In so far as school systems and scholastic methods do break the continuity of growth they are coming to be regarded as imperfect instruments of education.

Along with the growing acceptance of this integral view of education which leads to the abolition of the former sharp distinctions, is a growing acceptance also of the belief that all young people should receive as complete an education as it is possible for their communities to provide. The first stage in the acceptance of this belief is reached when it is realized that a nation loses much of its potential talent if it denies educational opportunity to the able young people of the poorer classes of the community; the final stage is reached when it is realized that a community is neglecting its human resources unless it gives to even its least able members the chance to continue to grow and develop as long as growth is possible. The corollary to such views is that communities try to develop a system of education that will be always available to all their members.

Source: World Survey of Education, Vol. III, pp. 126–7, Paris, UNESCO, 1961.

made available to all children (Box 2.6), but this was not yet a realistic possibility for most children in the less developed regions of the world.

Of more immediate concern was equality of opportunity. The vast expansion of educational opportunities initiated in the 1950s and 1960s was accompanied by pressures from social groups everywhere for equal treatment and non-discrimination in education. Although these principles were implicit in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, by virtue of the Declaration's Article 2 (which declares that 'Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration'), they were not spelled out specifically with reference to education until an international Convention to that effect was adopted in 1960 (Box 2.7).

The expansion of the 1950s and 1960s was accompanied by increased emphasis in educational policy-making on economic questions, as a consequence of both the growing demands of education on public budgetary resources and the increasing international awareness of the role of education in economic development. A corollary of this awareness became the movement in many countries towards national education planning and related efforts to integrate such planning with economic development planning. Regional indicative plans for the development of education in Asia and Africa – the so-called 'Karachi' and 'Addis Ababa' plans – were adopted by conferences of States convened by UNESCO in Karachi (1960) and by UNESCO jointly with the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa in Addis Ababa (1961). Both the 'Karachi' and 'Addis Ababa' plans aimed broadly at achieving universal primary education in their respective regions by 1980.

The non-formal dimension

The primary school model was eventually questioned. Despite the best intentions in regard to planning, the expansion of enrolments in the 1950s and 1960s was not without problems. As noted in the *World Education Report 1998*, there were widespread shortages of qualified teachers, not to speak of textbooks and other learning

Box 2.7
Discrimination in education: definitions from the Convention against Discrimination in Education (1960)

Article 1
1. For the purposes of this Convention, the term 'discrimination' includes any distinction, exclusion, limitation or preference which, being based on race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, economic condition or birth, has the purpose or effect of nullifying or impairing equality of treatment in education and in particular:
(a) Of depriving any person or group of persons of access to education of any type or at any level;
(b) Of limiting any person or group of persons to education of an inferior standard;
(c) Subject to the provisions of Article 2 of this Convention, of establishing or maintaining separate educational systems or institutions for persons or groups of persons; or
(d) Of inflicting on any person or group of persons conditions which are incompatible with the dignity of man.
2. For the purposes of this Convention, the term 'education' refers to all types and levels of education, and includes access to education, the standard and quality of education, and the conditions under which it is given.

Article 2
When permitted in a State, the following situations shall not be deemed to constitute discrimination, within the meaning of Article 1 of this Convention:
(a) The establishment or maintenance of separate educational systems or institutions for pupils of the two sexes, if these systems or institutions offer equivalent access to education, provide a teaching staff with qualifications of the same standard as well as school premises and equipment of the same quality, and afford the opportunity to take the same or equivalent courses of study;
(b) The establishment or maintenance for religious or linguistic reasons, of separate educational systems or institutions offering an education which is in keeping with the wishes of the pupil's parents or legal guardians, if participation in such systems or attendance at such institutions is optional and if the education provided conforms to such standards as may be laid down or approved by the competent authorities, in particular for education of the same level;
(c) The establishment or maintenance of private educational institutions, if the object of the institutions is not to secure the exclusion of any group but to provide educational facilities in addition to those provided by the public authorities, if the institutions are conducted in accordance with that object, and if the education provided conforms with such standards as may be laid down or approved by the competent authorities, in particular for education of the same level.

Source: Convention against Discrimination in Education, Adopted by the General Conference at its Eleventh Session, 14 December 1960, Paris, UNESCO, 1960.

materials. In many countries, there were fears for the quality of education. In response to the social demand for increased access to education, the temptation was to provide the form of education, i.e. school places, but without meaningful substance, which just resulted in ineffective learning achievement and increased student dropout rates.

The planning ideal was to tailor the output of the education system, in terms of the numbers of graduates from the different levels of the system, so as to match the economy's estimated 'manpower needs', but the economists could not always get their figures right and were not always listened to anyway. In many countries, especially in Africa, there were signs of what was called, at the time, 'the primary school leavers problem': young people who had graduated from primary school flocking to urban areas in search of white collar jobs that were not available, their education having failed to provide them with skills that could be useful elsewhere.

By the beginning of the 1970s, there were widespread doubts concerning the direction being taken by educational policies. The International

Box 2.8
'Linear expansion' in question

From an examination of national educational strategies applied in the course of the 1960s, especially in countries where school enrolment has made comparatively little progress, it emerges that their guiding principle was linear expansion of systems and the numbers of people involved. This method is now out of date. No mechanical extrapolation can now yield valid forecasts of developments in such a dynamic and living enterprise as education.

This old system programmed educational needs as a direct function of the probable evolution of student flows and of the potential for expansion of the different elements of the school system: teaching staff, equipment, buildings, classrooms, etc. Objectives were established in the light of these various forecasts.

These exclusively quantitative methods are now only valid for a stable education system making normal, regular progress. But when a system organized to handle a specific quantity of children has to take in far more, extrapolation becomes unsatisfactory.

Applying the method we are criticizing has, of course, led to undeniable quantitative progress. But status reports on the past decade make it clear that growth conceived and expressed in terms of global indicators conceals both the appearance and the exacerbation of a certain number of defects and points of imbalance.

Many countries have found that quantitative expansion of their educational systems did not go hand in hand with efficient educational action. Enormous financial and human resources were laid out to develop costly school models, the results of which often fell far short of expectations.

Linear expansion strategies can no longer be justified, either from the point of view of results obtained or their methodology. When an education system has to absorb a huge number of children, strategies must be modified, must move from the quantitative to the qualitative, from imitation and reproduction to a search for innovations, from a uniform procedure to diverse alternatives.

Source: Edgar Faure et al., *Learning to Be: The World of Education Today and Tomorrow*, pp. 172–4, Paris/London, UNESCO/Harrap, 1972.

Commission on the Development of Education (hereafter referred to as the 'Faure Commission') in 1972 considered that most policies were guided by a principle of 'linear expansion' of the existing costly and ineffective school system (Box 2.8). Some radical critics at that time called for the 'de-schooling' of society altogether.

While 'de-schooling' was clearly impractical, it nevertheless contained the germ of an idea that would have a lasting influence on educational policies worldwide: that of the 'learning society' (the term utilized by the Faure Commission), as opposed to a 'schooling' one. According to this idea, education could not be equated with schooling, but should be equated broadly with learning, or at least with whatever could meet people's 'learning needs'. This 'learning-centred' view of education led naturally to an appreciation of the importance of other forms of education besides formal schooling, particularly since many young people at that time, especially in rural areas, either were not being reached by the expansion of primary schooling then under way, or had been reached but had received only limited benefits in terms of meeting their 'learning needs' (Box 2.9).

Towards 'basic learning needs'

There was only a short step from a 'learning-centred' view of education to the idea of 'basic learning needs'. Internationally, this step was first prompted by a report presented to the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) in 1973 by a non-governmental organization, the International Council for Educational Development (ICED), which had been commissioned to undertake a study of non-formal education for out-of-school children, adolescents and youth in rural areas of developing countries. (An extract from the report of this study is given in Box 2.9.)

ICED came up with the concept of 'minimum essential learning needs', which it argued gave 'practical meaning' to the child's 'right' to education. This 'right', ICED claimed, 'must be trans-

Box 2.9
'Informal education', 'formal education', and 'non-formal education'

In contrast to the view that equates education with schooling and measures it by years of exposure, ICED [the International Council for Educational Development] adopted from the outset a concept of education that equates it broadly with learning regardless of where, when or how the learning occurs. This learning-centred view of education obliges us to start our analysis with the clients and their needs before moving on to consider alternative means for meeting them. It obliges us also to recognize that education by its very nature is a continuing process, starting from earliest infancy through adulthood, that necessarily entails a variety of methods and sources of learning. We have found it useful to group these learning methods into the following three categories, recognizing that there is overlap and a high degree of interaction between them.

By *informal* education we mean the truly lifelong process whereby every individual acquires attitudes, values, skills and knowledge from daily experience and the educative influences and resources in his or her environment – from family and neighbours, from work and play, from the marketplace, the library and the mass media.

For the most part, this process is relatively unorganized and unsystematic (hence the rubric 'informal'). Yet it unquestionably accounts for a very high proportion of all that any person – even a highly-schooled one – accumulates in a lifetime. . . .

By *formal* education we refer, of course, to the hierarchically structured, chronologically graded 'educational system', running from primary school through the university and including, in addition to general academic studies, a variety of specialized programmes and institutions for full-time technical and professional training.

For purposes of this study we define *non-formal education as any organized educational activity outside the established formal system - whether operating separately or as an important feature of some broader activity - that is intended to serve identifiable learning clienteles and learning objectives.* Examples applicable to children and youth would be: pre-school day-care centres and nurseries; school equivalency programmes to provide a second chance for those who are missing schooling or dropped out early; adolescent and adult literacy classes; school-based extracurricular activities such as boy and girl scouts, young farmers' clubs, sports and recreational groups; and occupational training for adolescents in agriculture, construction, etc., carried on outside the formal school structure.

Many of the programmes defined as non-formal education, it should be added, were not originally conceived as 'educational'. Except for the few that bear a close resemblance to formal schooling – such as literacy classes, correspondence courses and vocational training programmes – they originally came under such rubrics as social and health services, community development and *animation rurale,* sports and recreation, agricultural extension and co-operatives. In other words, non-formal education embraces educational components of programmes designed to serve broad development goals, as well as more academic objectives (e.g., literacy).

Formal and non-formal education are alike in that both have been organized by societies to augment and improve upon the informal learning process – in other words, to promote and facilitate certain valued types of learning that individuals cannot as readily or as quickly acquire through exposure to the environment. They differ mainly in their institutional arrangements and procedures and to a considerable extent in their subject matter and learning clienteles. Occasionally their differences merge in 'hybrid' programmes combining significant features of both, which are of great importance for the future.

In the broad conceptual framework of a 'lifelong educational system' – a system which should ultimately provide every individual with a flexible and diversified range of useful learning options throughout his or her lifetime – formal, non-formal and informal education are clearly complementary and mutually reinforcing elements.

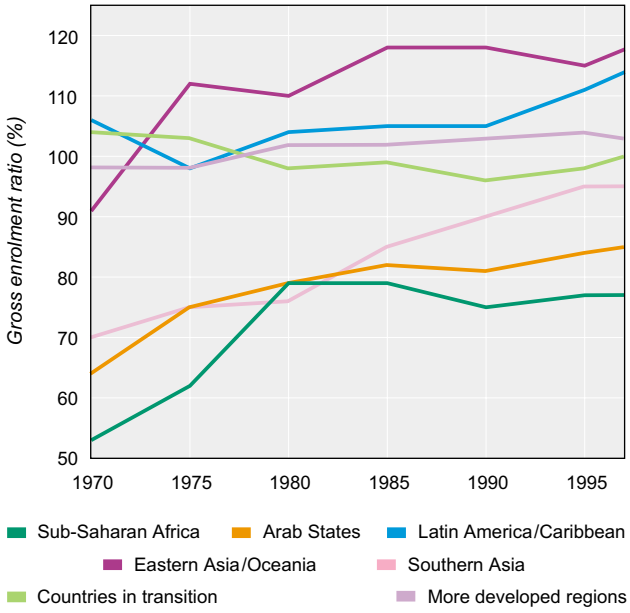
Source: Philip H. Coombs, 'Should One Develop Non-formal Education?', *Prospects,* Vol. III, No. 3, Autumn 1973, pp. 288–90.

lated into terms of some "minimum package" of attitudes, skills and knowledge that every young person in a given society requires for an effective and satisfying adulthood'. The analogy was made with 'minimum nutritional needs'. The idea of a 'minimum' was controversial, since it seemed to imply limits to the right to education. Given that the original problem as stated by ICED was 'to size

up the educational requirements of children and youth in any rural area and to plan provisions for meeting them', there was a need to identify a 'package' but not necessarily a 'minimum' one. Why not a maximum one?

For these reasons, the less restrictive term 'basic learning needs', which evoked the idea of a 'foundation' rather than a 'minimum', came to be preferred internationally in the course of the 1970s and 1980s. It was eventually adopted by the World Conference on Education for All, together with its correlate 'basic education' (i.e. education designed to meet 'basic learning needs'). Since then, the notion of 'basic education', whether for children, youth or adults, has generally been understood to overlap with the notions of 'elementary' and 'fundamental education' as utilized in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, but there does not exist an internationally agreed text that actually says so. In so far as there is such an overlap, it can plausibly be argued that the spirit of the Declaration requires that basic education too 'shall be free', just like 'elementary and fundamental education'.

Figure 2.3
Gross enrolment ratios in primary education by region, 1970-1997



Monitoring progress

The increased willingness of policy-makers in many countries in the 1970s to recognize that non-formal education could help to meet the learning needs of social groups that were not being reached by the formal school system did not imply a lessening of efforts to expand the coverage of the formal system.

Primary enrolment ratios in most of the world's less developed regions continued their upward trends into the 1970s (Figure 2.3), and the numbers of out-of-school children levelled off or even declined (Figure 2.4). These trends continued into the 1980s except in sub-Saharan Africa where enrolment ratios stagnated or declined and the numbers of out-of-school primary-age children rose.

The goal of universal primary education in Africa by 1980, defined in broad terms by the Addis Ababa Plan as a gross enrolment ratio of 100 per cent, was not attained despite the impressive growth of enrolment up until then. The same goal for Asia, set by the Karachi Plan, was attained in Eastern Asia/Oceania but not in Southern Asia.

The World Conference on Education for All reset the goal of universal primary education to the year 2000, as a result of which the decline in enrolment ratios that began in sub-Saharan Africa in the 1980s appears to have been halted or even reversed. Still, the overall gross enrolment ratio for this region does not appear to have recovered to the level it had already reached in 1980 (Figure 2.3). The prospect of faster progress in the decade ahead is uncertain. UNESCO's most recent revised (and still provisional) projections, based on trends up to 1997, foresee little change in the

large number of out-of-school primary-age children in sub-Saharan Africa by the year 2010, whereas the number is predicted to decline in Southern Asia (Figure 2.4). These two regions together account for most (78 million) of the estimated 88 million out-of-school children in the world today (Figure 2.5). In both regions, a majority of the out-of-school children are girls.

While these broad trends represent significant aspects of the evolving pattern of progress towards universal free and compulsory elementary education, none of the currently available international statistical indicators showing access to and participation in education is by itself fully satisfactory for monitoring progress towards this goal. A range of measures, such as those foreseen under the on-going Education for All 2000 Assessment, is needed. The two most commonly utilized indicators, the gross and the net enrolment ratios, can be readily estimated but present significant limitations.

Thus, the gross enrolment ratio, in essence the measure adopted when the Addis Ababa and Karachi Plans for universal primary education were drawn up, is basically an indicator only of the current overall capacity of the system to cope with the number of children who should be enrolled. Defined as the ratio of enrolment at a given level of education (e.g. the primary level) to the total population in the official age-range for that level, the gross enrolment ratio is inflated in many countries by large numbers of over-age (and some under-age) children, many of whom are repeating their grades, while at the same time there remain significant numbers of children within the official age-range who are not enrolled at all, either because they have dropped out before completing the course or because they never entered school in the first place. This is the

Figure 2.4
Estimated numbers of out-of-school primary-school-age children in the less developed regions, 1970-2010

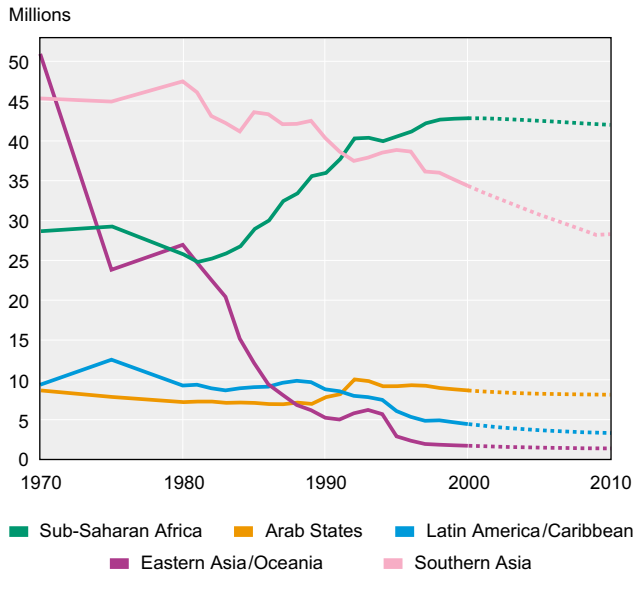
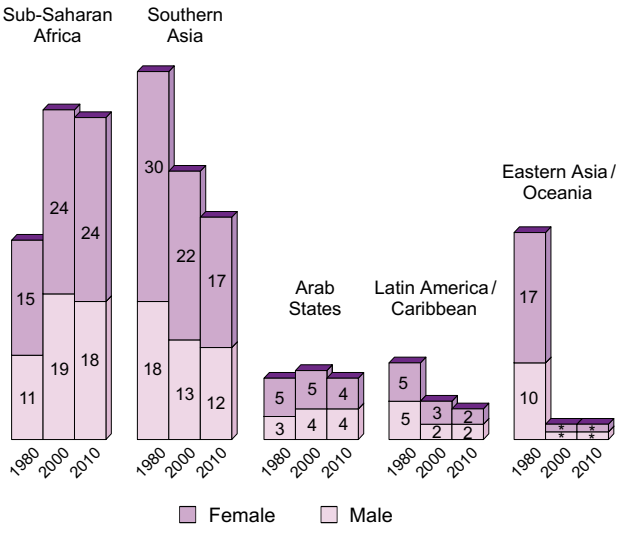


Figure 2.5
Gender breakdown of the estimated numbers (millions) of out-of-school primary-school-age children in the less developed regions in 1980, 2000 and 2010



* Less than 1 million.

Figure 2.6
Number of countries in each region according to the duration of compulsory education

Duration of compulsory education (years)	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
More developed regions:										
Northern America							2			
Asia/Oceania						1	2	1		
Europe					3	10	4	2	3	1
Countries in transition					8	9	2	4		
Less developed regions:										
Sub-Saharan Africa	1	1	15	8	6	3	7			
Arab States			6		5	7	1			
Latin America/Caribbean		1	11	2	4	5	15	7	2	
Eastern Asia/Oceania		4	3	1	6	6	3	1	3	
Southern Asia		3	1		1	1				

situation today in both the Latin America/Caribbean and Eastern Asia/Oceania regions where the gross enrolment ratios (as seen in Figure 2.3) are somewhat higher than 100 per cent. This situation is less obvious when the gross enrolment ratio is lower than 100 per cent, although in sub-Saharan Africa, where the ratio is well below 100 per cent, the problems of repeating and dropout are actually much worse: in many countries in this region over a quarter of the children enrolled in primary education are repeating their grades, yet are occupying seats that in principle at least could be taken by children who are not in school. Despite the repeating – or maybe because of it – up to a third or more of the children drop out before reaching the fifth grade (see Appendix III, Table 5, pages 144–7). In these countries, where the primary education system seems almost to be designed both to produce 'failures' and to keep children out of school, the gross enrolment ratios signify the system's ineffectiveness almost as much they signify progress towards implementation of the right to education.

On the other hand, the net enrolment ratio, defined as the ratio of the number of children within the official age-range for a given level of education actually enrolled to the total population in the official age-range for that level, does not indicate the capacity of the system, since it does not take into account the presence of over-age children. The obverse of the net enrolment ratio, i.e. the percentage of the population within the official age-range not enrolled in school, is clearly a useful indicator of the size of the remaining challenge to achieve universal enrolment, but the additional capacity that will need to be provided will also depend on the incidence of repetition.

Other indicators that could be relevant to the measurement of progress towards the goal of universal free and compulsory elementary education are less readily available. In regard to 'free' education, while it is doubtful that any country formally imposes fees for attendance as such in its public primary schools, actual practice as regards payments demanded of students and their families at the level of individual schools is another matter. However, systematic data relating to fees and other 'user charges' in education have never been collected at the international level; such data are not normally collected on a regular basis at the national level.

In regard to 'compulsory education', data concerning duration are collected by UNESCO through the Organization's regular annual education statistics questionnaires (Figure 2.6), but in many countries the reported duration is to be understood more as a goal to be attained than as a reality, since large numbers of children are not actually in school for this duration (see Appendix III, Table 4, pages 140–3).

In general, more data and indicators are available, both nationally and internationally, for the functioning of education systems and the characteristics of those who have access to education than there are for the characteristics of the population that for one reason or another is excluded or does not have equal access to education. Thus,

Box 2.10
'Broadening the means and scope of basic education'

The diversity, complexity, and changing nature of basic learning needs of children, youth and adults necessitates broadening and constantly redefining the scope of basic education to include the following components:

- *Learning begins at birth* . This calls for early childhood care and initial education. These can be provided through arrangements involving families, communities, or institutional programmes, as appropriate.
- *The main delivery system for the basic education of children outside the family is primary schooling.* Primary education must be universal, ensure that the basic learning needs of all children are satisfied, and take into account the culture, needs, and opportunities of the community. Supplementary alternative programmes can help meet the basic learning needs of children with limited or no access to formal schooling, provided that they share the same standards of learning applied to schools, and are adequately supported.
- *The basic learning needs of youth and adults are diverse and should be met through a variety of delivery systems.* Literacy programmes are indispensable because literacy is a necessary skill in itself and the foundation of other life skills. Literacy in the mother-tongue strengthens cultural identity and heritage. Other needs can be served by: skills training, apprenticeships, and formal and non-formal education programmes in health, nutrition, population, agricultural techniques, the environment, science, technology, family life, including fertility awareness, and other societal issues.
- *All available instruments and channels of information, communications, and social action could be used to help convey essential knowledge and inform and educate people on social issues.* In addition to the traditional means, libraries, television, radio and other media can be mobilized to realize their potential towards meeting basic education needs of all.

These components should constitute an integrated system – complementary, mutually reinforcing, and of comparable standards, and they should contribute to creating and developing possibilities for lifelong learning.

Source: World Conference on Education for All, Meeting Basic Learning Needs, Jomtien, Thailand, 1990, *World Declaration on Education for All,* Article 5, New York, Inter-Agency Commission (UNDP, UNESCO, UNICEF, World Bank) for the World Conference on Education for All, 1990.

UNESCO from time to time has collected information from Member States on policies relating to access to education, in connection with the Organization's periodic monitoring of the implementation of the Convention against Discrimination in Education. However, fewer than half the States which have ratified this Convention normally reply to the questionnaires, and most States that do reply understandably tend to emphasize their positive achievements in this area, rather than the difficulties that need to be overcome.

Household sample surveys, which are carried out today in many countries for different purposes, are potentially an effective means of gathering information on obstacles to the implementation of universal free and compulsory elementary education, in so far as they could help to identify the problems facing social groups that are not being reached by the education system, in particular the constraints (fees, distance from school, language of instruction, irrelevant curricula, jobs to be done at home, etc.) that are of concern to families whose children are not participating in the system. Many informal community-level surveys of this nature have been carried out by non-governmental organizations and individual researchers in recent years. If education generally, and basic education in particular, is to be regarded as a process of 'meeting learning needs', then national education policies need to be based on much more systematic information than is now typically available on how such 'needs' are perceived at the household level, for otherwise 'needs' will just tend to be decided in a 'top-down' manner. In committing itself to

Box 2.11
'The Salamanca Statement' on Special Needs Education (extract)

1. We, the delegates of the World Conference on Special Needs Education representing ninety-two governments and twenty-five international organizations hereby reaffirm our commitment to Education for All, recognizing the necessity and urgency of providing education for children, youth and adults with special educational needs within the regular education system, and further hereby endorse the Framework for Action on Special Needs Education, that governments and organizations may be guided by the Spirit of its provisions and recommendations.

2. We believe and proclaim that:
- every child has a fundamental right to education, and must be given the opportunity to achieve and maintain an acceptable level of learning,
- every child has unique characteristics, interests, abilities and learning needs,
- education systems should be designed and educational programmes implemented to take into account the wide diversity of these characteristics and needs,
- those with special educational needs must have access to regular schools which should accommodate them within a child-centred pedagogy capable of meeting these needs,
- regular schools with this inclusive orientation are the most effective means of combating discriminatory attitudes, creating welcoming communities, building an inclusive society and achieving education for all; moreover, they provide an effective education to the majority of children and improve the efficiency and ultimately the cost-effectiveness of the entire system.

Source: World Conference on Special Needs Education: Access and Quality, Salamanca, Spain, 7–10 June 1994, *Final Report*, pp. 9–10, Paris/Madrid, UNESCO/Ministry of Education and Science, 1994.

'meeting the basic learning needs of all', the international community has opened up the whole question of how such 'needs' are to be determined.

Boundaries

Since the Jomtien Conference, the scope of 'basic education' has been widely understood to include, among other things, 'early childhood care and initial education' (Box 2.10), i.e. activities designed to meet the 'basic learning needs' of young children before they reach school-going age. There is growing recognition too of the need to remove artificial barriers within basic education, particularly with a view to the inclusion of children with special educational needs in regular schools (Box 2.11).

Unlike 'elementary education' and 'fundamental education', 'early childhood care and initial education' is not specifically mentioned in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, nor, indeed, is it mentioned in any of the international human rights conventions that have been adopted since 1948. It has always been recognized as an area that very much involves the family. Indeed, the possibility that compulsory elementary education might impinge on the family and provide scope for abuse by the State was one of the considerations evoked, at the time when the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was being drawn up, in favour of including the third paragraph ('Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children') in the Declaration's Article 26 (see Appendix I, pages 104–7).

The Convention on the Rights of the Child, which defines 'a child' as a person 'below the age of eighteen years unless, under the law applicable to the child, majority is attained earlier' (Article 1), refers to education only at the primary, secondary and higher levels (Box 1.5 on page 23). However, under Article 18 of this Convention, it is agreed that 'States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to ensure that the children of working parents have the right to benefit from child care services and facilities for which they are eligible'. The protection accorded to parents and their children by the third paragraph of Article 26 of the

Universal Declaration of Human Rights, as well as paragraph 3 of Article 13 of the International Covenant (Box 1.4 on page 20), remains.

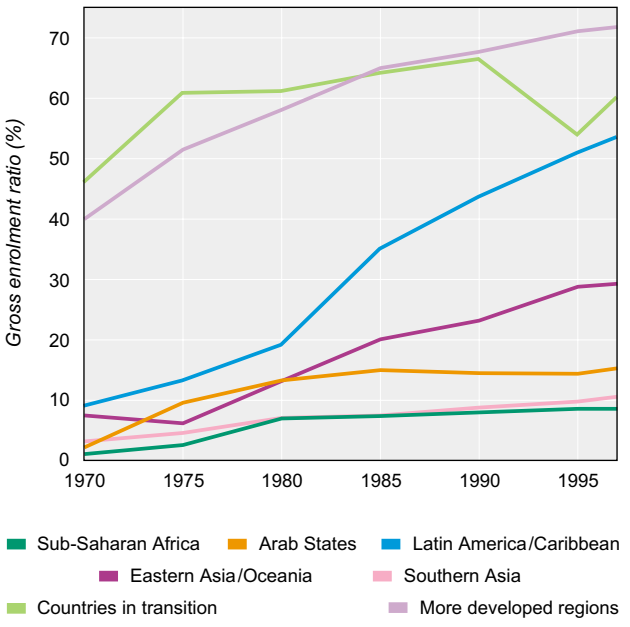
The worldwide development of pre-primary education in recent decades, therefore, has been more a reflection of changing social practices – especially the increasing employment of women outside the home – than a response to internationally agreed commitments to implement a particular aspect of the right to education.

International recognition of the importance of early childhood for the later development of the child is not a recent phenomenon. The Faure Commission, mentioned earlier, was one of the earliest advocates of the importance of pre-school education, stressing that:

> The importance of early childhood in the later development of aptitudes and personality is beyond doubt, as modern psychophysiology and ordinary observation testify. None the less current educational systems very frequently operate as if this phase of life were of no concern to them. Their shortcomings in this respect may obviously be explained in many countries by the inadequacy of resources available to meet the demand for education, but they do also result from a failure to recognize the importance to individual development of educational conditions in early childhood (Edgar Faure et al., *Learning to Be,* p. 120, Paris/London, UNESCO/ Harrap, 1972).

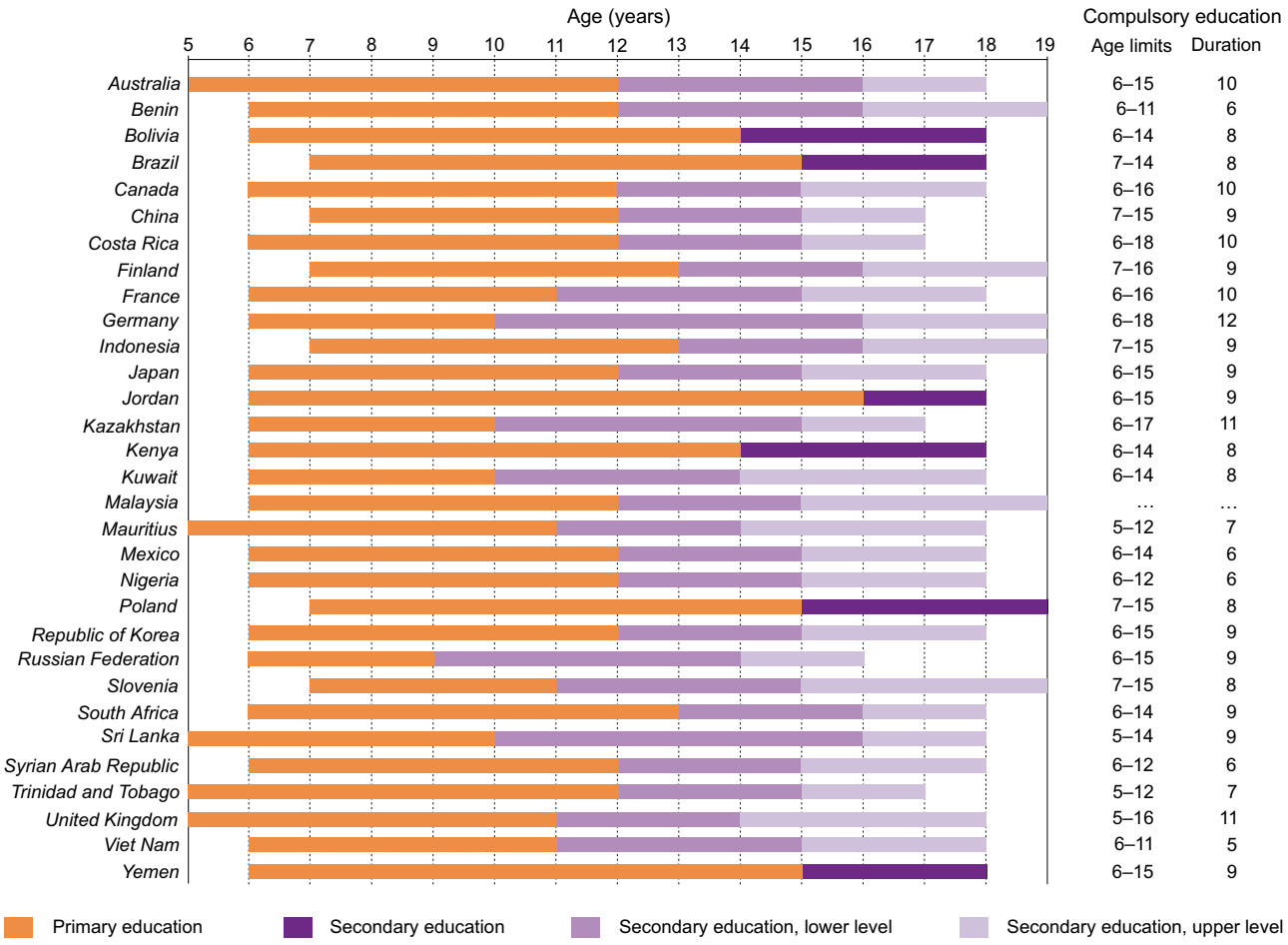
Since then, enrolments in organized pre-primary education have grown considerably in most countries, although the overall rates of participation (gross enrolment ratios) are still low in the world's less developed regions, especially sub-Saharan Africa, Southern Asia and the Arab States (Figure 2.7). In every region, there is considerable variation in rates of participation among individual countries (see Appendix III, Table 3, pages 136–9). The setback during the 1990s in the countries of Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union has recently been the subject of a special study by UNICEF's International Child Development Centre (*Education for All?,* Florence, UNICEF International Child Development Centre, 1998). In this region, much of the financing of organized pre-primary education was traditionally provided by industrial enterprises for the families of their employees, and has thus been hard hit by the difficulties faced by many enterprises in the region's current economic restructuring.

Figure 2.7
Gross enrolment ratios in pre-primary education by region, 1970-1997



The scope of 'basic education' in the other direction, beyond primary schooling, is a more complex matter. In prescribing that 'Elementary education shall be compulsory', it was arguably the original intent of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights that all young people should complete an education that would satisfy what today are called their 'basic learning needs', and not just an education that might happen to be called 'elementary'. This in effect was the position taken by the Framework for Action adopted by the World Conference on Education for All in proposing

Figure 2.8
Primary and secondary education cycles in selected countries, 1996



the target of 'Universal access to, and completion of primary education *(or whatever higher level of education is considered as 'basic')* by the year 2000' (italics added). It has also in practice been the position adopted by countries themselves. In a majority of countries today, the duration of compulsory education extends into secondary education. This is illustrated by examples of selected countries in Figure 2.8.

Yet, as was implicitly recognized when the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was being drawn up (see Appendix I, page 99), there is obviously a limit in every country beyond which education can not be made compulsory without at the same time offending the very idea of education as a 'right'. The next chapter considers developments in the provision of education beyond 'basic education'.

3
An expanding vision of educational opportunity

WHILE COMING TO REPRESENT an expanded vision of 'elementary and fundamental education', the concept of 'basic education' has at the same time come to form part of a larger vision that extends beyond that of 'meeting basic learning needs'. The Declaration adopted by the World Conference on Education for All proclaims that 'Basic education is the foundation for lifelong learning' (Box 1.3 on page 19).

Thus, in place of the view which prevailed in most countries in the years before the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was adopted, that elementary education is something complete in itself provided to the great majority of children who will go to work at an early age, while a minority are prepared for secondary and eventually higher studies, there has emerged the view that elementary (or 'basic') education is just the first phase of a continuous process that can and ought to extend through everyone's lifetime.

The adoption of 'lifelong education' and 'lifelong learning' as guiding principles of educational policy, both in countries that are currently able to provide extensive education and learning opportunities, and in those that are still struggling to eradicate illiteracy and get all children into primary school, represents a commitment to the democratization of education that is limited only by the resources available for its implementation. The impact of this commitment on the development of education beyond the 'elementary and fundamental stages' is the main concern of the present chapter. Enrolments at the secondary and tertiary levels of education taken together account for nearly half of the total enrolment in the world's formal education systems today, compared to barely one-fifth at the time when the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was proclaimed (Figure 3.1).

The genesis of the concepts of 'lifelong education' and 'lifelong learning' in the early educational programme of UNESCO is briefly recalled in the chapter's first section. In subsequent sections the main trends in the worldwide development and growth of secondary- and tertiary-level education are considered with reference to both the relevant provisions concerning these levels of education in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and related international normative instruments, and the still-emerging concepts of 'lifelong education' and 'lifelong learning'.

In anticipation of the discussion, two or three points may be noted in advance. First, neither 'lifelong education' nor 'lifelong learning', any more so than 'basic education' or 'basic learning needs', are specifically mentioned by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights or by any of the international treaties relating to education that have been adopted since then. In regard to educational opportunities beyond the 'elementary and fundamental stages', the Declaration proclaims simply that 'Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all

Figure 3.1
World enrolment by level of education, 1950 and 1997

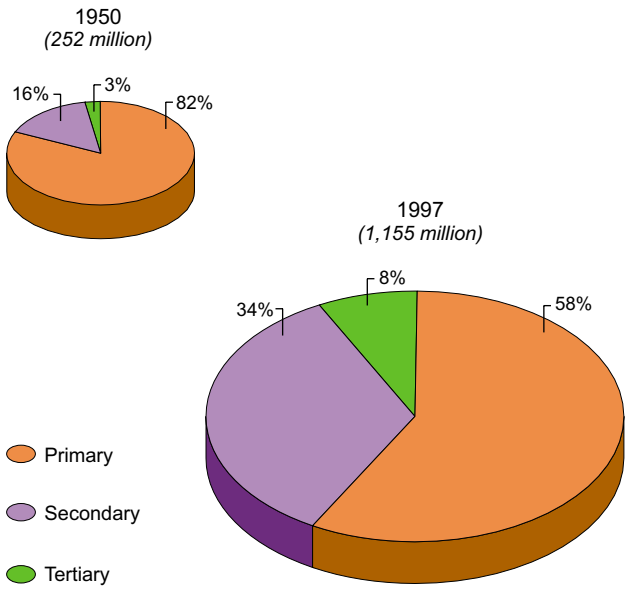
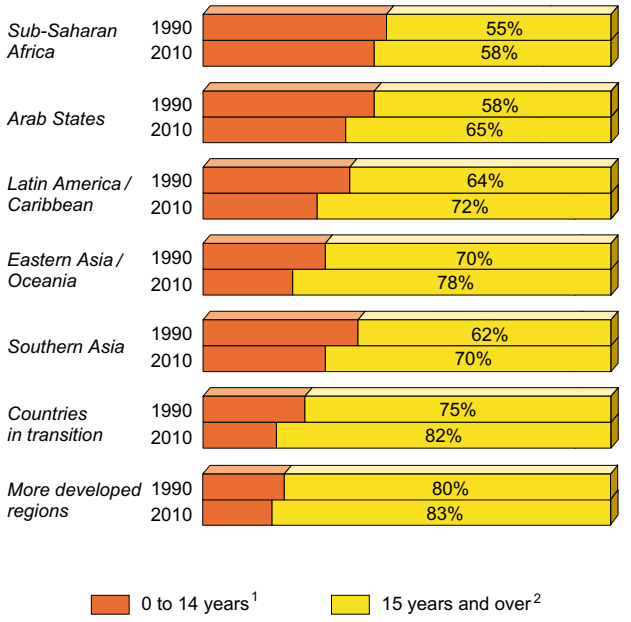


Figure 3.2
The changing age structure of the world's population by region, 1990 and 2010



1. Percentage ratio of the population in the 0 to 14 years age group to total population.
2. Percentage ratio of the population in the 15 years and over age group to total population.

on the basis of merit'. If 'lifelong education' and 'lifelong learning' are nevertheless widely considered to be rooted in the Declaration, it has probably been because the first principle of Article 26, 'Everyone has the right to education', is interpreted to apply throughout life.

Second, world demographic trends lend support to a 'life-cycle' view of education and learning. As noted in previous editions of this report, the world's population is getting older (Figure 3.2), thus in principle reducing the burden on the adult population of ensuring the provision of basic education for the younger age groups while at the same time providing scope for increasing educational opportunities at the secondary and tertiary levels, including opportunities at these levels for the continuing education of adults themselves. In the growing number of countries in the more developed regions of the world where a majority of young people today can participate in formal education up until their early twenties, the educational boundaries between youth and adults are dissolving.

Third, as concerns terminology, 'tertiary education' and 'higher education' are used interchangeably in this chapter and elsewhere in the report when referring to post-secondary education, unless otherwise indicated. Thus, 'higher education' is understood to have a broader reference than the traditional one of university or equivalent level education. The term 'tertiary education' has come into use internationally with the revised International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) adopted by the General Conference of UNESCO in 1997 (See Appendix III, pages 122–3).

An expanding vision

Although the ideas of 'lifelong education' and 'lifelong learning' have old philosophical roots and can be traced back historically to the earliest efforts to promote universal education (Box 3.1), it is unlikely that they would have achieved their current status in educational policies if recent trends and developments in the wider political, economic, social and cultural context had not also been favourable. Both 'lifelong education' and 'lifelong learning' have come to represent in different ways the expectations that societies now have of education and of the scope that should be provided for every individual to develop his or her potential.

'Lifelong education'

International interest in the concept of 'lifelong education' was first aroused in the 1960s by discussion and debate within UNESCO concerning the future development of adult education. As

Box 3.1
'The whole of his life is a school for every man' (John Amos Comenius, 1592-1670) [1]

Our first wish is that all men should be educated fully to full humanity; not any one individual, nor a few nor even many, but all men together and singly, young and old, rich and poor, of high and of lowly birth, men and women – in a word, all whose fate it is to be born human beings: so that at last the whole of the human race may become educated, men of all ages, all conditions, both sexes and all nations. . . . Just as the whole world is a school for the whole of the human race, from the beginning of time until the very end, so the whole of his life is a school for every man, from the cradle to the grave. . . . Every age is destined for learning, nor is man given other goals in learning than in life itself.

1. After whom is named a Medal sponsored by UNESCO and the Czech Republic intended to record and promote outstanding achievements and innovations carried out in the fields of teaching and educational research.

Source: John Amos Comenius, 1592-1670: Selections, pp. 97, 145, Paris, UNESCO, 1957.

was noted earlier in Chapter 2, international co-operation in adult education at that time was complicated by the fact that the challenges facing adult education varied so greatly among countries: in many of the newly independent countries the majority of adults were illiterate, which was not within the recent experience of countries where adult education programmes had long been established. Moreover, among the latter there were many different approaches to adult education, ranging from the Folk High Schools of the Scandinavian countries to 'workers' education' in the former USSR, 'further education' in the United Kingdom, 'continuing education' in the United States and Canada, and *éducation populaire* in France. Other than the adult target group itself, there did not exist at that time a unifying principle or concept of adult education that could provide adult educators working in different national circumstances and traditions with a common ideal or purpose, nor one that could settle the question of adult education's status vis-à-vis the regular mainstream education system, to which in most countries adult education was usually regarded as an appendage and very much as a 'poor relation'.

Prompted in part by the Second World Conference on Adult Education (Montreal, 1960), which recommended, among other things, that governments should 'regard adult education not as an addition, but as an integral part of their national systems of education', UNESCO's General Conference at its 12th Session two years later took up the matter and went one step further, inviting Member States 'to regard the various forms of out-of-school and adult education as an integral part of any educational system, so that *all men and women, throughout their lives*, may have the opportunities for pursuing education conducive alike to their individual advancement and to their active participation in civic life and in the social and economic development of their country' (italics added).

At the international level, this invitation was the genesis of the idea of 'lifelong education', for it was soon realized, as one of the leading protagonists recalled later, that the design of any coherent overall strategy for the development of out-of-school and adult education would need to consider education as a whole, as well as the succession and interrelation of its various stages over the life-cycle (Box 3.2).

The discussion and debate that ensued both within UNESCO and in the wider intellectual community was eventually absorbed later in the decade into a broader international discussion and debate over the future of education generally, culminating in the setting up in 1971 of the International Commission on the Development of Education. The Commission's report brought the idea of 'lifelong education' to the attention of a wide international audience. It was this report too that was largely responsible for the shift of focus during the 1970s from education to learning, as well

Box 3.2
'As adult educators, we could not but turn our eyes and our attention to education as a whole'

Although all children go willy-nilly through the educational mill and the period of schooling is steadily getting longer, how many people, after their school days, however long, are over, continue to study, to educate themselves, to keep themselves regularly informed and to develop, by means of continuous, organized efforts, the skills, gifts and talents with which they set out? Although it is impossible to give even approximate figures given the great variety of 'unofficial' forms of education that have to be taken into account, one can say without fear of contradiction that such people represent a marginal fringe group in the community.

[. . .]

In fact, we who are involved in adult education are led by our analyses and thoughts to conclude that the weakness of our entreprise is not fortuitous, nor is it due to some ill-defined lethargy or inertia to which humans fall prey when they reach adulthood; rather, it is the result of a series of frustrations, traumatic experiences and missed opportunities. It seems obvious that if an adult loses interest in his education and, apart from exceptional cases, turns aside from both the highways and by-ways of education, it is because at an impressionable age, in childhood or adolescence, he did not find what he wanted and expected in the type of education offered to him or imposed on him. We had to accept the obvious fact that once the pressures and obligations exerted by the authorities and the family or by the need to learn a trade were removed, only a small number of fanatics made any sustained effort to study and learn. What other conclusion can be drawn from all these observed facts if not that education as it now functions is on the wrong track and causes a wastage of energy, enthusiasm and resources almost without parallel in any other sector of national life except, of course, military programmes and prestige projects.

As adult educators, we could not but turn our eyes and our attention to education as a whole. It was a logical development of what we were doing; otherwise, we would have been condemning ourselves to accept an absurdity, that is to say, to finding ourselves confronted with adults who are traumatized, cut off from the normal sources of their creativity and alienated from the natural state of the mind and the heart which is to never stop questioning the world or seeking self-perfection. For some years, therefore, while still carrying on our specific work for adults, we have been more and more urgently drawn to consider the whole of education and the succession and interrelation of its various stages. When we speak of lifelong education, it is the unity and totality of the educational process which we have constantly in mind.

Source: Paul Lengrand, *An Introduction to Lifelong Education*, pp. 17–21, London/Paris, Croom Helm/The UNESCO Press, 1975.

as the surge of interest in non-formal education, that was noted in Chapter 2.

The Commission put forward a vision of what it called 'the Learning Society', and recommended as the 'Guiding principle for educational policies' that 'Every individual must be in a position to keep learning throughout his [or her] life'. It added: 'The idea of lifelong education is the keystone of the learning society' (Edgar Faure et al., *Learning to Be*, p. 181, Paris/London, UNESCO/Harrap, 1972). In the Commission's vision:

The lifelong concept covers all aspects of education, embracing everything in it, with the whole being more than the sum of its parts. There is no such thing as a separate 'permanent' part of education which is not lifelong. In other words, lifelong education is not an educational system but the principle on which the overall organization of a system is founded, and which should accordingly underlie the development of each of its component parts (ibid., pp. 181–2).

For the Commission, therefore, 'learning throughout . . . life' and 'lifelong education' were complementary concepts, the latter being essentially a pre-condition ('the keystone') for the realization of the former. However, the Commission did not specifically attempt to situate its vision in the

Box 3.3
The definition of 'adult education' given in the Recommendation on the Development of Adult Education (1976)

In this Recommendation:

- the term 'adult education' denotes the entire body of organized educational processes, whatever the content, level and method, whether formal or otherwise, whether they prolong or replace initial education in schools, colleges and universities as well as in apprenticeship, whereby persons regarded as adult by the society to which they belong develop their abilities, enrich their knowledge, improve their technical or professional qualifications or turn them in a new direction and bring about changes in their attitudes or behaviour in the twofold perspective of full personal development and participation in balanced and independent social, and cultural development;
- adult education, however, must not be considered as an entity in itself; it is a sub-division, and an integral part of, a global scheme for lifelong education and learning;
- the term 'life-long education and learning', for its part, denotes an overall scheme aimed both at restructuring the existing education system and at developing the entire educational potential outside the education system;
- in such a scheme men and women are the agents of their own education, through continual interaction between their thoughts and actions;
- education and learning, far from being limited to the period of attendance at school, should extend throughout life, include all skills and branches of knowledge, use all possible means, and give the opportunity to all people for full development of the personality;
- the educational and learning processes in which children, young people and adults of all ages are involved in the course of their lives, in whatever form, should be considered as a whole.

Source: Recommendation on the Development of Adult Education adopted by the General Conference at its Nineteenth Session, Nairobi, 26 November 1976, Paris, UNESCO, 1976.

context of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, apart from taking note of the fact that the application of the right to education 'continues to be hampered in many places by conditions similar to those prevailing at the time it was first expressed' (ibid., p. 10).

'Lifelong learning'

Meeting shortly after the Faure Commission's report was published, the Third World Conference on Adult Education (Tokyo, 1972) specifically evoked the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in declaring its belief that 'the right of individuals to education, their right to learn and to go on learning, is to be considered on the same basis as their other fundamental rights, such as the right to health and to hygiene, the right to security, the right to all forms of civil liberty, etc.'

This was the first time that the idea of a 'right to learn and to go on learning' was expressed by an international conference, although it was formulated as synonymous with 'the right of individuals to education', not as an additional, separate right. In fact, in the years immediately following the publication of the Faure Commission's report, 'lifelong education' and 'lifelong learning' were usually considered together as a single overall concept, as for example in the Recommendation on the Development of Adult Education adopted by the General Conference of UNESCO in 1976 (Box 3.3).

By the end of the 1980s, the idea of a 'right to learn' distinct from that of the 'right to education' had gained ground, with the Fourth International Conference on Adult Education (Paris, 1985), for example, adopting a Declaration on the 'right to learn' that did not actually mention the 'right to education' at all. However, the balance was restored at the Fifth International Conference on Adult Education (Hamburg, 1997), with the Conference declaring that 'The recognition of *the right to education and the right to learn* throughout life is more than ever a necessity'.

Box 3.4
From 'recurrent education' to 'markets for learning' (OECD)

Recurrent education emphasized the correspondence between formal education and work, and implied some instances of interruption in the lifelong process of education. It also considered that educational opportunities should be spread out over the entire life-cycle, as an alternative to the lengthening of formal schooling early in life. In contrast, today's notions of lifelong learning pay less regard to the role of formal institutions and more to non-formal and informal learning in a variety of settings – at home, at work and in the community. Another major difference concerns the role of government. Partly because it emphasized formal education, the recurrent education strategy assigned a large role for government in organizing, managing and financing the system. The past years have seen a partial retreat from this principle, and partnership and shared responsibility have become the norm. This shift is reflected in recent policies to strengthen the development of continuing vocational training, especially on-the-job training, rather than expanding formal adult education in institutions fully or partly financed from the public budget. The notion that work ought to be alternated on a sporadic basis with formal education has been replaced by strategies to promote learning while working, and working while learning. Another difference is that full retention in broad-based secondary education until at least 17 or 18, and even the expansion of tertiary education, are no longer considered problematic in certain countries; achieving a full cycle of secondary education for all has . . . become one of the cornerstones of strategies for realizing lifelong learning for all. Increased reliance on the responsibilities of employers and individual learners is also reflected in the reluctance of many countries to legislate and implement arrangements for paid study leave. Concomitantly with the rising emphasis on accountability, choice and even, in certain OECD countries, 'markets for learning', the concept of 'social demand', which was central in the recurrent education philosophy, appears to have been replaced with 'individual demand' as key to the provision of adult education, training and learning more generally. As will be seen, this move has implications for equity, efficiency and flexibility.

Source: Lifelong Learning for All, pp. 88–9, Paris, OECD, 1996.

Since the early 1990s, the trend in educational policies towards a learning-centred view of education generally, and of adult education in particular, has been especially marked in some OECD countries (Box 3.4). As far back as the early 1970s, policy-makers in these countries had shared the doubts of the Faure Commission concerning the viability of continued 'linear expansion' of the formal system of full-time education, and in addition were skeptical towards the possibility of further expansion being fully financed by governments. By the end of the 1990s, the idea of public financing of educational opportunities beyond the period of compulsory education had given way in these countries to the idea of shared responsibility or 'partnership' between government, employers and learners themselves.

In France, to take one example, the financing of participants in 'recurrent' or continuing education *(formation continue)* programmes provided in higher education establishments under the control of the Ministry of National Education in 1996 was accounted for to the extent of 40 per cent from public funds, 40 per cent by employers and 20 per cent by the participants themselves (*Note d'information,* No. 99.10, p. 1, Paris, Ministère de l'éducation nationale, de la recherche et de la technologie, Direction de la programmation et du développement, 1999). With different percentages according to national circumstances, this tripartite distribution of responsibility for the financing of 'lifelong education' has increasingly become the norm in the industrial countries.

In these countries, therefore, the 'right to lifelong learning' has run into the quite basic question of 'Who should pay?' In regard to regular mainstream secondary and higher education at least, this is answered by Article 13, paragraph 2

of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, which requires 'the progressive introduction of free education' (Box 1.4 on page 20). The 'introduction of free education' in respect to secondary education is also mentioned in Article 28 paragraph 1(b) of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (Box 1.5 on page 23).

However, in regard to continuing education for adults at the secondary and tertiary levels, the position with respect to the international treaties is not as straightforward. This kind of education was not anticipated in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights or in any of the international treaties, and States apparently do not feel under an obligation to ensure that such education shall be provided 'free'. In so far as the 'right to lifelong learning' is understood to include a 'right' to continuing education, it would seem in practice to amount to little more than the 'right' of any citizen to participate, at his or her own expense, in the market for goods and services generally, with more or less encouragement from public funds depending on the situation in individual countries.

Yet, this was once pretty much the position everywhere in regard to initial education at the secondary and higher levels; it did not last. The readiness of most countries, both rich and poor, to commit public funds for the expansion of educational opportunities beyond the 'elementary and fundamental stages' was to be largely responsible for the worldwide development of secondary and tertiary education that is considered broadly in the sections which follow.

Secondary education

Secondary education is not actually mentioned in Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. In those days, as was noted at the beginning of the present chapter, the broad view of society's educational needs that prevailed even in the more highly developed countries was that the great majority of the population should receive an 'elementary education' while a selected minority could also proceed to secondary and higher education. Secondary education at that time was largely oriented towards preparing students for entry to university or equivalent level education. It was probably for these reasons that there was a tendency during the drafting of the Declaration to refer broadly to education above the 'elementary and fundamental stages' as 'higher education' (see Appendix I, page 100).

The first treaty to mention 'secondary education' was the Convention against Discrimination in Education: 'The States Parties [undertake to] make secondary education in its different forms generally available and accessible to all (Box 3.8 on page 66). The International Covenant adopted the same wording, but added the words 'including technical and vocational secondary education' after the word 'forms' (Box 1.4 on page 20). The Convention on the Rights of the Child uses slightly different wording: 'including general and vocational education' (Box 1.5 on page 23).

Expansion of opportunities

Opportunities for secondary-level education increased dramatically in every region of the world (though from different starting points) in the years after the adoption of the Declaration, with world

Table 3.1
Secondary enrolments (millions) by continent, 1950–1997

	1950	*1960*	*1970*	*1980*	*1990*	*1997*
WORLD TOTAL	40	79	169	264	315	398
Africa	1	2	5	14	24	34
Asia/Oceania*	15	37	84	146	184	241
Europe*	16	25	47	63	63	70
Latin America/Caribbean	2	4	11	17	22	29
Northern America	7	11	22	24	22	25

* Same note as for Table 2.5.

total enrolment doubling in each of the following two decades (Table 3.1).

At first, the expansion was based mainly on existing institutional structures, but in the many countries where there existed different forms of post-elementary education, the type of education to provide soon became an issue. In the 1940s and 1950s, the concept or model of a 'comprehensive' secondary school 'open to all' existed only in North America, the ex-USSR and a handful of other countries. In Europe, Latin America and much of the rest of the world, the post-elementary model was one of 'differentiated' schooling: different kinds of schools mainly with a vocational orientation alongside a traditional academic secondary school that was not intended (or designed) for mass participation. Since much of the social demand was for increased access to the traditional secondary school, the opening up of increased opportunities for secondary level education constituted a major challenge for the 'aims and purposes', indeed, the 'very conception of secondary schooling' (Box 3.5).

The situation in the Netherlands in the early 1950s is a good example of the nature of this challenge: around 10 per cent of primary school leavers entered the traditional academic secondary schools, around 20 per cent continued for two or three years in what was then known as 'advanced' or 'upper' primary education with a pre-vocational orientation, around 25 per cent entered vocational/technical schools (also including a small number of agricultural/horticultural schools), and 45 per cent left school altogether. So long as there were only a limited number of places available in post-elementary education generally, and hence a need to ration the overall demand for places, pressures for reform of post elementary education structures could largely be resisted. However, once the commitment had been adopted to open up opportunities in those countries like the Netherlands that adhered to the 'differentiated' schooling model, the question of which kinds of secondary/post-elementary education to expand could not be avoided, especially since the practice of sorting students into different kinds of schools was arguably at variance with the democratic impulse that was ultimately behind the opening up of opportunities in the first place.

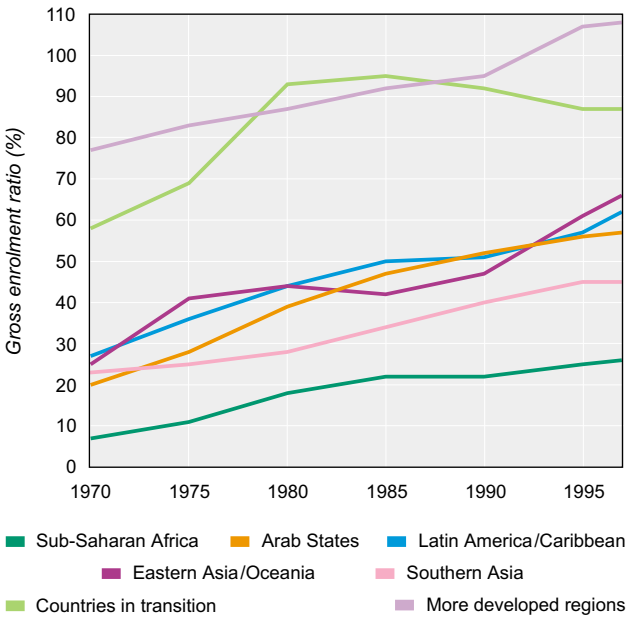
In much of the world, therefore, the decades that have passed since the original commitments were adopted to make 'secondary education in its different forms generally available and accessible to all' have been marked by a continuing process of adjustment of secondary education structures

Box 3.5
'The very conception of secondary schooling is in transition' (UNESCO, 1961)

In many countries today the most intractable problems of educational provision and organization are those that concern the education of young people from about 11 or 12 years of age to 17 or 18, that is, the period of post-primary or secondary education, intermediate between basic primary schooling and the higher education of universities and specialized institutes. To say this is not to deny that in primary and higher education, too, there are grave difficulties: in fact for some countries it is precisely in these other fields that the most serious problems are being faced. Yet in the main the latter are problems of provision. There are countries that have not yet managed to provide for more than a minority of the children of primary school age and that are still far from achieving universal literacy; on the other hand, there are countries in which the number of university students will double during the present decade. But in each of these cases, though the task of providing facilities and teachers is fraught with serious practical difficulties, the needs are clear, there is considerable agreement on aims and methods, and the lines of advance are plain to see. At the secondary level, however, the situation is made extraordinarily difficult because the very conception of secondary schooling is in transition, and the practical difficulties of educational development are exacerbated by a confusion of aims and a conflict of views.

Source: World Survey of Education, Vol. III, p. 85, Paris, UNESCO, 1961.

Figure 3.3
Gross enrolment ratios in secondary education by region, 1970-1997



to accommodate ever-increasing cohorts of students. This process has now virtually run its course in the industrial countries and countries in transition, where the secondary gross enrolment ratios are close to, or above 100 per cent (Figure 3.3; see also Appendix III, Table 6), but it is still under way in the majority of countries in the other regions of the world. Sub-Saharan Africa, according to UNESCO's most recent (and still provisional) estimates of net enrolment ratios, is the only region where the absolute number of secondary-school-age youth who are out of school is still growing (Figures 3.4 and 3.5).

Structural changes

Broadly speaking, and at the risk of oversimplifying the record of what has in fact been a very complex process in most countries from the 1950s onwards, the challenge to make 'secondary education in its different forms generally available and accessible to all' has essentially been met by extending the common trunk of formal schooling from primary education through to the first or lower stage of secondary education and then, depending on national circumstances, eventually making the whole trunk compulsory. In the process, lower secondary education has come to be re-conceptualized, in terms of content, as a general ('basic') education for all, while purely academic and vocational/technical education have gradually been displaced towards the post-compulsory and/or upper stage of secondary education.

Nevertheless, many countries which started with the 'differentiated' schooling model have adopted a 'comprehensive' type model for both lower and

Figure 3.4
Estimated numbers of out-of-school secondary-school-age youth in the less developed regions, 1970-2010

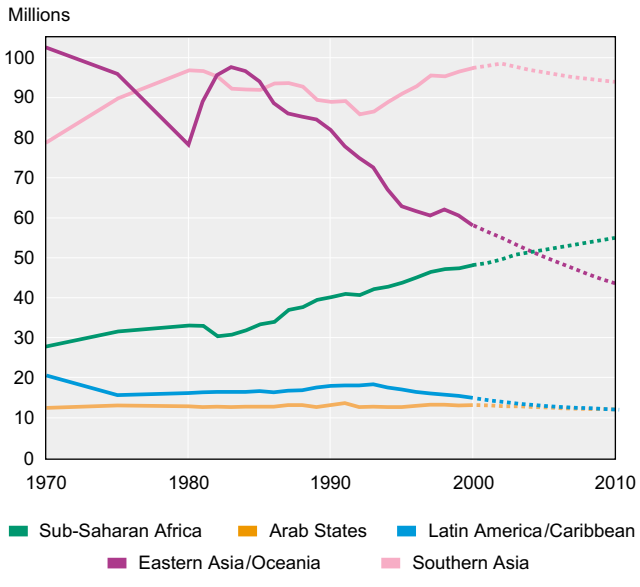
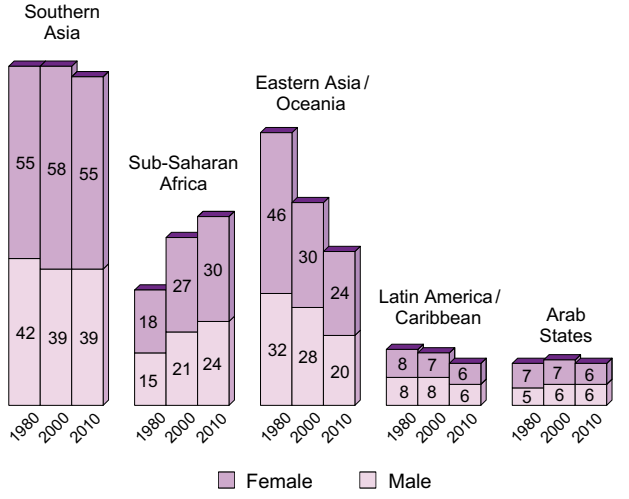


Figure 3.5
Gender breakdown of the estimated numbers (millions) of out-of-school secondary-school-age youth in the less developed regions in 1980, 2000 and 2010



upper secondary schooling while at the same time retaining some provision for separate vocational/technical schools at the post-compulsory and/or upper stage of secondary education. In those countries where the 'comprehensive' model already existed, the admission of larger cohorts of students had implications for reform of curricula so as to take into account the wider range of abilities and interests as well as social backgrounds of the students coming into the schools.

There were some notable 'holdouts' against the overall trend above towards general secondary education, chiefly the countries of East and Central Europe where secondary-level education at both the lower and upper stages was strongly vocational and technical up until the early 1990s (see *World Education Report 1993)*. Moreover, in countries which are still struggling to achieve universal primary education, and which can provide only limited opportunities for secondary level education, a certain amount of provision continues to be made for post-primary vocational education. Even so, there is broad acceptance of the idea of eventually moving towards the provision of a common lower secondary education for all when resources permit.

In a global perspective, the 'comprehensive' model predominates, especially in North America, Asia, the Arab States and sub-Saharan Africa, where the percentages of students enrolled in 'general' secondary schools as opposed to 'vocational/technical' schools are substantially higher than in Western Europe and the countries in transition, and somewhat higher than in Latin America and the Caribbean (Table 3.2). In recent years there has been a shift away from predominantly 'vocational/technical' secondary education in the

Table 3.2
Percentage distribution[1] of secondary school enrolment by type of education in each region, 1970 and 1997

	1970[2]			*1997*[3]		
	General	*Vocational*	*Teacher training*	*General*	*Vocational*	*Teacher training*
More developed regions:						
Northern America (2)	100	0	0	100	0	0
Asia/Oceania (4)	83	16	1	75	25	0
Europe (18)	74	25	1	69	31	0
Countries in transition (12)	67	33	1	81	18	0
Less developed regions:						
Sub-Saharan Africa (19)	88	9	3	95	5	1
Arab States (16)	87	10	3	92	8	0
Latin America/ Caribbean (13)	81	15	4	84	16	0
Eastern Asia/ Oceania (11)[4]	85	10	5	91	8	1
Southern Asia (3)[5]	97	2	1	100	0	0

1. The figures shown are the unweighted averages for the countries in each region for which data are available. The number of countries in each region for which data are available for the two dates is shown in parentheses.
2. Or earliest date for which data are available, e.g. 1975 for some countries and 1980 for countries in transition.
3. Or latest year available.
4. Including China.
5. Including India.

Box 3.6
Technical and vocational education for lifelong learning

2.1 Lifelong learning is a journey with many pathways and technical and vocational education (TVE) is an integral part of the voyage. Therefore TVE systems should be designed as developmental life experiences with cultural and environmental aspects in addition to their economic dimensions.
2.2 TVE systems need to be open, flexible and learner-oriented. They must provide the learner with knowledge and skills for specific jobs. They must also prepare individuals more generally for life and the world of work. TVE is for personal, social and economic benefit.
2.3 TVE needs to be based on a learning culture shared by individuals, industry, different economic sectors and government in which individuals are empowered to take progressively more responsibility for their own knowledge-management and independent learning while public and private providers ensure programmes that facilitate access to and through the pathways of lifelong learning.
2.4 TVE has an important role to play in reducing levels of anxiety in the midst of constant uncertainty by providing information and knowledge, skills and competencies, entrepreneurial capacity and the development of the human personality.
2.5 TVE should develop close interfaces with all other education sectors, particularly schools and universities, to facilitate seamless pathways for learners. The emphasis must be on articulation, accreditation and recognition of prior learning to enhance their learning opportunities.
2.6 Perhaps the biggest challenge which faces TVE is to co-ordinate the needs of a general and a vocational education through curriculum, pedagogy and delivery.
2.7 TVE should inspire in young people a positive attitude to innovation, enable them to help shape change and prepare them for self-reliance and citizenship.
2.8 TVE is particularly important in ensuring a seamless transition from the school to the workplace. To achieve this it needs a holistic approach which captures the dichotomies of the academic and the vocational, the theory and the applied, knowing and doing, the use of the head and the hand. This requires effective partnerships with schools and with industry and other economic sectors which embrace shared values, shared curricula, shared resources, and shared outcomes.
2.9 The informal economic sector is often excluded in the spectrum of lifelong learning. TVE has a vital role to play in reaching out to this sector in every way possible to ensure that the less privileged have access to the pathways of continuous learning.
2.10 To achieve all of these aspirations for Technical and Vocational Education a number of urgent considerations must be addressed:
• The status and prestige of TVE must be enhanced in the eyes of the community and the media. This includes raising the status of teachers in TVE.
• The sectors of education must achieve more effective inter-relationships to facilitate more seamless pathways for learners.
• There must be flexibility in programme administration and curriculum design to facilitate a smooth passage through lifelong learning.
• Career guidance and counselling is of the utmost importance for all clients of the education and training systems.
• All stakeholders, particularly industry and educationalists, must be involved in new TVE partnerships.
• The high cost of many TVE programmes must be addressed.
• The lifelong learning continuum will be best sustained if there is a diversity of funding, a diversity of providers, and a diversity of delivery mechanisms.
• Quality assurance is essential to ensure a new higher status for TVE.
• We need to understand more about the critical moments of choice on the journey of lifelong learning.

Source: Second International Congress on Technical and Vocational Education, Seoul, Republic of Korea, 26–30 April, 1999, *Final Report*, pp. 62–4, Paris, UNESCO, 1999. (Recommendations to the Director-General of UNESCO, Theme 2, Abridged.)

countries of East and Central Europe. In both the latter region and Western Europe, vocational/technical programmes are provided today mainly at the upper secondary stage: the average percentage of upper secondary students enrolled in vocational/technical programmes in the fifteen countries of the European Union, for example, is around 60 per cent, although there is variation among individual countries. The corresponding percentage for upper and lower

secondary students taken together, as reflected in Table 3.2, is somewhat lower because lower secondary education is predominantly 'general'. In all regions, as noted in the *World Education Report 1998*, secondary-level teacher-training programmes have now mostly been phased out in favour of programmes at the post-secondary/tertiary level.

A complete picture of developments in regard to technical and vocational education at the secondary level would require more systematic information on the position of technical and vocational components in the curricula of 'general secondary' (including 'comprehensive') schools than is currently available internationally. UNESCO's enrolment data (as in Table 3.2) have long been based on the distinction between 'general secondary' and 'vocational/technical' schools (or institutions) rather than programmes. This, however, gives only part of the picture. The Convention on Technical and Vocational Education, which was drawn up principally with a view to stimulating 'the exchange of information and experiences' and 'strengthening international co-operation in this field', defines technical and vocational education as follows:

> . . . all forms and levels of the educational process involving, in addition to general knowledge, the study of technologies and related sciences and the acquisition of practical skills, know-how, attitudes and understanding relating to occupations in the various sectors of economic and social life (Article 1).

It is in this perspective that technical and vocational education have in recent years come to be more clearly recognized as having an essential role to play in 'lifelong learning' (Box 3.6).

'Equal opportunity'

The principle of 'equal opportunity' has been central to the question of what kinds of education to provide at the secondary level, because of the range of student abilities and interests that need to be catered for. If ideally 'secondary education should be the time when the most varied talents are revealed and flourish' (Box 3.7), this was hardly possible so long as a majority of young people did not have access to it, which in any case is still the situation in half the countries in the world today.

The first mention of 'equal opportunity' in an international treaty dealing with education was in the Preamble of UNESCO's Constitution ('the States Parties to this Constitution, believing in full and equal opportunities for education for all. . .').

Box 3.7
'Secondary education should be the time when the most varied talents are revealed and flourish'

While basic education, whatever its duration, should aim to meet the common needs of the population as a whole, secondary education should be the time when the most varied talents are revealed and flourish. Common core elements (languages, science, general knowledge) should be enriched and brought up to date, so as to reflect the increasing globalization of phenomena, the need for intercultural understanding and the use of science to foster sustainable human development. In other words, greater attention has to be paid to quality and to preparation for life in a rapidly changing, often technology-dominated world. Everywhere it met, the Commission heard the hope expressed that formal education, and secondary education in particular, could play a larger part in helping develop the qualities of character that would enable young people to anticipate and adapt to major changes. Schooling should help pupils acquire, on the one hand, the tools for dealing with the new technologies and, on the other, the aptitudes for managing conflict and violence. They need to develop the creativity and empathy necessary for them to become actively participating and creative citizens of tomorrow.

Source: J. Delors et al., *Learning: The Treasure Within, Report to UNESCO of the International Commission on Education for the Twenty-First Century*, Paris, UNESCO, 1996, p. 126.

Box 3.8
Equality of opportunity in education: Article 4 of the Convention against Discrimination in Education (1960)

The States Parties to this Convention undertake furthermore to formulate, develop and apply a national policy which, by methods appropriate to the circumstances and to national usage, will tend to promote equality of opportunity and of treatment in the matter of education and in particular:

(a) To make primary education free and compulsory; make secondary education in its different forms generally available and accessible to all; make higher education equally accessible to all on the basis of individual capacity; assure compliance by all with the obligation to attend school prescribed by law;

(b) To ensure that the standards of education are equivalent in all public educational institutions of the same level, and that the conditions relating to the quality of the education provided are also equivalent;

(c) To encourage and intensify by appropriate methods the education of persons who have not received any primary education or who have not completed the entire primary education course and the continuation of their education on the basis of individual capacity;

(d) To provide training for the teaching profession without discrimination.

Source: Convention against Discrimination in Education, Adopted by the General Conference at its eleventh session, 14 December 1960, Paris, UNESCO, 1960.

Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights proclaims something analogous (but with a slightly different meaning), namely, that 'higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit'. This expression, in the light of the discussion that took place during the drafting of the Declaration (see Appendix I, pages 100–2), essentially meant 'equally accessible to all on the basis of individual capacity', as came to be spelled out later by the UNESCO Convention against Discrimination in Education (Box 3.8). The International Covenant (Box 1.4 on page 20) and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (Box 1.5 on page 22) adopted the wording: 'on the basis of capacity'.

Both the Convention against Discrimination in Education and later the Convention on the Rights of the Child refer to the general principle of 'equal opportunity' in education. In fact, the Convention against Discrimination in Education was designed in part to promote this principle (actually, 'equality of opportunity and of treatment in the matter of education') and specifically included Article 4 to that effect (Box 3.8). The Convention on the Rights of the Child adopts the principle of 'equal opportunity' as the basis of action to be taken by States Parties with a view to achieving the right of the child to education, but implicitly assumes that the various dimensions of this principle are known, presumably because they had already been spelled out earlier in the Convention against Discrimination in Education. Thus, the Convention on the Rights of the Child does not include any wording corresponding to Article 4(b) of the Convention against Discrimination in Education: 'to ensure that the standards of education are equivalent in all public educational institutions of the same level, and that the conditions relating to the quality of education provided are also equivalent'.

While the provision of 'equal opportunity' for 'varied talents' to 'flourish' has been as much of a challenge for elementary or primary as for secondary education over the past fifty years, it has generally been a matter of intense concern in secondary education because of the differences in the rewards that societies typically accord to the different types or forms of education at this level. The methods of selection (tests and examinations) utilized in assigning students to different types of secondary education have therefore been the subject of controversy in most countries at one time or another ever since the worldwide expansion of opportunities for secondary level education got under way.

Thus, in the many countries which inherited the 'differentiated' schooling model in secondary/post-elementary education, the critical factor in

generating resistance to further expansion of this model was probably evidence that prevailing selection methods tended to favour the access of children from socially and economically better-off families to the academic secondary schooling that led to higher education, while children from poorer families were channelled towards vocational schooling that was essentially terminal. Educational and economic arguments also were brought to bear: in the former case by demonstrating the uncertainty (if not injustice) inherent in trying to identify children's abilities and interests – and hence life-chances – at too early an age, and in the latter case by demonstrating the uncertainty inherent in trying to predict the economy's future needs for different categories of skills and competencies.

If these reservations have been gradually overcome by the trend in recent decades towards the provision of a general ('basic') education for all at the lower secondary level, it has been because the whole issue of 'equal opportunity' in selection for different types of education has largely been displaced to the upper secondary and tertiary levels. Thus, the policy challenge that existed earlier with respect to opportunities for 12–14 year-old primary school leavers has in more and more countries become one of education/learning opportunities for secondary school leavers who are 16–18 years old or even older.

In those countries that have retained the 'differentiated schooling' model in post-compulsory education at the upper secondary level, chiefly in Europe and to a lesser extent in Latin America and other regions of the world, educational opportunities at this level have essentially been partitioned into schools giving academic programmes that lead directly to higher education, and schools giving vocational/technical programmes that are designed primarily to prepare young people for employment. In those countries that have adopted the 'comprehensive' model of secondary schooling, as in North America and much of the rest of the world outside Europe, a similar partitioning can exist within individual schools but is attenuated by the fact that the vocational/technical programmes of these schools normally do not preclude later access to higher education, for which the basic pre-requisite is usually the successful completion of secondary education as such.

The two models are linked to differing conceptions of higher education: in the former case a highly differentiated conception, and in the latter case a relatively broad ('comprehensive') one. Which of the two models is more consistent with the principle of equal educational opportunity is difficult to assess, since this depends in part on how well each of them prepares young people for a successful transition to adult life and subsequent personal development. If the history of 'differentiated schooling' at the secondary level is any guide to the future, there is likely to be continuing pressure from within societies for the removal of boundaries at the tertiary level between educational programmes that foreclose future opportunities for 'lifelong learning' and those that keep such opportunities open.

Tertiary education

Whereas the various treaties all refer to making secondary education in its different forms both 'available' and 'accessible' (to 'all' or to 'every

Table 3.3
Tertiary enrolments (millions) by continent, 1950- 1997

	1950	*1960*	*1970*	*1980*	*1990*	*1997*
WORLD TOTAL	6.5	12.1	28.1	51.0	68.6	88.2
Africa	0.1	0.2	0.5	1.5	2.9	4.8
Asia/Oceania*	1.2	3.2	7.4	14.6	23.9	36.1
Europe*	2.5	4.5	9.0	16.4	18.9	21.8
Latin America/Caribbean	0.3	0.6	1.6	4.9	7.3	9.4
Northern America	2.4	3.7	9.5	13.5	15.6	16.0

* Same note as for Table 2.5.

Table 3.4
Percentage of females in tertiary enrolments by continent, 1950- 1997

	1950	1960	1970	1980	1990	1997
WORLD TOTAL	32	33	38	44	46	47
Africa	21	20	23	27	33	38
Asia/Oceania*	17	24	30	34	38	40
Europe*	40	37	42	49	50	53
Latin America/Caribbean	24	32	35	43	49	48
Northern America	32	37	41	51	54	55

* Same note as for Table 2.5.

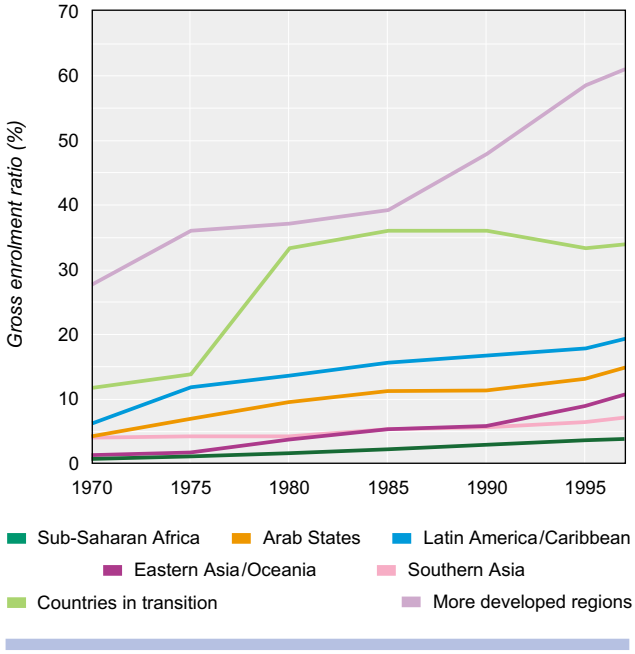
child'), in the case of higher education they refer only to making it 'accessible to all' ('on the basis of capacity', or of 'individual capacity'). The International Covenant adds: 'by every appropriate means, and in particular by the progressive introduction of free education' (Box 1.4 on page 20). The Convention on the Rights of the Child adds simply: 'by every appropriate means' (Box 1.5 on page 23).

Enrolments at the tertiary or higher education level have increased even more dramatically than at the secondary level in the decades since the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was adopted (Table 3.3), in part because many countries were basically starting from scratch. At the end of the 1940s, more than half the countries in the world had fewer than 1,000 students enrolled at this level, and probably a quarter had no tertiary level institutions at all; only nine countries (China, ex-Federal Republic of Germany, France, India, Italy, Japan, ex-USSR, the United Kingdom and the United States) had more than 100,000 students enrolled.

By the end of the 1990s virtually all countries had at least one tertiary level institution, sixty-eight countries had more than 100,000 students enrolled at this level, and twenty-one countries had more than 1 million such students enrolled (Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Canada, China, France, Germany, India, Indonesia, Italy, Japan, Republic of Korea, Mexico, Philippines, Russian Federation, Spain, Thailand, Turkey, Ukraine, the United Kingdom and the United States).

This development was hardly foreseen at the time when the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was drawn up. In those days, mass access to higher education as achieved in some countries today would have seemed to be almost a contradiction in terms. Indeed, neither the Declaration nor any of the international treaties concerning education adopted since then affirm that higher education shall be made 'generally available' or 'available . . . to every child', as for example they do in respect to secondary education (see Box 1.4 on page 20, Box 1.5 on page 23, and Box 3.8). The critical issue was access to what was then essentially considered to be an education for which students unavoidably needed to be selected (cf. Mrs Roosevelt's reply to Mr Klekovkin during

Figure 3.6
Gross enrolment ratios in tertiary education by region, 1970-1997



the drafting of Article 26 of the Declaration; see Appendix I, page 101.

'Equally accessible to all on the basis of merit'

Although the Universal Declaration of Human Rights did not directly call for the worldwide expansion of higher education, it nevertheless affirmed a principle – 'equally accessible to all on the basis of merit' (or 'individual capacity') – that inevitably would facilitate access to this level of education for social groups that had hitherto been under-represented or excluded (Table 3.4). In this connection it should be noted that the notion of 'merit', as originally included in Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, was intended to provide protection against discrimination in access to higher education on grounds such as 'race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth, or other status' (see Appendix I, pages 100–2).

Perhaps even more so than at the secondary level, since secondary education was traditionally considered to be mainly a preparation for higher studies, the expansion of enrolments at the tertiary level has represented a decisive step in the democratization of the world's education. Half a century ago, access to this level of education was regarded in most parts of the world as a privilege to which children of ordinary families could not aspire. If it is still beyond their reach in much of the world today (Figure 3.6; see also Appendix III, Table 8, pages 156–9), it has at least come to be recognized as a right that only their countries' want of the necessary resources can deny them.

In the early years following the adoption of the Declaration, the expansion of higher education was accompanied in many countries by a good deal of debate over the question of equity in admission procedures. A wide-ranging and definitive international study of these procedures, carried out jointly by UNESCO and the International Association of Universities, highlighted the

Box 3.9
'Admission to higher education is not a single act but a process covering all the years of education'

While it is evident that undemocratic features in higher education which are due to social and economic factors cannot be dealt with by educational measures alone, there is room to examine the educational factors that may impose barriers to the admission of all those of talent to higher education. In most countries a critical reappraisal of admission procedures is going on, and these national efforts have now been supplemented by the report of the International Study of University Admissions [Frank Bowles, *Access to Higher Education*, Paris, UNESCO/International Association of Universities, 1963]. . . . It provides a great deal of information on admission procedure, and the analysis throws much light on the question of the equalization of opportunity in higher education.

One of the fundamental conclusions of this report is that admission to higher education is not a single act but a process covering all the years of education. Those concerned with securing the maximum efficiency in institutions of higher education cannot afford to neglect this truth, and must consider carefully whether the organization of secondary education and the selection procedures that it includes oppose barriers to the advancement of talent. The report examines many of these barriers, which in some places are still considerable, but sees that they are everywhere being lowered. The role of the secondary school in relation to selection for higher education appears to decline as secondary schools come steadily to include a higher proportion of the appropriate age-group and an even wider span of ability. A greater danger inherent in the development of close relationships between the institutions of higher and of secondary education, is that which may arise when the number of secondary school graduates seeking admission to institutions of higher education is greater than the number of places provided; in such a situation the selection procedures used may amount to an almost complete control of the content of secondary education. When this happens, the needs of the secondary school pupil are sacrificed to the needs of the potential student of higher education. . . .

Source: World Survey of Education, Vol. IV, *Higher Education*, pp. 81–2, Paris, UNESCO, 1966.

Box 3.10
Introducing 'cost-sharing' into higher education in Kenya

One of the policy changes occasioned by the Structural Adjustment Programme is the reduction of Government support to students at the University. As a cost-sharing measure the students will, from the 1994/1995 academic year, be required to pay part of the cost of their education at the University. In effect this has removed the allowances that the students have been receiving. Based on the current total costs, a student has to meet about 41 per cent of his/her education at the University. However, to ensure that students whose parents may not be able to pay the fees are not denied University education, the Government has established the University Loans Board to give loans to students who want assistance. The loanees are to use the money to pay for accommodation at the University, purchase books and stationery, as well as pay for their meals and other personal needs.

Part of this change is the priority shift from higher education to basic education. It is now considered that to enhance development in terms of effective participation by all citizens, it is imperative that all should receive at least basic education. More resources will therefore be devoted to this level at the expense of University Education. The objective of this priority shift, as expressed in the Policy Framework Paper (1996–1998) is to reverse the recent declines in primary and secondary enrolments and to raise the completion rates, particularly of girls from poor households, as well as improve the quality of education at all levels.

Source: Development of Education 1995 to 1996, pp. 12–13, Nairobi, The Ministry of Education, 1996. (National report presented at the 45th session of the International Conference on Education, Geneva, 1996.)

difficulty of applying the principle of 'equally accessible to all on the basis of merit': that even where agreement could be reached on what constituted 'merit' (or 'individual capacity'), 'admission to higher education is not a single act but a process covering all the years of education' (Box 3.9). In that perspective, the study concluded, it was imperative to supplement admission procedures by measures designed to ensure that social and especially financial hardship would not prevent good students from being admitted.

In those days (1960s), as was noted earlier, official opinion at the inter-governmental level favoured 'the progressive introduction of free education' in higher education, and wrote this into the International Covenant (Box 1.4 on page 20). However, opinion has probably shifted since then. At least, 'free' higher education was not re-affirmed in the Convention on the Rights of the Child, which simply says 'make higher education accessible to all on the basis of individual capacity and by every appropriate means' (Box 1.5 on page 23), and many countries today have policies in favour of student loans and 'cost recovery' in higher education.

The reason could be the sheer scale of expansion of higher education in recent years, especially in the industrial countries, and associated fears concerning the possible consequences of 'free' higher education for public expenditure. The equity consequences of increasing 'cost recovery' are obscured by the very expansion of student enrolments, but in a number of countries there is evidence of a growing problem of student indebtedness. Cutting back on 'free' higher education with the aim of diverting funds towards basic education has become a feature of 'Structural Adjustment Programmes' in developing countries in recent years (Box 3.10), but evidence on whether this aim has been successfully achieved is currently lacking.

Diversity of provision

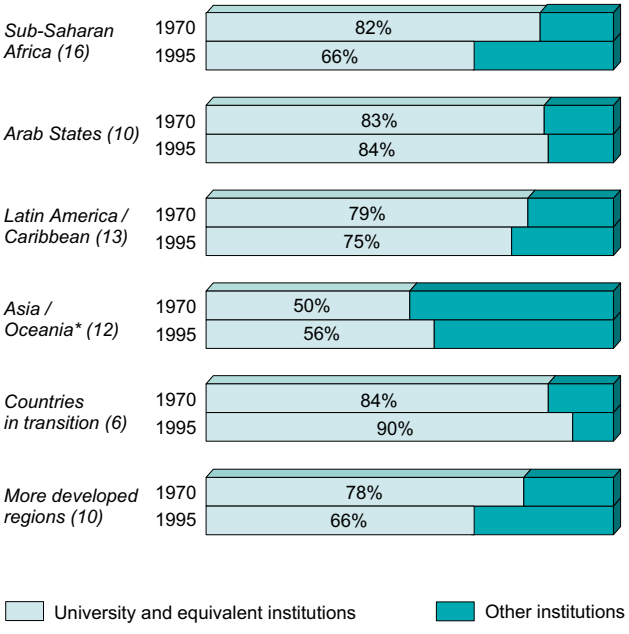
In the 1950s and 1960s there were fears that the development of higher education could lead to the emergence of a 'meritocracy'. These fears have not been realized. In opening up to progressively larger intakes of students at a time of accelerating change in the wider economy and society, higher education systems have been challenged both

internally and externally to open up structures, courses and programmes to an increasingly diverse array of abilities and interests that cannot be ordered hierarchically under a single unidimensional conception of 'merit' (or 'individual capacity'). In fact, with over half the age-cohort in the industrial countries now participating full-time in some form of tertiary level education, and a third enrolled in universities, the opposite problem has arisen: the emergence in these countries of a minority 'underclass' of young people in precarious employment outside the formal education system, lacking the skills and competencies needed for full participation in the modern economy.

It is difficult to trace the structural changes in higher education with a great deal of precision at the global level because of differences between countries, for historical or other reasons, in the interpretation of the concept of the 'university', and in the criteria for assessing whether other institutions provide an 'equivalent' education. With that reservation to one side, it appears nevertheless that the increased tertiary enrolments worldwide have mostly been accommodated in universities and institutions that are considered by countries to be 'equivalent' to universities, although other post-secondary/tertiary programmes (including distance education programmes), often with a mainly vocational orientation, account for nearly half of tertiary enrolments in parts of Asia and a third of such enrolments in some industrial countries and a number of countries in sub-Saharan Africa (Figure 3.7).

Although the larger higher education systems in the more developed regions of the world certainly

Figure 3.7
Distribution of tertiary enrolments by type of institution, by region,[1] 1970 and 1995



* Less developed regions in the Asia/Oceania continent.

1. Countries for which data are available for both dates (or nearest year). The number of such countries in each region is shown in parentheses. The figures shown are the averages of the country percentages in each region.

Table 3.5
Percentage distribution of tertiary enrolments by broad field of study,[1] by region,[2] 1970 and 1996

	1970		1996	
	Humanities	Science	Humanities	Science
More developed regions:				
Asia/Oceania (3)	69	31	66	34
Europe (14)	63	37	64	36
Countries in transition (4)	47	53	63	37
Less developed regions:				
Sub-Saharan Africa (11)	50	50	69	31
Arab States (9)	73	27	67	33
Latin America/Caribbean (14)	56	44	61	39
Eastern Asia/Oceania (4)	63	37	66	34
Southern Asia (4)	73	27	68	32

1. The different fields of study are grouped broadly into Humanities (education, arts, humanities, social sciences and law) and Science (natural sciences, engineering, medicine and agriculture). The figures shown in the table are the unweighted averages of the individual country percentages in each region.
2. Countries for which the relevant data are available for both dates. The number of such countries in each region is shown in parentheses.

Box 3.11
Mission to educate, to train and to undertake research: Article 1 of the World Declaration on Higher Education (1998)

We affirm that the core missions and values of higher education, in particular the mission to contribute to the sustainable development and improvement of society as a whole, should be preserved, reinforced and further expanded, namely, to:

(a) educate highly qualified graduates and responsible citizens able to meet the needs of all sectors of human activity, by offering relevant qualifications, including professional training, which combine high-level knowledge and skills, using courses and content continually tailored to the present and future needs of society;

(b) provide opportunities for higher learning and for learning throughout life, giving to learners an optimal range of choice and a flexibility of entry and exit points within the system, as well as an opportunity for individual development and social mobility in order to educate for citizenship and for active participation in society, with a worldwide vision, for endogenous capacity-building, and for the consolidation of human rights, sustainable development, democracy and peace, in a context of justice;

(c) advance, create and disseminate knowledge through research and provide, as part of its service to the community, relevant expertise to assist societies in cultural, social and economic development, promoting and developing scientific and technological research as well as research in the social sciences, the humanities and the creative arts;

(d) help understand, interpret, preserve, enhance, promote and disseminate national and regional, international and historic cultures, in a context of cultural pluralism and diversity;

(e) help protect and enhance societal values by training young people in the values which form the basis of democratic citizenship and by providing critical and detached perspectives to assist in the discussion of strategic options and the reinforcement of humanistic perspectives;

(f) contribute to the development and improvement of education at all levels, including through the training of teachers.

Source: World Declaration on Higher Education for the Twenty-first Century: Vision and Action, World Conference on Higher Education, 5–9 October 1998, Paris, *Final Report*, p. 21, Paris, UNESCO, 1999. (Document No. ED-98/CONF.202/CLD.49.)

provide a more diversified range of courses and study programmes – often of a much higher quality – than is provided by the smaller systems in the less developed regions, it does not appear from the data available to UNESCO that there are fundamental differences between the various systems in the distribution of student enrolments by broad fields of study (Table 3.5). In fact, higher education systems appear to have converged in recent decades towards a common global pattern, with around two-thirds of total enrolment studying in the 'humanities' fields (education, arts, humanities, social sciences and law) and around one-third studying in the 'science' fields (natural sciences, engineering, medicine and agriculture). In other words, there is not a greater tendency – as is sometimes thought – for the less developed regions of the world to concentrate on the less costly 'humanities' fields than there is for the more developed regions. The reasons for the pattern observed above are not fully understood, but they probably reflect the convergence of highly educated human resources in different countries towards a common overall skill profile rooted in standard fields of study.

The significant differences between countries and regions in their higher education, as in the case of primary and secondary education, relate to the quality of the education provided and the general problem, faced by all countries, of how to balance the demand for access with the resources available. Internationally, there exists a broad measure of agreement on the 'core missions' of higher education, including that of providing 'opportunities for higher learning and learning throughout life' (Box 3.11).

4
A renewed concern for education's purposes

WHILE IT IS APPARENT from the foregoing chapters that there has been a great deal of progress worldwide over the past half century towards implementation of the right to education in terms of access to education, it nevertheless remains that the vision that came to be embodied in Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was not just a quantitative one. It was also a qualitative one concerning the purposes and hence contents of education. For those who drew up and adopted the Declaration, education should aim to foster the best elements in the human spirit while promoting respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms generally (see Appendix I, pages 102–104).

Quite early in the drafting of Article 26, therefore, the question of education's purposes and contents, and the related question of parental choice, emerged as central to the task of formulating a complete conception of the right to education. Paragraphs (2) and (3) of Article 26 were the result:

(2) Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.
(3) Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children.

It is not easy to assess progress in regard to the implementation of these principles. Yet, the original rationale for propounding them surely remains as valid today as half a century ago. Although international tensions have abated since

Box 4.1
Declaration on a Culture of Peace (Articles 1 and 2)

The General Assembly . . .

Solemnly proclaims the present Declaration on a Culture of Peace to the end that Governments, international organizations and civil society may be guided in their activity by its provisions to promote and strengthen a culture of peace in the new millennium.

Article 1: A culture of peace is a set of values, attitudes, traditions and modes of behaviour and ways of life based on:
(a) Respect for life, ending of violence and promotion and practice of non-violence through education, dialogue and cooperation;
(b) Full respect for the principles of sovereignty, territorial integrity and political independence of States and non-intervention in matters which are essentially within the domestic jurisdiction of any State, in accordance with the Charter of the United Nations and international law;
(c) Full respect for and promotion of all human rights and fundamental freedoms;
(d) Commitment to peaceful settlement of conflicts;
(e) Efforts to meet the developmental and environmental needs of present and future generations;
(f) Respect for and promotion of the right to development;
(g) Respect for and promotion of equal rights of and opportunities for women and men;
(h) Respect for and promotion of the right of everyone to freedom of expression, opinion and information;
(i) Adherence to the principles of freedom, justice, democracy, tolerance, solidarity, cooperation, pluralism, cultural diversity, dialogue and understanding at all levels of society and among nations;

and fostered by an enabling national and international environment conducive to peace.

Article 2: Progress in the fuller development of a culture of peace comes about through values, attitudes, modes of behaviour and ways of life conducive to the promotion of peace among individuals, groups and nations.

Source: Declaration and Programme of Action on a Culture of Peace, General Assembly Resolution A/53/243, New York, United Nations, 1999.

the end of the Cold War, there still remains everywhere the challenge to develop a veritable 'Culture of Peace' (Box 4.1). The persistence of racial, ethnic and religious antagonisms in different parts of the world, and their degeneration into violence and armed conflict, even genocide, in certain cases in recent years, bear ample witness.

International concern for the purposes and contents of education has increased over the past decade, as societies in every region of the world struggle to cope with unprecedented political, economic, social and cultural challenges. Already at the beginning of the 1990s it was recognized that if young people learn little from their education – especially their basic education – then the purposeful nature of education itself is in question:

> Whether or not expanded educational opportunities will translate into meaningful development – for an individual or for society – depends ultimately on whether people actually learn as a result of those opportunities, i.e., whether they incorporate useful knowledge, reasoning ability, skills, and values. The focus of basic education must, therefore, be on actual learning acquisition and outcome, rather than exclusively upon enrolment, continued participation in organized programmes and completion of certification requirements (World Declaration on Education for All, Article 4).

Yet, even as doubts remain concerning its effectiveness, demands for education to contribute towards the solution of problems in diverse fields of global concern have multiplied (Box 4.2). Increasingly it is realized that the consolidation of peace is inextricably linked to the prospects of achieving sustainable development and the eradication of poverty, and that effective education is a pre-requisite for achieving these goals.

This chapter examines the international community's changing vision of education's purposes in the perspective of both the original vision proclaimed in Article 26 of the Universal Declaration

Box 4.2
World conferences in the 1990s that had significant recommendations concerning education

Conference	*Place*	*Year*
World Conference on Education for All [1]	Jomtien	1990
World Summit for Children	New York	1990
United Nations Conference on Environment and Development	Rio de Janeiro	1992
International Congress on Education for Human Rights and Democracy [2]	Montreal	1993
World Conference on Human Rights	Vienna	1993
International Conference on Population and Development	Cairo	1994
World Conference on Special Needs Education [2]	Salamanca	1994
World Summit for Social Development	Copenhagen	1995
Fourth World Conference on Women	Beijing	1995
Fifth International Conference on Adult Education [2]	Hamburg	1997
First World Conference of Ministers Responsible for Youth	Lisbon	1998
Intergovernmental Conference on Cultural Policies for Development [2]	Stockholm	1998
World Conference on Higher Education [2]	Paris	1998
Second International Congress on Technical and Vocational Education [2]	Seoul	1999
World Science Conference [3]	Budapest	1999

1. Organized jointly by UNESCO, UNDP, UNICEF and the World Bank.
2. Organized by UNESCO.
3. Organized jointly by UNESCO and the International Council of Scientific Unions.

of Human Rights, and the various normative instruments, Declarations and Programmes of Action relating to such purposes that have been adopted over the years since the Universal Declaration was proclaimed. The discussion is necessarily broad in scope and selective in the points chosen for emphasis.

In anticipation of the discussion, it may be useful to note in advance that the various statements which are taken to represent the international community's agreement on education's purposes are basically of three kinds. First are those that have been included in the international treaties: these generally utilize the actual wording of Article 26, along with extra words or short phrases that expand its meaning or scope, or introduce a new principle. For example, in Article 13 of the International Covenant, the term 'ethnic' is added to 'nations, racial and religious groups', and the phrase 'and the sense of its dignity' is added after 'human personality', while a new principle, 'education shall enable all persons to participate effectively in a free society', is also added (see Box 1.4 on page 20).

Second are those statements that have been included in internationally agreed but not legally binding recommendations on education, for example the Declarations and Programmes of Action adopted in the 1990s by officially convened international conferences on education such as the Jomtien Conference and the World Conference on Higher Education: their wording is typically more elaborate and less directly linked to Article 26, as for example the statement on the purposes of basic education ('Meeting basic learning needs') shown in Box 1.3 on page 19, or that on the 'mission' of higher education shown in Box 3.11 on page 72.

Third are those statements concerning education's purposes that are essentially limited in scope to particular fields, such as the protection of the environment, the strengthening of respect for human rights, or the eradication of poverty: this third category is relatively new, being largely the product of the series of international conferences convened by organizations of the United Nations system, with a view to assessing the challenges facing humanity in diverse fields of global concern, following the ending of the Cold War (Box 4.2). Except as regards the strengthening of respect for human rights, which is specifically mentioned in Article 26, most of the recommendations and statements in the third category are basically supplementary to, rather than direct expressions of, the purposes of education embodied in that Article. A good example is the recommendation on 'Reorienting education towards sustainable development', which is included in the Declaration adopted by the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (Rio de Janeiro, 1992) (see Box 4.8 on page 83).

Taking into account all of the above, the vision of education's aims and purposes that has emerged over the past several decades is essentially focused on two inter-related themes. The first, which can be broadly labeled as 'Education for peace, human rights and democracy', is directly linked to – indeed, has largely been inspired by – the aims and purposes proclaimed in Article 26 of the Universal Declaration. The second, which can be broadly labeled as 'Education for development', is linked to Article 26 in a more complex way. These themes are taken up in the sections which follow.

Education for peace, human rights and democracy

In the early decades following the proclamation of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the international context was not favourable to the exchange of views and experience among countries concerning the purposes and contents of education, at least in the areas specifically mentioned by the Declaration. The Cold War was at its height and many peoples were struggling to free themselves from colonialism. Peace and human

rights were contested subjects, foci of discord as much as of harmony between nations.

At the national level, as observed in the preceding chapters, the emphasis of educational policies in probably the majority of countries was primarily quantitative rather than qualitative: expansion of access to education at all levels and adjustment of educational structures, contents and methods mainly with a view to facilitating this. International discussion and debate concerning the contents of education focused primarily on their updating and modernization (e.g. the 'new mathematics'), and related improvements in teaching methods. The themes treated at the annual International Conferences on Public Education during this period are indicative: in the twenty years following the adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the purposes of education spelled out in Article 26 were the main focus of discussion and debate just twice (Box 4.3).

The first international treaty specifically concerning education that was adopted after the proclamation of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights – the Convention against Discrimination in Education – utilized exactly the same wording as Article 26 of the Declaration in its statement of the purposes of education (see Box 4.11 on page 86).

In 1974, an international Recommendation specifically concerning the purposes and contents of education was adopted, with a focus on education for international understanding, co-operation and peace and education relating to human rights and fundamental freedoms (Box 4.4). Its contents were drawn in part from an earlier recommendation on education for international understanding adopted by the International Conference on Public Education in 1968 (Box 4.3).

The 1974 Recommendation was to be influential, serving in many countries as a basic reference source for national policies aiming to strengthen the 'international' dimension in the contents of education. In certain respects it was ahead of its

Box 4.3
Recommendations of the International Conferences on Public Education relating to the contents of education, 1949-1968 [1]

1949 The teaching of geography as a means of developing international understanding.
The introduction to natural science in primary schools
The teaching of reading

1950 The teaching of handicrafts in secondary schools
Introduction to mathematics in primary schools

1952 Teaching of natural science in secondary schools

1955 The teaching of art in primary and secondary schools

1956 The teaching of mathematics in secondary schools

1958 The preparation and issuing of the primary school curriculum

1959 The preparation, selection and use of primary school textbooks

1960 The preparation and issuing of general secondary school curricula

1963 The organization of educational and vocational guidance

1965 Teaching of modern foreign languages in secondary schools

1966 The organization of educational research

1967 Health education in primary schools

1968 Education for international understanding as an integral part of the curriculum and life of the school
The study of environment in school

1. These Conferences were organized annually up until 1968 by the International Bureau of Education (IBE) in co-operation with UNESCO. This box lists only the Recommendations directly relating to the contents of education. In 1968, IBE became part of UNESCO. The International Conference on Public Education was revived by UNESCO in 1971 as the International Conference on Education, which met biennially up until 1996, the year of its most recent sesssion.

Source: International Conferences on Public Education: Recommendations 1934-1968, pp. xix–xx, Paris/Geneva, UNESCO/IBE, 1970.

Box 4.4
Guiding principles of the Recommendation concerning Education for International Understanding, Co-operation and Peace and Education relating to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms (1974)[1]

3. Education should be infused with the aims and purposes set forth in the Charter of the United Nations, the Constitution of UNESCO and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, particularly Article 26, paragraph 2, of the last-named, which states: 'Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace'.

4. In order to enable every person to contribute actively to the fulfilment of the aims referred to in paragraph 3 [above], and promote international solidarity and co-operation, which are necessary in solving the world problems affecting the individuals' and communities' life and exercise of fundamental rights and freedoms, the following objectives should be regarded as major guiding principles of educational policy:

(a) an international dimension and a global perspective in education at all levels and in all its forms;
(b) understanding and respect for all peoples, their cultures, civilizations, values and ways of life, including domestic ethnic cultures and cultures of other nations;
(c) awareness of the increasing global interdependence between peoples and nations.
(d) abilities to communicate with others.
(e) awareness not only of the rights but also of the duties incumbent upon individuals, social groups and nations towards each other;
(f) understanding of the necessity for international solidarity and co-operation;
(g) readiness on the part of the individual to participate in solving the problems of his community, his country and the world at large.

5. Combining learning, training, information and action, international education[2] should further the appropriate intellectual and emotional development of the individual. It should develop a sense of social responsibility and of solidarity with less privileged groups and should lead to observance of the principles of equality in everyday conduct. It should also help to develop qualities, aptitudes and abilities which enable the individual to acquire a critical understanding of problems at the national and the international level; to understand and explain facts, opinions and ideas; to work in a group; to accept and participate in free discussions; to observe the elementary rules of procedure applicable to any discussion; and to base value-judgments and decisions on a rational analysis of relevant facts and factors.

6. Education should stress the inadmissibility of recourse to war for purposes of expansion, aggression and domination, or to the use of force and violence for purposes of repression, and should bring every person to understand and assume his or her responsibilities for the maintenance of peace. It should contribute to international understanding and strengthening of world peace and to the activities in the struggle against colonialism and neo-colonialism in all their forms and manifestations, and against all forms and varieties of racialism, fascism, and apartheid as well as other ideologies which breed national and racial hatred and which are contrary to the purposes of this recommendation.

1. Paragraphs 3–6 constitute thesection entitled 'Guiding Principles' in the Recommendation.
2. Paragraph 1 of the Recommendation explains that the term 'international education' is utilized in the Recommendation as a concise expression of 'education for international understanding, co-operation and peace'.

Source: Recommendation concerning Education for International Understanding, Co-operation and Peace and Education relating to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms, adopted by the General Conference of UNESCO at its 18th session, Paris, 19 November 1974.

time, notably in its emphasis on the need for education to stimulate an 'awareness of the increasing global interdependence between peoples and nations'.

When this Recommendation was reviewed by the International Conference on Education (Geneva, 1994) twenty years later, agreement was reached that it should be supplemented by an up-

to-date Declaration and Integrated Framework of Action on Education for Peace, Human Rights and Democracy (Box 4.5).

The use of the term 'democracy' was an innovation compared to the 1974 Recommendation, which had referred to 'human rights and fundamental freedoms', but it had been evoked in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights itself (in Article 29) and in the Preamble of UNESCO's Constitution, and had been utilized a year earlier in the Declaration adopted by the International Congress on Education for Human Rights and Democracy (Montreal, 1993), and again a few months later in the Declaration adopted by the World Conference on Human Rights (Vienna, 1993):

States should strive to eradicate illiteracy and should direct education towards the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. The World Conference on Human Rights calls on all States and institutions to include human rights, humanitarian law, democracy and rule of law as subjects in the curricula of all learning institutions in formal and non-formal settings *(*Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action, para. 79).

Following up on the Montreal and Vienna Declarations, the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1994 proclaimed the ten-year period beginning 1 January 1995 as 'United Nations Decade for Human Rights Education', while also

Box 4.5
Declaration on Education for Peace, Human Rights and Democracy (1995)

We, the Ministers of Education meeting at the 44th session of the International Conference on Education, . . .

Strive resolutely:

- to base education on principles and methods that contribute to the development of the personality of pupils, students and adults who are respectful of their fellow human beings and determined to promote peace, human rights and democracy;
- to take suitable steps to establish in educational institutions an atmosphere contributing to the success of education for international understanding, so that they become ideal places for the exercise of tolerance, respect for human rights, the practice of democracy and learning about the diversity and wealth of cultural identities;
- to take action to eliminate all direct and indirect discrimination against girls and women in education systems and to take specific measures to ensure that they achieve their full potential;
- to give special attention to improving curricula, the content of textbooks, and other educational materials including new technologies, with a view to educating caring and responsible citizens open to other cultures, able to appreciate the value of freedom, respectful of human dignity and differences, and able to prevent conflicts or resolve them by non-violent means;
- to adopt measures to enhance the role and status of educators in formal and non-formal education and to give priority to pre-service and in-service training as well as the retraining of educational personnel, including planners and managers, oriented notably towards professional ethics, civic and moral education, cultural diversity, national codes and internationally recognized standards of human rights and fundamental freedoms;
- to encourage the development of innovative strategies adapted to the new challenges of educating responsible citizens committed to peace, human rights, democracy and sustainable development, and to apply appropriate measures of evaluation and assessment of these strategies;
- to prepare, as quickly as possible and taking into account the constitutional structures of each State, programmes of action for the implementation of this Declaration.

Source: International Conference on Education (ICE), 44th session, Geneva, 3–8 October 1994, *Final Report,* p. 22, Geneva, UNESCO/IBE, 1995. (Excerpt from the 'Declaration on Education for Peace, Human Rights and Democracy', adopted by ICE and subsequently endorsed by the General Conference of UNESCO at its 28th session, Paris, 1995, Resolution 5.41.)

proclaiming 1995 as 'United Nations Year for Tolerance'.

In 1995, the General Conference of UNESCO adopted the Declaration of Principles on Tolerance, Article 1 of which explains that

> Tolerance is respect, acceptance and appreciation of the rich diversity of our world's cultures, our forms of expression and ways of being human. It is fostered by knowledge, openness, communication, and freedom of thought, conscience and belief. Tolerance is harmony in difference. It is not only a moral duty, it is also a political and legal requirement. Tolerance, the virtue that makes peace possible, contributes to the replacement of the culture of war by a culture of peace.

In 1999, the General Assembly of the United Nations adopted the Declaration on a Culture of Peace (see Box 4.1 on page 74), Article 4 of which proclaims that 'Education at all levels is one of the principal means to build a culture of peace. In this context, human rights education is of particular importance'.

Looking back over the whole period from 1948 onwards, the international community's vision of education's purposes, as reflected in internationally agreed normative texts relating to 'the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms', the promotion of 'understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups', and furthering 'the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace', has expanded into a much more comprehensive, stated commitment to the principles originally proclaimed in paragraph 2 of Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights than could have been foreseen in 1948.

Yet, as much as the treaties, Recommendations and Declarations themselves, if not more so, it has been the surge of practical activities over the past decade in so many countries at the grass-roots level, in individual schools and educational institutions, that has given meaning to this commitment. Two areas of activity in particular may be mentioned: civic education and teaching/learning materials (especially textbooks) in the fields of history, geography and social studies.

Civic education, or 'education for citizenship' as it is sometimes known, has acquired particular significance in countries that have recently adopted democratic political systems (Box 4.6), but it has also drawn concern in countries where such systems have long been established and where signs have appeared of low voter turn-out, declining participation in the political process, and incidents of aggressive behaviour towards ethnic and cultural minorities. A large-scale international comparative study of civic education in twenty-four (mainly industrial) countries, currently being carried out by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), promises to provide much useful information on the variety of national experiences in this area.

International co-operation in developing appropriate teaching and learning materials to further the ideals embodied in the Charter of the United Nations and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights is still a relatively modest aspect of international co-operation in the field of education generally. Throughout the period of the Cold War, from the late 1940s until the late 1980s, it was kept alive mainly by UNESCO, by means of publications, workshops, symposia and other activities designed to facilitate the exchange of views and experience among educators in different countries. In co-operation with the United Nations Centre for Human Rights, the first International Congress on the Teaching of Human Rights was organized in Vienna in 1978, and a second such Congress in Malta in 1987. Among the Organization's best-known activities, the Associated Schools Project, launched in 1953 with 33 secondary schools (in 15 countries) aiming to experiment in new methods of teaching pupils about foreign countries and peoples, human rights and the activities of the United Nations, has since grown into a worldwide network of over 6,000

Box 4.6
A new Civic Education Centre in Estonia

The Jaan Tõnisson Institute started activities in the field of Civic Education in 1993. Initially the Civic Education programme was seen as a set of in-service training seminars for the Estonian-speaking and Russian-speaking schools' Civics teachers for implementing and strengthening a new Civic Education school subject in Estonia not supported at that time very much by the State.

During the following years the specific role of the Institute in Estonian education has increased: besides Civic Education, the issues of Multiculturalism, Human Rights, Citizenship and Integration of the society have become more actual in our work. Therefore in 1996 a special Civic Education Centre was created as a structural subdivision of the Jaan Tõnisson Institute.

The aim of the Civic Education Centre is to develop understanding of democracy in the society and to promote the democratic way of living in Estonia.

The target groups for the activities of the Centre are teachers of Civics and History, school headmasters, representatives of various national minority groups, state employees and local government servants. Our seminars are addressed to both Estonian and Russian speaking audiences. During the years we have co-operated with different foreign partners from Europe and the United States. There also are several partners supporting our activities in Estonia including the Ministry of Education and the Embassies of foreign countries.

Since 1995 special attention has been paid to co-operation between the organizations working in closely-related fields in the other two Baltic States – Latvia and Lithuania.

From June 1993 until May 1999 we arranged 96 seminars, conferences, workshops, roundtable meetings and in-service training courses – 184 days altogether. The total number of participants in these events has been more than 2800.

Up until May 1999 we published twenty-five different books and brochures on Civic Education, Citizenship issues, Human Rights Education and Multiculturalism issues. We were also able to produce two videos for compulsory schools. Additionally, we supported other organizations to publish two educational materials.

The Civic Education Centre has had an opportunity to share experience and capacity on the national level, but also internationally. The Centre is represented in the National Board of Civic Education at the Ministry of Education of Estonia and at the Board of National Minorities at the Office of the Minister without portfolio (on national issues) of Estonia.

The Civic Education Centre, which at present occupies only two staff members, cannot operate in implementing sometimes rather complicated projects without the assistance and support of the teachers, different experts and advisers. We are happy to say that working together closely with approximately twenty voluntary supporters has multiplied our strength and capacity and has guaranteed the viability of our activities.

Since February 1999 the Civic Education Centre has been an associated member of CIVITAS INTERNATIONAL.

In 1999 the application of the Civic Education Centre for establishing a UNESCO Chair in Civics and Multicultural Education Studies was approved by UNESCO. We hope that the UNESCO chair will help us to raise the efficiency of Civics teaching in Estonia and give us a better opportunity to study the educational needs of our multicultural society.

Source: International Conference, 'Through Civic Education Towards Multicultural Society', Tallinn-Tartu, Estonia, May 6-8, 1999, p. 2, Tallinn-Tartu, Jaan Tõnisson Institute, 1999. (Mimeo.)

schools in 163 countries. The activities of the Associated Schools today are focused on four main themes: global challenges and the role of the United Nations system; human rights; knowledge of other countries, respect for different cultures and the world heritage; and the environment.

A more recently established network is the UNESCO International Textbook Research Network, which was started in 1992 in co-operation with the Georg-Eckert-Institut für internationale Schulbuchforschung, Brunswick, Germany. This network, focusing mainly on textbook development and revision in the fields of history, geography and social studies, now extends to over 300 experts in 51 countries located in all regions

Box 4.7
Article 29 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child

1. States Parties agree that the education of the child shall be directed to:
(a) The development of the child's personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential;
(b) The development of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, and for the principles enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations;
(c) The development of respect for the child's parents, his or her own cultural identity, language and values, for the national values of the country in which the child is living, the country from which he or she may originate, and for civilizations different from his or her own;
(d) The preparation of the child for responsible life in a free society, in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality of sexes, and friendship among all peoples, ethnic, national and religious groups and persons of indigenous origin;
(e) The development of respect for the natural environment.

2. No part of the present article or article 28 shall be construed so as to interfere with the liberty of individuals and bodies to establish and direct educational institutions, subject always to the observance of the principles set forth in paragraph 1 of the present article and to the requirements that the education given in such institutions shall conform to such minimum standards as may be laid down by the State.

Source: Convention on the Rights of the Child, New York, United Nations, 1989. (A/RES/44/25.)

of the world. The guiding principles of the network are drawn from the 1974 Recommendation and the Declaration on Education for Peace, Human Rights and Democracy. Concern for the revision of history textbooks has been particularly marked in the past decade in the countries of Eastern Europe and the former USSR. 'Disarming history' was the theme of the recent International Conference on Combating Stereotypes and Prejudice in History Textbooks of South-East Europe, organized by UNESCO in Visby, Sweden, in September 1999.

In response to the strong interest in the Asia and Pacific region in values education, the Asia-Pacific Network for International and Values Education (APNIEVE) was set up in 1995 to promote and develop inter-country co-operation among individuals and institutions working in this area, through the organization of seminars and workshops, the exchange of information and personnel and the implementation of joint projects including research, teacher training, curriculum development, and preparation of teaching materials.

Education for 'development'

The second major theme or focus of the international community's vision of education's purposes that has emerged in the years since the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was proclaimed has been 'development'. Sometimes the emphasis has been on the individual's development, as in the Convention on the Rights of the Child (Box 4.7). At other times the emphasis has been on society's development, or on a particular aspect of it, as in the Programme of Action adopted by the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (Box 4.8). The two aspects of development – individual and social – have in recent years come to be recognized more clearly as interdependent.

The individual's development is stressed in Article 26 ('full development of the human personality'), but the individual is placed firmly in society ('respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms', etc.). An old idea in one form or another in most philosophies of education, the principle that 'Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality' was adopted almost without debate when Article 26 was drawn up. There only was some brief discussion of whether terms like 'physical', 'intellectual', 'spiritual' and 'moral' should be added to 'person-

ality', but in the interest of keeping the Declaration as concise as possible they were left out (see Appendix I, page 102).

The idea of 'free and full development of the human personality' was central to the vision of society that inspired the Declaration. In fact, at one stage during the process of drawing up the Declaration, a proposal was actually made to include an Article containing the wording: 'The object of society is to enable all men to develop, fully and in security, their physical, mental and moral personality, without some being sacrificed for the sake of others' (see Appendix I, page 102). Elements of this proposal were retained in the final version of the Declaration in both Article 26 and Article 29 (the only Article which mentions 'duties'): in the former case where 'the full development of the human personality' is declared to be a goal to which education shall be directed, and in the latter case where it is declared that 'Everyone has duties to the community in which alone the free and full development of the human personality is possible'.

In this perspective, education that is directed to 'the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms' can be clearly seen to be an education that is directed to the development of a certain kind of society, indeed, arguably one that provides opportunities, among other things, for 'education for all throughout life'. The development of society in general terms is evoked in the Preamble of the Declaration, in a passage quoted from the Preamble of the Charter of the United Nations that refers to the 'peoples of the United Nations' being 'determined to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom . . .'.

In the first internationally agreed normative text relating to the purposes of education that was adopted after the Declaration was proclaimed, the Declaration of the Rights of the Child (1959), the emphasis was mainly on the individual's development:

Box 4.8
Reorienting education towards sustainable development (Agenda 21)

Education, including formal education, public awareness and training, should be recognized as a process by which human beings and societies can reach their fullest potential. Education is critical for promoting sustainable development and improving the capacity of the people to address environment and development issues. While basic education provides the underpinning for any environmental and development education, the latter needs to be incorporated as an essential part of learning. Both formal education and non-formal education are indispensable to changing people's attitudes so that they have the capacity to assess and address their sustainable development concerns. It is also critical for achieving environmental and ethical awareness, values and attitudes, skills and behaviour consistent with sustainable development and for effective public participation in decision-making. To be effective, environment and development education should deal with the dynamics of both the physical/biological and socio-economic environment and human (which may include spiritual) development, should be integrated in all disciplines, and should employ formal and non-formal methods and effective means of communication.

Source: Agenda 21: Programme of Action for Sustainable Development. Rio Declaration on Environment and Development. Statement of Forest Principles. The final text of agreements negotiated by Governments at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED), 3-14 June 1992, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, p. 264, New York, United Nations, 1992.

The child is entitled to receive education, which shall be free and compulsory, at least in the elementary stages. He shall be given an education which will promote his general culture, and enable him, on a basis of equal opportunity, to develop his abilities, his individual judgement, and his sense of moral and social responsibility, and to become a useful member of society.

The best interests of the child shall be the guiding principle of those responsible for his education and

Box 4.9
Putting people at the centre of development (1995)

At the conclusion of the World Summit for Social Development – held 6–12 March 1995 in Copenhagen, Denmark – Governments adopted a Declaration and Programme of Action which represent a new consensus on the need to put people at the centre of development.

The largest gathering yet of world leaders – 117 heads of State or Government – pledged to make the conquest of poverty, the goal of full employment and the fostering of stable, safe and just societies their overriding objectives.

Among the ground-breaking agreements made by the world's leaders in the Declaration are ten commitments to:

- eradicate absolute poverty by a target date to be set by each country;
- support full employment as a basic policy goal;
- promote social integration based on the enhancement and protection of all human rights;
- achieve equality and equity between women and men;
- accelerate the development of Africa and the least developed countries;
- ensure that structural adjustment programmes include social development goals;
- increase resources allocated to social development;
- create 'an economic, political, social, cultural and legal environment that will enable people to achieve social development';
- attain universal and equitable access to education and primary health care; and
- strengthen co-operation for social development through the UN.

Source: World Summit for Social Development: The Copenhagen Declaration and Programme of Action, p. vii, New York, United Nations, 1995.

guidance; that responsibility lies in the first place with his parents.

The child shall have full opportunity for play and recreation, which should be directed to the same purposes as education; society and the public authorities shall endeavour to promote the enjoyment of this right (Declaration of the Rights of the Child, General Assembly Resolution 1386 (XIV) of 20 November 1959 Principle 7, New York, United Nations, 1959).

As already noted, this emphasis is retained in the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) (Box 4.7). The Convention against Discrimination in Education, which was adopted the year after the Declaration on the Rights of the Child, retained the original wording of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in referring to the purposes of education.

The next major internationally agreed normative text relating to the purposes of education, the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (Box 1.4 on page 20), basically retained the original wording of the Universal Declaration in referring to these purposes but added some extra wording ('sense of its dignity', 'participate effectively in a free society', 'ethnic'), as was noted at the beginning of the chapter. Elsewhere, the Covenant acknowledged a direct link between education and 'economic, social and cultural development', although it associated this link, as was conventional in those days, mainly with technical and vocational training. Thus, paragraph 2 of Article 6 concerning the right to work states:

The steps to be taken by a State Party to the present Covenant to achieve the full realization of this right shall include technical and vocational guidance and training programmes, policies and techniques to achieve steady economic, social and cultural development and full and productive employment under conditions safeguarding fundamental political and economic freedoms to the individual.

In the 1950s and early 1960s when the Covenant was being drawn up, there was a good deal of faith in many countries in linking education to 'manpower planning', as was noted in earlier chapters, but the idea that education generally –

and not just technical and vocational training – is a critical factor in economic growth and development was less often emphasized in national development policies than it is today. In many countries, public expenditure on education was largely regarded as a form of 'consumption' that economic growth made possible rather than as something that could promote such growth; the 'knowledge economy' of today was not foreseen. In a broader perspective, international consensus on the role of education in 'development' – whether economic, social or cultural – was hostage to the alternative visions of 'development' that prevailed on the two sides of the Cold War.

By the 1980s, however, appreciation of the role of 'human capital' had become firmly established in international thinking about economic development, while at the same time, as the Cold War waned, a more humanistic view of development in general also gained ground. Echoing the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the Declaration on the Right to Development adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1986 proclaimed the 'human person [to be] the central subject of development' (Article 2). Translation of this principle into an internationally agreed Programme of Action designed 'to put people at the centre of development' was achieved a decade later (Box 4.9). Since then, even the notions of 'human capital' and 'human resource development' have been questioned, as it comes to be realized that people are not merely 'resources for further production' (Box 4.10).

In the comprehensive vision of 'development' that has emerged out of the many international declarations and programmes of action adopted over the past decade (Box 4.2), education is increasingly called upon to contribute towards the solution of problems in diverse fields of global concern ranging from poverty to population growth, health (HIV/AIDS, drug abuse) and the environment, although resources for international co-operation in education appear to have recently levelled off (see Appendix II, Table 14, page 120).

Box 4.10
'We need a broader conception of development that concentrates on the enhancement of human lives and freedoms'

Is the recognition of the role of 'human capital' adequate for understanding the importance of what has been called 'human development', to wit, the development of the capability of people to do the things they have reason to value and choose? There is a crucial difference here between means and ends. Seeing human qualities in terms of their importance in promoting and sustaining economic growth, significant as it is, tells us nothing about why economic growth is sought in the first place, nor much about the role of enhanced human qualities in making it directly possible for us to lead freer and more fulfilling lives. [. . .]

There is, thus, something of substance that is missed in the much-used perspective of 'human capital'. The same applies, I am afraid to the concept of 'human resource development' if it is narrowly interpreted as the improvement of human beings seen as a resource for further development. Being educated, being more healthy, and so on, expand our lives *directly* as well as *through* their effects on making us better resources for further production, thereby expanding our productivities and incomes. To correct what is missed in the narrower perspective of 'human capital' and 'human resource development', we need a broader conception of development that concentrates on the enhancement of human lives and freedoms, no matter whether that enhancement is – or is not – intermediated through an expansion of commodity production.

Source: Amartya Sen, Human Development and Financial Conservatism, *World Development*, Vol. 26, No. 4, 1998, p. 734.

Educational choice

With consensus now having been reached in the international community that 'peace and development are closely interrelated and mutually supportive' (*Agenda for Development*, p. 3, New York, United Nations, 1997), 'education for peace, human rights and democracy' and 'education for

Box 4.11
Choice of education: Article 5 of the Convention against Discrimination in Education (1960)

1. The States Parties to this Convention agree that:
(a) Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms; it shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace;
(b) It is essential to respect the liberty of parents and, where applicable, of legal guardians, firstly to choose for their children institutions other than those maintained by the public authorities but conforming to such minimum educational standards as may be laid down or approved by the competent authorities and, secondly, to ensure in a manner consistent with the procedures followed in the State for the application of its legislation, the religious and moral education of the children in conformity with their own convictions; and no person or group of persons should be compelled to receive religious instruction inconsistent with his or their convictions;
(c) It is essential to recognize the right of members of national minorities to carry on their own educational activities, including the maintenance of schools and, depending on the educational policy of each State, the use or the teaching of their own language, provided however:
(i) That this right is not exercised in a manner which prevents the members of these minorities from understanding the culture and language of the community as a whole and from participating in its activities, or which prejudices national sovereignty;
(ii) That the standard of education is not lower than the general standard laid down or approved by the competent authorities; and
(iii) That attendance at such schools is optional.

2. The States Parties to this Convention undertake to take all necessary measures to ensure the application of the principles enunciated in paragraph 1 of this Article.

Source: Convention against Discrimination in Education, Adopted by the General Conference at its Eleventh Session, 14 December 1960, Paris, UNESCO, 1960.

development' can be seen as ultimately directed towards the same end: a world 'in which alone the free and full development of the human personality is possible', in effect a world which recognizes 'the inherent dignity and equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family'.

Yet this is a world of learning 'choices' as much as one of learning 'needs', whether these are considered from the standpoint of the individual or that of society. Recognizing the scope that exists for different approaches in pursuing the agreed purposes, and fearing to accord too much power to the State vis-à-vis the family, those who drew up and adopted the Universal Declaration of Human Rights added the third paragraph: 'Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children' (see Appendix I, pages 104–7).

Implementation of this principle has not always been easy. In practice, the issue has been less often the principle itself, even though it is still not everywhere recognized, than the question of whether (or to what extent) the State should support different kinds of education for particular groups, especially ethnic, religious or linguistic minorities. Other difficulties, notably those relating to differences in school quality within state school systems, were evoked in the *World Education Report 1993*.

The first international treaty to include provisions concerning parental choice and the rights of minorities in education was the Convention against Discrimination in Education, which still remains the most comprehensive treatment of the matter in any international treaty (Box 4.11). A mostly similar wording in respect to parental

choice was adopted later in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (Box 1.4 on page 20); 'minorities' are not specifically mentioned, but could be understood to be covered by the reference in Article 13(4) to 'the liberty of individuals and bodies to establish and direct educational institutions', a wording that was adopted again later by the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) (Box 4.7 on page 82).

The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, as was noted in Chapter 1, included in its Article 18 (concerning 'the right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion') a paragraph similar to that of both the UNESCO Convention and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, on 'the liberty of parents and, when applicable, legal guardians to ensure the religious and moral education of their children in conformity with their own convictions', and its Article 27 refers specifically to 'minorities', though not to their education. A similar wording, except for the use of the term 'a child' instead of 'persons' and the addition of 'or who is indigenous' after 'minorities', was adopted in Article 30 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1959).

In the period since the Convention against Discrimination in Education and the International Covenants were adopted, the main international normative instrument relating to the education of minorities has been the Declaration on the Rights of Persons belonging to National or Ethnic, Religious and Linguistic Minorities, adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1992. Paragraphs 3 and 4 of Article 4 of this Declaration concern education:

> 3. States should take appropriate measures so that, wherever possible, persons belonging to minorities may have adequate opportunities to learn their mother tongue or to have instruction in their mother tongue.
> 4. States should, where appropriate, take measures in the field of education, in order to encourage knowledge of the history, traditions, language and culture of the minorities existing within their territory. Persons belonging to minorities should have adequate opportunities to gain knowledge of the society as a whole.

Paragraph 3 puts a more positive stress on action by the State in regard to teaching and learning in the mother tongue than is given by the more neutral formulation of the Convention against Discrimination in Education. Paragraph 4 also contrasts with the UNESCO Convention by pointing in effect to the need for the community to understand or at least have 'knowledge of' its own minorities, besides the need for 'persons belonging to minorities . . . to gain knowledge of the society as a whole'.

In these respects, the 1992 Declaration amounts to a call for States not only to recognize, in the purposes and contents of their education, the cultural diversity of the population whom the education is intended to serve, but also to promote through education a harmonious appreciation of that diversity. The International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century, in a memorable phrase ('Learning to live together'), later called for much the same thing. From this standpoint at least, the fears of unleashing excessive State power over the purposes and contents of education, which originally inspired the third paragraph of Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, would seem not to have been borne out.

Actual practice within individual countries is again another matter, one that is partly dependent at least on national legislation and/or constitutional provisions concerning educational rights and governance. In many countries ranging in size from large multilingual states such as India and the Russian Federation to small, basically monolingual states with an indigenous minority such as Norway (whose Constitution, in Article 110, declares: 'It is the responsibility of the authorities of the State to create conditions enabling the Sami people to preserve and develop its language, culture and way of

life'), there exists strong constitutional and legal protection of the educational rights of minorities especially in the areas of language and religion, but these are very often states where the minorities have long been established historically. In other countries where the minorities are mostly made up of recent immigrants, the challenges for educational policy are often more difficult. An overall assessment of the current global situation in regard to the third paragraph of Article 26 can not easily be attempted since there does not at present exist an international database of national law(s) relating to the right to education, let alone one relating specifically to educational choice.

Nevertheless, many signs point to a continuing global trend towards the democratization of educational choice and related structures of educational governance. Previous editions of this report have noted, for example, the revolution in that regard which occurred in the early 1990s in the countries of Eastern and Central Europe and the former USSR; the trend over the past decade towards decentralization of educational decision-making in Latin America (e.g. Argentina, Mexico, Venezuela), and towards increased educational management responsibilities for local communities in Asia (e.g. China, India); the measures taken in a number of industrial countries (e.g. France, Sweden, United Kingdom, United States) aiming to provide families with more scope for choice between public schools; the efforts being made in Africa especially but also in Latin America to develop teaching/learning materials in indigenous languages; and the possibilities being opened up by developments in information and communication technologies.

For the populations still excluded altogether from education, however, there is of course no 'choice', indeed among many perhaps not even the knowledge that they ought to have a choice. Yet, if their 'inherent dignity' and claim to the 'equal and inalienable rights' that belong to all are better recognized today by the rest of the world than they were fifty years ago, this is surely an indication that progress has been made towards implementation of the right to education.

Appendices

I. The writing of Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights

Introduction

There exist a number of scholarly accounts of the writing of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, but they typically give uneven attention to the writing of the individual articles of the Declaration. Yet without a detailed knowledge of how the wording of individual articles was arrived at, it is not always possible today to understand clearly their full meaning, at least the meaning intended by those who originally prepared and adopted the Declaration. This is the case, for example, with Article 26 concerning education:

Article 26
(1) Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.
(2) Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.
(3) Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children.

What was intended, for example, by the distinction between 'elementary' and 'fundamental' education? Or by the words 'equally accessible to all on the basis of merit'? In order to answer such questions, this Appendix provides a detailed account of the writing of Article 26.

The Appendix makes extensive use of the official records of the United Nations' Commission on Human Rights, which was the body charged by the United Nations' General Assembly with drawing up a draft of the Declaration. Readers interested in the broader picture of the drafting of the Declaration are referred to the article by Professor M. Glen Johnson, 'Writing the Universal Declaration of Human Rights', in the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights: A History of its Creation and Implementation*, pp. 11–75, Paris, UNESCO, 1998, as well as to the references given therein; the same volume also contains an article by Janusz Symonides entitled 'UNESCO and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights', which describes the many different ways in which UNESCO has worked to promote understanding of, and respect for, human rights.

This Appendix has four sections. The section immediately following provides an overview of the process of drafting the Declaration, with particular reference to Article 26. The remaining three sections deal respectively with the writing of the first, second and third paragraphs of Article 26.

The drafting process

The Declaration was prepared over a period of nearly two years, in 1947 and 1948, by the Commission on Human Rights. This body, the only Commission mentioned as such in the Charter of the United Nations (Article 68), was established by the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) at the latter's first meeting in February 1946. The Commission was charged with submitting proposals and recommendations for an international bill of human rights. Initially, the Commission was set up in so-called 'nuclear' form with nine members elected by ECOSOC. Mrs Eleanor Roosevelt, wife of the late President of the United States of America, was elected President of the Commission and Mr Charles H. Malik of Lebanon was elected Rapporteur. In June 1946, ECOSOC decided to enlarge the Commission's membership to eighteen elected members. The full Commission met for the first time in January–February 1947. After a wide-ranging discussion of how it might go about fulfilling its mandate, the Commission next sought approval from ECOSOC for the setting up of a Drafting Committee, to be composed of eight of its members, with the function of preparing a preliminary draft of an International Bill of Human Rights. Approval was given by ECOSOC in March 1947, and the Committee held its first session from 9–25 June 1947 at the interim headquarters of the United Nations at Lake Success in New York State. The Members of the Drafting Committee present at the session were the representatives of Australia, Chile, China, France, Lebanon, the United Kingdom, the United States, and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. Mrs Roosevelt was elected Chairman, Mr P. C. Chang (China) was

elected Vice-Chairman, and Mr Charles Malik was elected Rapporteur.

In beginning its work, the Committee had before it three basic 'resource' documents: (1) a draft outline of an International Bill of Human Rights prepared by the Secretariat, (2) a draft International Bill of Human Rights together with a draft resolution which might be passed by the General Assembly when adopting an International Bill of Human Rights, prepared by the United Kingdom and (3) a set of proposals for the rewording of some items appearing in the Secretariat's draft outline, prepared by the United States.

The Secretariat's draft included a preamble and forty-eight articles, of which Article 36 concerned education. As described in Professor Johnson's article referred to above, the Secretariat, in preparing its draft, drew on a wide range of proposals regarding an international bill of rights that had been put forward by various non-governmental bodies during and immediately after the war as well as on the provisions made in a number of national constitutions.

The United Kingdom's draft included a preamble and eighteen articles, none of which referred to education. The United States' proposed rewording concerned twenty-seven of the forty-eight articles prepared by the Secretariat, including a rewording of the Secretariat's Article 36.

The text of the Secretariat's Article 36 was as follows:

Article 36
Every one has the right to education.
Each State has the duty to require that every child within its territory receive a primary education. The State shall maintain adequate and free facilities for such education. It shall also promote facilities for higher education without distinction as to the race, sex, language, religion, class or wealth of the persons entitled to benefit therefrom (E/CN.4/AC.1/3).[1]

As can be seen, the only phrase in the Secretariat's original draft that was eventually retained in the text of Article 26 as finally adopted was the first sentence. It is apparent, therefore, that much discussion and debate must have ensued before agreement was reached on the final text of this article.

As a result of the many differences between the texts of the various articles of the three 'resource' documents, as well as differences of opinion among the members of the Drafting Committee as to what form the international bill of human rights should take, the Committee was faced with a formidable task. The following extract from the official report of the Committee's first session describes how the Committee dealt with it:

Concerning the form which the preliminary draft might take, two views were put forward. In the opinion of some representatives it was necessary that the preliminary draft, in the first instance, should take the form of a Declaration or Manifesto; others felt that it should be in the form of a Convention. It was agreed, however, by those who favoured the Declaration form that the Declaration should be accompanied or followed by a Convention or Conventions on specific groups of rights. It was also agreed by those who favoured the Convention form that the General Assembly in recommending a Convention to member Nations might make a Declaration wider in content and more general in expression. The Drafting Committee, therefore, while recognizing that the decision as to the form of the Bill was a matter for the Commission, decided to attempt to prepare two documents, one a working paper in the form of a preliminary draft of a Declaration or Manifesto setting forth general principles, and the second a working paper outlining a Draft Convention on those matters which the Committee felt might lend themselves to formulation as binding obligations.

The Committee established a temporary working group, composed of the Representatives of France, Lebanon, and the United Kingdom, with the Chairman of the Committee as an *ex officio* member. It requested this working group:

(a) To suggest a logical re-arrangement of the articles of the draft outline supplied by the Secretariat;
(b) To suggest a redraft of the various articles in the light of the discussions of the Drafting Committee; and
(c) To suggest to the Drafting Committee how the substance of the articles might be divided between a Declaration and a Convention.

The temporary working group had three meetings, and after a general discussion decided to request Professor Cassin (France) to undertake the writing of a draft Declaration based on those articles in the Secretariat outline which he

1. All references in this Appendix, unless otherwise indicated, refer to documents of the United Nations Economic and Social Council, Commission on Human Rights, 1947–48.

considered should go into such a Declaration. It was the consensus of opinion that such a document would have greater unity if drawn up by one person. The Representatives of the United Kingdom and Lebanon, together with the Chairman, were asked independently to go over the Secretariat outline and the United Kingdom draft with a view to determining which articles could readily lend themselves to a Convention.

Professor Cassin produced a draft containing a preamble and forty-four suggested articles. The working group revised the preamble and the first six articles before submitting them to the Drafting Committee . . . . The remaining articles were submitted to the Drafting Committee in the form proposed by Professor Cassin.

[. . .]

The Drafting Committee considered in detail each of the six draft articles submitted by the working group, then considered in like detail the remaining draft articles submitted by Professor Cassin. Members made comments on the form and substance of the various articles. The comments are found in the verbatim and summary records.

[. . .]

The Drafting Committee accepted Professor Cassin's offer to prepare, on the basis of the discussion of his draft, a revised draft Declaration. This draft was examined by the Drafting Committee and further revised (E/CN.4/21).

Professor Cassin's first draft of the Declaration made significant changes in the text of the article concerning education that had originally been prepared by the Secretariat. This article became Article 41 in Professor Cassin's first draft of the Declaration, as follows:

Article 41

All persons have an interest in learning and a right to education. Primary education is obligatory for children and the community shall provide appropriate and free facilities for such education.

Access to higher education should be facilitated by the grant of equal opportunities to all young persons and adults without distinction as to race, sex, language, religion, social standing or financial means.

Vocational and technical training should be generalized (E/CN.4/AC.1/W.2/Rev.1).

The main changes made by Professor Cassin were to remove mention of 'the duty' of the State, and to bring in the ideas that 'all persons have an interest in learning' and 'vocational and technical training should be generalized'.

In Professor Cassin's second draft, prepared after the discussion of his first draft by the Drafting Committee, the article concerning education became Article 31 as follows:

Article 31

Everyone has the right to education. Primary education shall be free and compulsory. There shall be equal access for all to such facilities for technical, cultural and higher education as can be provided by the State or community on the basis of merit and without distinction as to race, sex, language, religion, social standing, political affiliation or financial means (E/CN.4/21).

This was mostly a rewording of the first draft, although there was one significant change of substance: the addition of the notion of 'access to such facilities for technical, cultural and higher education as can be provided by the State or community on the basis of merit'.

Professor Cassin's redraft of the Declaration was taken up for discussion by the full Commission on Human Rights at its Second session, 2–17 December 1947, held in Geneva. In order to facilitate its business, the Commission decided to set up three Working Groups immediately, to deal with the Declaration, the Convention or Conventions and Implementation, respectively. The Working Group on the Declaration was made up of the Representatives of the Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic, France, Panama, the Philippines, the USSR and the United States. Mrs Roosevelt was elected President of the Working Group and Professor Cassin was elected Rapporteur. Several observers were present from Specialized Agencies (including UNESCO) as well as various non-governmental organizations. The observers were permitted to intervene with suggestions and proposals, but because they did not have the right to vote, any proposal they made needed to be 'sponsored' by one of the official members of the Working Group if the proposal was to be formally considered for inclusion in the Declaration.

The Working Group met nine times altogether and examined Professor Cassin's second draft, article by article. As a result of this examination, the text of Article 31 was amended by substituting 'fundamental education' for 'primary education' and taking out

the references to 'technical' and 'cultural' education, while at the same time a new paragraph labelled Article 31(a), dealing with the content or purposes of education, was added as follows:

Article 31
Everyone has the right to education. Fundamental education shall be free and compulsory. There shall be equal access for higher education as can be provided by the State or community on the basis of merit and without distinction as to race, sex, language, religion, social standing, financial means, or political affiliation.

Article 31(a)
Education will be directed to the full physical, intellectual, moral and spiritual development of the human personality, to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms and to the combating of the spirit of intolerance and hatred against other nations or racial or religious groups everywhere (E/CN.4/77/Annex A).

The Commission reported its new draft of the Declaration to ECOSOC which then decided to circulate the draft to member nations for comment. This was done early in 1948. The Drafting Committee of the Commission then met again (3–21 May 1948), at the interim headquarters of the United Nations in Lake Success, New York, for the purpose of redrafting the Declaration once more so as to take into account the comments and proposals received. The Committee did not have enough time to complete its work before the full Commission on Human Rights commenced its third session in Lake Success on 24 May 1948, although it undertook a rearrangement and renumbering of the various articles of the Declaration as a result of which Articles 31 and 31a were renumbered as Articles 27 and 28 respectively. These two articles were examined by the Commission on 10–11 June 1948. The Commission decided to amend Article 27 while leaving the text of Article 28 unchanged, and to convert the two articles into two separate paragraphs of a single article which became Article 23 after the discussion of all the other articles had been completed and they had been renumbered. The text of this new Article 23 reads as follows:

Article 23
1. Everyone has the right to education. Elementary and fundamental education shall be free and compulsory, and there shall be equal access on the basis of merit to higher education.
2. Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality, to strengthening respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms and to combating the spirit of intolerance and hatred against other nations and against racial and religious groups everywhere (E/800).

As can be seen, the text of the earlier Article 27 was substantially amended by reintroducing the notion of 'elementary education' and excising part of the text concerning access to higher education, viz. 'as can be provided by the State or community' . . . 'and without distinction as to race, sex, language, religion, social standing, financial means, or political affiliation'. The excised text was considered redundant since the principle of non-discrimination was believed to be protected by other articles in the Declaration.

On the completion of its work on the Declaration, the Commission reported to ECOSOC, which, after a brief general debate at its seventh session in August 1948, decided to transmit the draft Declaration as it stood to the General Assembly. The latter in turn decided to consider the matter in its Third Committee and in plenary session.

The Third Committee devoted eighty-four meetings altogether to its examination of the draft Declaration. A considerable number of amendments were adopted, including amendments to Article 23 concerning education. The various articles were again rearranged and renumbered and the amended Article 23 became Article 27 in the revised version of the Declaration which the Third Committee eventually recommended to the General Assembly for adoption. The changes made by the Third Committee to Article 23 included:

- confining the term 'compulsory' to elementary education, while at the same time retaining the idea that 'Education shall be free' with respect to 'the elementary and fundamental stages';
- mention of 'technical and professional education';
- rewording of the paragraph concerning the content or purposes of education so as to stress the positive mode as well as to mention the United Nations; and
- addition of a third paragraph recognizing the 'prior right' of parents 'to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children'.

Except for one alteration involving the consolidation of two articles, the General Assembly on 10 December 1948 adopted the articles as recommended by the Third Committee. The voting on Article 27, which became Article 26 in the final version of the Declaration, was fifty-three votes for to none against with three abstentions; this was one of only six articles out of the original thirty-one submitted to the Assembly that were not adopted unanimously. The voting on the Declaration as a whole was forty-eight votes for to none against with eight abstentions.

It is evident from the above account of the successive drafts of the article concerning education that much discussion and debate had been needed to get from the first draft of this article prepared by the Secretariat to the final text adopted by the General Assembly. To recapitulate, the main steps were as follows:

- redrafting of the Secretariat's original text by Professor Cassin;
- discussion of Professor Cassin's first draft in the Drafting Committee, followed by the preparation of a second (revised) draft by Professor Cassin;
- revision of Professor Cassin's second draft by the Working Group on the Declaration set up by the Commission at its second session in Geneva, 2–17 December 1947, followed by the adoption by the Commission of two articles, Articles 31 and 31(a), concerning education;
- circulation of the revised draft of the Declaration to Member States for comment in early 1948, and convening of a second session of the Drafting Committee in Lake Success, New York, 3–21 May 1948, which renumbered the two education articles as Articles 27 and 28 but left their texts unchanged;
- revision of Articles 27 and 28 by the Commission at its third session (Lake Success, New York, 24 May–18 June 1948), and the adoption by the Commission of a single article with two paragraphs concerning education which became Article 23 in a new version of the Declaration;
- revision of Article 23 and the addition of a third paragraph by the Third Committee of the General Assembly, followed by the renumbering of all the articles in the Declaration with Article 23 becoming Article 27;
- renumbering of the articles by the General Assembly so that Article 27 became Article 26. Adoption of the Declaration by the General Assembly.

From a substantive point of view, the story of the writing of Article 26 concerning the right to education can largely be viewed as a process of successively constructing three distinct paragraphs: the first dealing with access to education, the second dealing with the content or purposes of education, and the third affirming the prior right of parents to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children.

It remains to consider the main points of debate during the drafting of these paragraphs. How was the wording of the three paragraphs arrived at? What arguments were used in favour of one set of words rather than another? These questions are considered in the sections below; each of the three paragraphs is analysed in turn.

First paragraph

(1) Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.

The first sentence, 'Everyone has the right to education', was included in the original article concerning education prepared by the Secretariat, and was never questioned at any time during the subsequent drafting process. The Secretariat had adopted a similar wording for many other articles, e.g. 'Everyone has the right to medical care', etc. The wording of the other sentences in the paragraph was in each case arrived at after much discussion during the drafting process. The main points of debate are presented below.

'Elementary' and 'fundamental' education

It had been proposed to the Third Committee that 'free and compulsory' should apply to both 'elementary' and 'fundamental' education, but the Third Committee decided to draw a distinction between the 'elementary' and 'fundamental' stages of education, and to apply the

term 'compulsory' only to 'elementary' education. The distinction that was drawn between the terms 'elementary' and 'fundamental' was a substantive though subtle one.

The term 'fundamental education' first appeared in the United States' proposed rewording of the Secretariat's original draft of the article concerning education:

> Everyone has the right to education. Each State has the duty to require that each child within territories under its jurisdiction receive a fundamental education. . . (E/CN.4/21).

Professor Cassin, in his first and second drafts of the Declaration, followed the Secretariat in using the term 'primary education'. However, during the discussion of his second draft by the Working Group on the Declaration set up by the Commission at its second session (Geneva, 2–17 December, 1947), Mrs Roosevelt insisted on the substitution of the word 'fundamental' for 'primary'. Her proposal was put to the vote in the Working Group and adopted by four votes to one, with one abstention (E/CN.4/AC.2/SR.8).

It is unclear in the record of that meeting what exactly the participants understood by 'fundamental' as distinct from 'primary' education, although it is recorded that during the discussion before the vote, the observer from UNESCO (Mr Havet) remarked that 'UNESCO was working on a programme of fundamental education by which was meant the equal right of all to a minimum standard of education as a means to world co-operation' (E/CN.4/AC.2/SR.8).

The matter was discussed again in the Commission's third session (Lake Success, New York, 24 May–18 June, 1948), when Mrs Roosevelt, 'speaking as the representative of the United States', agreed to accept an amendment proposed by Mr Jockel (Australia) substituting the word 'elementary' for 'fundamental' (E/CN.4/SR.67). However, later during the same meeting, Mrs Mehta (India) said that she would 'insist on the word "fundamental", which conveyed more clearly than "elementary" the conception of basic education which was the right of everyone' (E/CN.4/SR.67). The discussion on this point was resumed in the next meeting (afternoon of the same day) when Mrs Roosevelt introduced the two alternative terms 'and explained that the word "fundamental" was intended by several members of the drafting sub-committee to include the broader concept of education for adults as well as for children and adolescents' (E/CN.4/SR.68).

It seems that there could have been a certain amount of linguistic misunderstanding in the Commission, because Professor Cassin 'saw no objection to the word "fundamental" which the French text has translated as "élémentaire"'. Mr Lebar (UNESCO) 'strongly favoured "fundamental" to replace "elementary" on the grounds that the word "fundamental" contained the more recent and much broader concept of adult education and represented great progress in the thinking of educators over the past several decades' (E/CN.4/SR.68). Mr Chang (China) 'pleaded for support of the concept of "fundamental" education as elucidated by the representative of UNESCO' adding that 'that new and modern concept was particularly well adapted to countries where adult education became imperative for those persons who had not enjoyed the opportunities of grade-school instruction' (E/CN.4/SR.68). On the other hand, Mr Pavlov (USSR), while he 'gave vigorous support to the explanation offered by the representative of UNESCO . . . doubted whether free fundamental education was possible at the present time in view of existing cultural conditions' (E/CN.4/SR.68).

The Chairman then requested the Commission to choose between the words 'elementary' and 'fundamental' and put the matter to a vote, as a result of which the phrase 'This right includes free, compulsory elementary education' was approved by seven votes to five with three abstentions. Nevertheless, Mr Chang (China) still insisted. He 'felt that it would be tragic to omit the word "fundamental" from that phrase. He urged the Commission to insert the words "and fundamental" after "elementary", thus making a reference to education for adults'; his amendment to that effect was approved by ten votes to none with five abstentions (E/CN.4/SR.68).

Although the relevant phrase was eventually reworded, at the conclusion of the Commission's work, to become 'Elementary and fundamental education shall be free and compulsory', it is clear from the discussion that the two terms 'elementary' and 'fundamental' meant different aspects of the same thing, depending on whether the focus was on children or adults. Subsequently, the Third Committee adopted the prescription that 'Education shall be free, at least in the

elementary and fundamental stages', but confined the term 'compulsory' to elementary education.

'Free' and 'compulsory'

These two notions, as in the case of 'elementary' and 'fundamental' education above, were usually discussed together during the drafting process, mainly because of the reluctance of members of the Commission to consider that education should be compulsory if it was not at the same time free. The question of compulsion as such was the main point of debate in the Commission.

Professor Cassin's first draft of the Declaration had proposed the phrase, 'Primary education is obligatory for children, and the community shall provide appropriate and free facilities for such education' (E/CN.4/AC.1/W.2/Rev.1). This became 'Primary education shall be free and compulsory' in his second (revised) draft of the Declaration (E/CN.4/21). At the conclusion of the Commission's second session in Geneva, as noted earlier, the term 'fundamental' was substituted for 'primary', while at the same time 'free and compulsory' was retained.

Doubts concerning the term 'compulsory' surfaced during the third session of the Commission. Professor Cassin at one point volunteered an explanation that this term 'should be interpreted to mean that no one (neither the State, nor the family) could prevent the child from receiving elementary education' (E/CN.4/SR.68). He added that 'the idea of coercion [is] in no way implied'. For Mr Pavlov (USSR), the 'obligations' implied by the term 'compulsory' applied to society and the State: 'The concept contained in [the word "compulsory"] was closely linked with the concept of the right to education. It pre-supposed that the obligations of society correspond to the rights of every human being to free education. The State had the obligation to furnish opportunities for education to everyone and to ensure that no one could be deprived of these opportunities' (E/CN.4/SR.68).

However, for Mr Azkoul (Lebanon), 'The concept of compulsion was in contradiction with the statement of a right' (E/CN.4/SR.68). Mrs Mehta (India) expressed the same view. For other members of the Commission the issue was the role of the state. For example, for Mr Wilson (United Kingdom), 'it was dangerous to include the word 'compulsory' in the Draft Declaration because it could be interpreted as acceptance of the concept of State education' (E/CN.4/SR.68). On the other hand, for Mr Lebar (UNESCO), '[The word "compulsory"] did not mean that the State exercised a monopoly over education, nor did it infringe the right of parents to choose the schooling facilities they wished to offer their children' (E/CN.4/SR.68).

The Commission was evenly divided over the matter. A vote on the proposal to delete the word 'compulsory' was narrowly defeated by eight votes to seven. Later, when the whole question surfaced again during a discussion 'of the right of a family to choose the school which its children should attend', Mrs Roosevelt, speaking in her capacity as Chairman, 'said that in her understanding, it was the general view of the Commission that acceptance of the word "compulsory" in no way put in doubt [that] right' (E/CN.4/SR.68).

When the Third Committee came to discuss the matter, the question arose as to whether fundamental education could realistically be made compulsory. Some Committee members were doubtful, and the Australian delegation proposed an amendment that would have the effect of making only elementary education compulsory. For Mr Watt (Australia), 'It would be impossible to apply compulsion to adults who had failed to obtain elementary education in their youth; they might not have the time or facilities to attend school' *(Official Records of the Third Session of the General Assembly, Part I, Social, Humanitarian and Cultural Questions, Third Committee, Summary Records of Meetings, 21 September-8 December, 1948,* United Nations, Lake Success, New York, 1949 (hereafter referred to as *Records),* p. 583). Mrs Corbet (United Kingdom) agreed. Mrs Roosevelt (United States) considered that the Australian amendment 'contained an extremely important idea', but she thought that the wording could be improved. Her alternative wording, which became a joint Australian/United States amendment, was as follows:

'Everyone has the right to education, including free elementary and fundamental education. Elementary education shall be compulsory and there shall be equal access on the basis of merit to higher education' (*Records,* p. 590).

This wording prefigured the final wording of the first

paragraph of the article as eventually adopted by the Third Committee, with the single exception that it did not mention 'technical and professional education'. The latter was inserted by the Third Committee during its consideration of access to education beyond the elementary and fundamental stages, as will be seen below.

'Technical and professional education shall be made generally available'

The original draft of the article concerning education prepared by the Secretariat mentioned only primary and higher education. However, the United States, in its proposed rewording of this draft, had included the phrase '[the State] shall also assure development of facilities for further, including higher, education' (E/CN.4/21). After taking into account the United States' proposal as well as the Commission's discussion of the Secretariat's draft, Professor Cassin, in his first draft of the Declaration, included the phrase 'vocational and technical training should be generalized' (E/CN.4/AC.1/W.2/Rev.1). Then, in his second (revised) draft, Professor Cassin included the phrase 'There shall be equal access for all to such facilities for technical, cultural and higher education as can be provided. . . ' (E/CN.4/21).

When the Commission, at its second session, came to revise Professor Cassin's second draft, the reference to 'technical' and 'cultural' education got left out of the text of the article that was adopted by the Commission at this session. The reason is not clear from the record of the meetings, although it seems that there was a tendency for speakers to use the term 'higher education' to refer to all forms of education beyond elementary and fundamental education. This tendency persisted into the Commission's third session. It was not until the draft article concerning education came before the General Assembly's Third Committee that specific mention was again made of 'technical education'. The impulse was provided by the delegation of Argentina, which submitted an amendment that included, among other things, the phrase 'Every person has the right to an education that will prepare him to lead a decent life, to raise his standard of living, and to be a useful member of society' (A/C.3/251).

In introducing his delegation's amendment, Mr Corominas (Argentina) remarked that the draft text of the article 'was deficient in certain respects. No mention was made of modern educational trends such as vocational training and the development of technical aptitudes; it should not be forgotten that industrial workers had ceased to be artisans and were becoming technicians. The free development of natural talents would form better members of society and raise the general level of culture' *(Records,* p. 581). However, for Mrs Corbet (United Kingdom), 'while she agreed with the Argentine representative's argument about the need for development of technical aptitudes, it did not, in her view, add anything of substance, since that kind of training was included in the concept of higher education' *(Records,* p. 585).

Later, Professor Cassin, while making some remarks on the question of compulsory education, proposed a compromise. Noting that 'compulsion could not be established as regards higher education', he suggested that 'between elementary and higher education there was room for technical and vocational training, [and] in that connection, he suggested the following intermediate wording: "Elementary education shall be compulsory; technical and professional education shall be made generally available" ' *(Records,* p. 586). This wording was eventually retained by the Third Committee at the conclusion of its work.

'. . . accessible to all on the basis of merit'

Whereas education in what came to be called 'its elementary and fundamental stages' was foreseen from the beginning of the drafting process as being something that everyone ought to receive, a different concept, essentially one of equal opportunity, was applied to the other stages of education.

In the Secretariat's original draft concerning these stages, only higher education was mentioned: '[The State] shall also promote facilities for higher education without distinction as to the race, sex, language, religion, class or wealth of the persons entitled to benefit therefrom'. Professor Cassin, in his first draft of the Declaration, introduced explicitly the notion of 'equal opportunities': 'Access to higher education should be facilitated by the grant of equal opportunities to all

young persons and adults without distinction as to race, sex, language, religion, social standing or financial means'.

During the discussion of Professor Cassin's first draft in the Drafting Committee, there was initially a doubt as to whether the phrase concerning discrimination was really needed, given that the general principle involved could possibly be considered to be covered elsewhere in the Declaration. Nevertheless, Profession Cassin insisted on 'the importance of retaining the provision concerning discrimination on the grounds of social standing or financial means', and he was supported by Professor Koretsky (USSR) who stated that 'he was strongly in favour of retaining the entire clause relating to discrimination' (E/CN.4/AC.1/SR.14).

At this point in the discussion a new notion was introduced. Mr Wilson (United Kingdom), while declaring himself 'in agreement in principle with the Representatives from France and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics . . . suggested that [the text] required rewording to state more accurately what was intended; it should say that technical, professional and higher education shall be available to all without distinction as to race, sex, language or religion, and access to these facilities shall be on the basis of merit alone' (E/CN.4/AC.1/SR.14). This was the first mention of the term 'merit'. Mr Santa Cruz (Chile) proposed the same idea but with a different wording: 'The opportunities [for professional and higher education] must be open to all on equal terms in accordance with their natural capacities and desires to take advantage of the facilities available' (E/CN.4/AC.1/SR.14). In fact, the Drafting Committee adopted the term 'merit' and Professor Cassin accordingly included this term in his second (revised) draft of the Declaration.

When Professor Cassin's second draft came up for discussion in the Commission's third session, some members of the Commission sought further clarification. Thus, Mr Klekovkin (Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic) 'pointed out that the phrase "on the basis of merit" was vague and rather ambiguous. He, personally, was opposed to any statement of a restrictive nature. In the Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic, everyone had a right not only to elementary education, but equally to higher education; the only qualification required of the student was the desire to educate himself. [His] delegation could not accept any restriction of the aspirations to higher education' (E/CN.4/ SR.67).

The question of 'merit', Mrs Roosevelt pointed out, did not concern 'aspirations' as such: 'access to higher education in the countries of the USSR was subject to the same conditions as those prevailing in the United States: entrance examinations had to be passed' (E/CN.4/SR.67). Still, Mr Pavlov (USSR) was not satisfied: 'To avoid the possibility that such factors as wealth might be included, he suggested, instead, the words "on the basis of personal capabilities and knowledge"' (E/CN.4/SR.68).

Consensus was eventually reached as the result of an astute suggestion by the representative of Belgium, as shown in the following extract from the official record:

> The Chairman, supported by Mr Cassin (France), and Mr Chang (China) stated that the words 'on the basis of merit' represented precisely the safeguard sought by Mr Pavlov. They excluded such factors as wealth, personal or political favour, and ensured that higher education would be open to those who had the ability to receive it.
>
> Mr Pavlov (USSR) accepted the suggestion of Mr Lebeau (Belgium) that the Russian text might contain the very words proposed by Mr Pavlov himself, as an equivalent for the English 'on the basis of merit' (E/CN.4/SR.68).

Accordingly, when the phrase 'and equal access on the basis of merit to higher education' was put to the vote, it was approved by the Commission unanimously (E/CN.4/SR.68).

Nevertheless, the delegation of the USSR still harboured some doubts as to the wisdom of taking out the phrase concerning discrimination and replacing it with the phrase concerning 'merit'. Thus, when the draft article came up for discussion in the Third Committee, the USSR delegation submitted an amendment that added the phrase 'and access to such education must be open to all without any distinction as to race, sex, language, material status or political affiliation' immediately after the opening sentence of the article ('Everyone has the right to education'), while at the same time retaining the phrase 'and there shall be equal access on the basis of merit to higher education' *(Official Records of the Third Session of the General Assembly, Part I, Third Committee, Annexes to the*

Summary Records of Meetings, 1948, United Nations, Lake Success, New York, 1949 [hereafter referred to as *Annexes*, p. 84].

Although the representatives of the Byelorussian and Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republics and Poland are recorded as having expressed support for the amendment, other speakers considered it to be unnecessary. Thus, Mr Kural (Turkey) 'agreed with the idea expressed in the USSR amendment [but] considered the amendment unnecessary because the subject of discrimination was thoroughly covered in Article 2 and because the clause introduced by the amendment might be interpreted as restrictive' *(Records*, p. 581). For Mrs Corbet (United Kingdom), 'The USSR amendment was superfluous, since its substance had already been covered by Article 2' *(Records*, p. 585). Mr Santa Cruz (Chile) 'strongly supported [the amendment's] basic principles. Nevertheless, that amendment appeared to him to respect the provisions of Article 2 which stated clearly that everyone without distinction was entitled to the rights and freedoms set forth in the Declaration. He considered, therefore, that it was somewhat superfluous' *(Records*, pp. 587–8). Mrs Roosevelt said much the same thing *(Records*, p. 590), and added that 'an incomplete list of the categories against whom there was to be no discrimination [in this article] would only weaken the effect of Article 2 of the Declaration' *(Records*, pp. 600–1).

When put to the vote at the end of the discussion, the amendment was rejected by the Third Committee by twenty-two votes to seven, with four abstentions. Nevertheless, the discussion had clearly established that the article concerning education was to be interpreted in conjunction with Article 2 of the Declaration, which in its final form reads as follows:

> Article 2
> Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status.
>
> Furthermore, no distinction shall be made on the basis of the political, jurisdictional or international status of the country or territory to which a person belongs, whether it be independent, trust, non self-governing or under any other limitation of sovereignty.

Second paragraph

> (2) Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.

The original draft of the article concerning education prepared by the Secretariat did not contain any wording concerning the content or purposes of education, nor did Professor Cassin's first and second (revised) drafts of the Declaration. However, during the first session of the Drafting Committee, when Professor Cassin's first draft of the article concerning education was being discussed, Dr Malik (Lebanon) 'objected that this article made no reference to the content of education [which] he felt should be stressed by stating the principles of the Charter; otherwise, there was [a] possibility of abuse' (E/CN.4/AC./SR.14).

Professor Cassin did not follow up on this suggestion when preparing his second (revised) draft, possibly because he had already included at the beginning of his draft of the Declaration, immediately following the Preamble, a 'chapter' of six articles setting out 'General Principles', one of which (Article 2) had broad implications for the content and purposes of education:

> The object of society is to enable all men to develop, fully and in security, their physical, mental and moral personality, without some being sacrificed for the sake of others (E/CN.4/AC.1/W.1).

Although Professor Cassin's chapter of 'General Principles' eventually disappeared during the subsequent redrafting of the Declaration, some of the ideas were retained and came to be absorbed either into the Preamble or into particular articles elsewhere in the Declaration. This happened to the idea that was originally embodied in Professor Cassin's Article 2. When the Working Group set up by the Commission at its second session to consider Professor Cassin's second draft of the Declaration came to examine his Article 31 concerning education, there was an intervention by Mr Easterman representing the World Jewish Congress,

one of the non-governmental organizations with observer status at the meeting:

Mr Easterman (World Jewish Congress) said that his Organization felt very strongly on this subject. Article 31 as drafted provided a technical framework of education but contained nothing about the spirit governing education which was an essential element. Neglect of this principle in Germany had been the main cause of two catastrophic wars. He proposed the following wording: 'This education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality [and] to strengthening respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, and shall combat the spirit of intolerance and hatred against other nations or racial or religious groups everywhere' (E/CN.4/AC.2/SR.8).

The representative of Panama offered to sponsor Mr Easterman's proposal. In the ensuing discussion, the representatives of the Philippines, the USSR and UNESCO also spoke in favour of it, and Mr Adamo (Panama) added the suggestion that 'the words "physical, spiritual and moral" should be included' (E/CN.4/AC.2/SR.8). As amended in the discussion, the text submitted by the World Jewish Congress was then put to the vote and adopted by the Working Group by five votes to none, with one abstention, as a new Article 31(a) as follows:

Education will be directed to the full physical, spiritual and moral development of the human personality, to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms and to the combating of the spirit of intolerance and hatred against other nations or racial or religious groups everywhere (E/CN.4/AC.2/SR.8).

This text, with the addition of the word 'intellectual' after 'physical', was adopted by the full Commission at the end of its second session. Subsequently, during the Commission's third session, with a view to shortening the article to leave only its essential elements, the words 'physical, intellectual, spiritual and moral' were taken out.

When the paragraph came up for discussion in the Third Committee, doubts were expressed about the tone of its wording. Thus, for Mr Corominas (Argentina), 'Paragraph 2 of the basic text, with its mention of combating the spirit of intolerance, itself had an intolerant and aggressive ring, even though the idea it expressed was a noble one. It would be a mistake to retain that passage in the Declaration. Intolerance and hatred should be done away with by means of peaceful persuasion and education' *(Records,* p. 581). Mr Campos Ortiz (Mexico) agreed: 'the idea of combating the spirit of intolerance and hatred against other nations and against racial and religious groups everywhere was too negative, too pessimistic and, despite the present condition of the world, not in accordance with the deeper realities' *(Records,* p. 582). Referring to an amendment which his delegation had submitted in respect to paragraph 2 of the draft article, Mr Campos Ortiz noted that it 'introduced a positive idea which restored the balance – that of promoting understanding and friendship among all peoples', as well as 'positive and effective support of the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace' *(Records,* p. 582).

The Mexican amendment proposed the addition of a new paragraph immediately after the existing text of paragraph 2 as follows:

Education shall promote, likewise, understanding and friendship among all peoples, as well as an effective support of the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace (*Annexes,* A/C.3/266/Corr.1).

Virtually every speaker in the meeting expressed support for the principle of the Mexican amendment. The general feeling too was that the proposed text should be placed earlier by taking out from the existing text of paragraph 2 the words 'combating the spirit of intolerance and hatred . . . '. Although Professor Cassin spoke against this, arguing that 'that spirit unfortunately did exist and would not be eradicated by being passed over in silence' *(Records,* p. 587), Mrs Roosevelt, for example, felt that 'the Mexican amendment gave positive expression to the negative provisions of paragraph 2', and she declared that 'the United States delegation would therefore vote for it on the understanding that it would be substituted for the last part of paragraph 2' *(Records,* p. 590).

The delegation of the United Kingdom then proposed a new amendment for the rewording of paragraph 2 based in part on the Mexican proposal but removing the words 'combating the spirit of intolerance

and hatred . . . ' from the existing text of the paragraph and bringing in the idea of promoting 'tolerance' (*Annexes*, A/C.3/354). The delegations of Mexico and the United States followed immediately with a joint amendment identical in wording to the one submitted by the United Kingdom, but with the addition of the words 'as well as the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace' as had been stated in the original Mexican amendment. The joint Mexico/United States amendment proposed that the wording of paragraph 2 of the article be as follows:

2. Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality, to strengthening respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms and to the promotion of understanding, tolerance and friendship among all peoples, as well as the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace (*Annexes*, A/C.3/356).

In reply to a question from the representative of Australia asking 'why the amendment did not mention the "purposes and principles" of the United Nations', the Mexican representative 'emphasized that his delegation had thought it better to speak of "the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace" since that was the chief goal of the United Nations. Further, his delegation had thought that the word "tolerance" made it unnecessary to mention racial and religious groups separately' (*Records*, pp. 596–7).

Just before the vote on the joint Mexico/United States amendment, the representative of Lebanon 'suggested that the words "all peoples" should be replaced by words used in the original draft [of paragraph 2], namely: "all nations, and racial and religious groups"' (*Records*, p. 603). With this addition, the joint amendment was adopted by 35 votes to none, with one abstention (*Records*, p. 604).

Later, a subcommittee set up by the Third Committee to examine the totality of the Declaration, i.e. the Articles and Preamble, adopted by the Third Committee, 'solely from the standpoint of arrangement, consistency, uniformity and style and to submit proposals thereon to the Third Committee', replaced the words 'as well as' with 'and shall further'.

Third paragraph

(3) Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children.

As noted earlier, this paragraph was added by the General Assembly's Third Committee at the last stage of the drafting process before the final version of the Declaration was adopted. Although no such wording referring to parents had been included in any of the previous drafts of the article concerning education, the rights of parents in regard to the education of their children had in fact been evoked during the Commission's third session by Mr Malik (Lebanon), who 'stressed the need to exclude the possibility of situations in which dictators had the power to prevent parents from educating their children as they wished' (E/CN.4/SR.67). He added: 'Control of education could not be left entirely to the discretion of the State; parents should be allowed the freedom to determine the spirit in which they wished their children to be brought up' (E/CN.4/SR.67).

Professor Cassin, however, was not in favour of mentioning the respective educational roles of the state and the family in the Declaration. Referring to the discussion which had occurred on the text submitted by the World Jewish Congress during the Commission's second session, he said that 'the draft adopted there reconciled two trends of thought on the subject, one favouring the right of the State to determine the system of education and the other favouring the right of the family' (E/CN.4/SR.67). He continued by stating that 'At that time, the Commission had felt that, in the interest of the child and mankind in general, the Declaration should not set forth directives regarding the system of education, but should however indicate the factors which would favour the development of the human personality. Consequently, the text adopted [by the Commission at its second session] contained no allusion to the State and the family' (E/CN.4/SR.67).

This did not satisfy the Lebanese delegation, which later raised the whole issue again when the discussion in the Commission focused on the question of whether the word 'compulsory' should be included in the Declaration. Following the Commission's vote in favour of including the word 'compulsory', Mr Malik (Lebanon)

expressed the view that the inclusion of this word could 'be interpreted as making it imperative for children to be sent to schools designated by the State' (E/CN.4/SR.68). He felt it necessary, therefore, to propose an amendment adding a phrase 'designed to guarantee the right of the family to determine the education of its children, but not to prevent such education'. He offered two versions of the amendment, while at the same time remarking that he himself 'preferred the first', but 'would be content with the milder second one'. The versions were:

1. Parents have the primary right to determine the education of their children.
2. This does not exclude the right of parents to determine the education of their children.

This immediately received strong support from one of the non-governmental observers present at the meeting:

Miss Schaefer (International Union of Catholic Women's Leagues) appealed to the Commission to adopt the first of the two versions submitted by the Lebanese representative. The inclusion in the Article of the word 'compulsory' introduced an element of obligation by the State which might be misinterpreted. While the State should guarantee education to children, the primary responsibility for that education and the right to determine it rested with the parents. She urged the Commission to recognize that right and to state it in the Declaration of Human Rights (E/CN.4/SR.68).

Only the representative of Belgium is also recorded as having spoken in favour of the Lebanese Amendment. Mrs Roosevelt, speaking first in her capacity as Chairman and then as the representative of the United States, was skeptical:

The Chairman said that, in her understanding, it was the general view of the Commission that acceptance of the word 'compulsory' in no way put in doubt the right of a family to choose the school which its children should attend.

Speaking as the United States representative, she said that she considered the Lebanese amendment unwise. The obligation of the State to provide free and compulsory education meant that children had to attend school, but not necessarily the school provided by the State. While the latter was distinctly obligated to provide schools for all children without distinction, the choice of the school was left to the parents.

In the United States there was a difference of opinion on what should be provided by the State to non-public schools; the limits were extremely difficult to define. The Lebanese amendment might well give rise to an endless discussion in which she urged the Commission not to engage (E/CN.4/SR.68).

In the light of Mrs Roosevelt's remarks, Mr Malik proposed a third and final version of his amendment: 'This does not exclude the right of the family to choose the school to which its children will go' (E/CN.4/SR.68). However, when this was put to the vote in the Commission it was rejected by eleven votes to three with one abstention.

This was the close of the matter as far as the Commission was concerned. However, it was re-opened in the General Assembly's Third Committee by Lebanon again and this time also by the Netherlands, both of which submitted amendments to the text of the education Article that had been adopted by the Commission at the end of its third session above. In both cases, the amendments proposed the addition of a new paragraph to be inserted between the two existing paragraphs:

Lebanon:
Parents have a priority right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children (*Annexes,* A/C.3/260).

Netherlands:
The primary responsibility for the education of the child rests with the family. Parents have the right to determine the kind of education their children should have (*Annexes,* A/C.3/263).

The discussion of this question was more extensive in the Third Committee than it had been previously in the Commission, if only because the membership of the Third Committee – which corresponded to that of the General Assembly itself – was so much broader. The discussion also took on a different tone: whereas in the Commission the whole issue had got entangled with the question of whether elementary education should be 'compulsory', the representative of the Netherlands, when introducing his country's amendment, disarmingly

declared that 'he had no objection to compulsory education since that system had been in force in his country for more than fifty years' *(Records,* p. 582).

Mr Beaufort (Netherlands) pointed out that it was logical that the family should be given primary responsibility for education because it was in the family that the child first learned the methods of living within the community. The family could not be replaced by any public or private institution which contributed to education. That idea might have seemed a truism had it not been for recent experience, to which reference was made in the second paragraph of the preamble to the Declaration.

The rights of children were sacred because the child itself could not demand their implementation: parents were the most natural persons to do so. That was the sense of the first sentence of the Netherlands amendment (A/C.3/263). The second sentence followed logically from the first. Parents would be unable to bear that primary responsibility unless they were able to choose the kind of education their children should have. Nazi Germany, where the Hitler Youth deprived parents of control over their children, had provided an experience which should never be permitted to recur. It might be objected that such a provision restricted the child's right to education in that it deprived it of protection against negligent or unwise parents. Such cases would be exceptions, and, in any case, the influence of teachers and educational organizations would most probably prevent any real damage. The Declaration could not be based on the consideration of exceptional cases. His delegation was prepared to accept suggested improvements to the phrase 'the kind of education': it would itself suggest the words: 'to determine the religious and spiritual atmosphere in which their children should be educated'. He had no wish to interfere with the State's responsibility for the system of teaching: but parents must retain the right to select the atmosphere they considered best for the child. He had no objection to compulsory education since that system had been in force in his country for more than fifty years (*Records,* p. 582).

In the ensuing discussion, Professor Cassin and Mrs Roosevelt reiterated the reservations they had previously expressed on this issue in the Commission. Of the speakers who also are recorded as having expressed reservations, the representative of the United Kingdom considered that 'the basic text [of the draft article] did not exclude parents from the right to choose their children's education', and anyway 'a specific mention of the rights and duties of the family was inappropriate in a declaration of universal rights' *(Records,* p. 585). The representative of Greece considered that 'The evolution of modern society had reached a stage which made it impossible for parents to be granted the exclusive right to choose the kind of education to be given to their children' *(Records,* p. 591). The representative of Australia considered that the two amendments 'touched on a delicate question', and he 'feared that it would be extremely difficult to express the idea contained in those amendments in a way which would be acceptable to everyone' *(Records,* p. 593).

On the other hand, several speakers favoured the idea contained in the two amendments. For the representative of Turkey, the two amendments 'seemed equally acceptable; he wished, however, to hear the statements by the two representative who had introduced these amendments before determining his position' *(Records,* p. 581). For the representative of Pakistan, 'It was essential to guarantee freedom to choose education, a principle flagrantly violated by the Nazis', and in any case the amendments did not give parents "the right to withhold education from their children"' *(Records,* p. 585). The representative of Ecuador favoured the Lebanese amendment over that of the Netherlands which 'appeared to him to be ill-advised; its principle was applicable not to the present age but to the time when the father was really head of the family' *(Records,* p. 589). The representative of the Philippines also declared in favour of the Lebanese amendment 'which, without giving excessive authority to parents, gave them the right to decide the type of education which they wished their children to receive. That provision would provide protection against the risk of undue intervention by the State in the sphere of education' *(Records,* p. 593). For the representative of Belgium, 'It would, in fact, be an error not to retain the rights of the family in an Article of such importance, especially as it could not be assumed that the rights and duties of the State in the field of education had been disregarded by so doing' *(Records,* p. 595). Finally, for the Brazilian representative, while 'the draft Article as a whole appeared satisfactory, certain of the amendments submitted contained ideas worthy of consideration. For instance, there was the principle proclaimed

in the Lebanese and Netherlands amendments concerning the right of parents to determine the kind of education and instruction their children should have' *(Records,* p. 597).

At the end of the discussion, the Netherlands' representative withdrew his amendment in favour of Lebanon's, which was then put to the vote and adopted by seventeen votes to thirteen with seven abstentions. Later, a subcommittee set up by the Third Committee to examine the articles of the Declaration as adopted from the standpoint of 'arrangement, consistency, uniformity and style', changed the position of the paragraph to come third at the end of the article.

When the rearranged text of the article came to be voted on by the committee, the representative of the USSR asked that the third paragraph be put to the vote with the word 'minor' inserted before the word 'children', arguing that the existing wording 'might be interpreted to mean that if a young man of 23 or 24 wished to study a certain subject, his parents had the right to prevent him from so doing' *(Records,* p. 869). For the Chairman, this only displaced the problem on to the word 'minor', whence 'the Committee would then have to decide at what age a child ceased to be a minor' *(Records,* p. 869). Other speakers suggested that there had been a misunderstanding. Thus, Mr Watt (Australia) declared that 'No one had intended that parents should have such rights over their children up to all ages; indeed it was more the authority of the parent in relation to the State that had been envisaged' *(Records,* p. 870). Mr Ryckmans (Belgium) spoke in the same vein: 'The Article was clearly intended to confirm parents' priority over the State or organizations other than the family in matters of education. . . . Naturally no one could compel an adult to enter an educational establishment against his wish; the Article could therefore only apply to children under age' *(Records,* p. 870). When put to the vote, the third paragraph was adopted as it stood.

Postscript

In the years since the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was proclaimed, its principles have inspired a great number of internationally agreed normative texts of all kinds: treaties, Recommendations and Declarations. The five principal international treaties relating directly to education are:

- International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966);
- Convention against Discrimination in Education (1960);
- Protocol Instituting a Conciliation and Good Offices Commission to be Responsible for Seeking the Settlement of any Disputes which may arise between States Parties to the Convention Against Discrimination in Education (1962);
- Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989); and
- Convention on Technical and Vocational Education (1989).

The position as regards their ratification as at 1 August 1999 is shown in the table which follows. It should be noted that education is referred to in certain other international treaties, notably the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966) and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1979), as well as in several regional treaties.

List of States which have ratified international treaties relating directly to education (as at 1 August 1999)

I. International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966). Entered into force on 3 January 1976.

II. Convention against Discrimination in Education (1960). Entered into force on 22 May 1962.

III. Protocol Instituting a Conciliation and Good Offices Commission to be Responsible for Seeking the Settlement of any Disputes which may arise between States Parties to the Convention against Discrimination in Education (1962). Entered into force on 24 October 1968.

IV. Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989). Entered into force on 2 September 1990.

V. Convention on Technical and Vocational Education (1989). Entered into force on 29 August 1991.

	I	II	III	IV	V		I	II	III	IV	V
Afghanistan	x			x		Denmark	x	x	x	x	
Albania	x	x		x		Djibouti				x	
Algeria	x	x		x		Dominica	x	x	x	x	
Andorra				x		Dominican Republic	x	x		x	
Angola	x			x		Ecuador	x	x		x	
Antigua and Barbuda				x		Egypt	x	x	x	x	
Argentina	x	x	x	x		El Salvador	x			x	
Armenia	x	x		x		Equatorial Guinea	x			x	
Australia	x	x	x	x		Eritrea	x			x	
Austria	x			x		Estonia	x			x	
Azerbaijan	x			x		Ethiopia	x			x	
Bahamas				x		Fed. States of Micronesia				x	
Bahrain				x	x	Fiji				x	
Bangladesh	x			x		Finland	x	x		x	
Barbados	x	x		x		France	x	x	x	x	
Belarus	x	x		x		Gabon	x			x	
Belgium	x			x		Gambia	x			x	
Belize		x		x		Georgia	x	x		x	
Benin	x	x		x		Germany	x	x	x	x	
Bhutan				x		Ghana				x	
Bolivia	x			x		Greece	x			x	
Bosnia and Herzegovina	x	x		x		Grenada	x			x	
Botswana				x		Guatemala	x	x	x	x	
Brazil	x	x		x		Guinea	x	x		x	
Brunei Darussalam		x	x	x		Guinea-Bissau	x			x	
Bulgaria	x	x		x	x	Guyana	x			x	
Burkina Faso				x		Haiti				x	
Burundi	x			x		Holy See				x	
Cambodia	x			x		Honduras	x			x	
Cameroon	x			x		Hungary	x	x		x	
Canada	x			x		Iceland	x			x	
Cape Verde	x			x		India	x			x	
Central African Republic	x	x		x		Indonesia		x		x	
Chad	x			x		Iran (Islamic Rep. of)	x	x		x	
Chile	x	x		x		Iraq	x	x		x	
China		–[1]		x		Ireland	x			x	
Colombia	x			x		Israel	x	x	x	x	
Comoros				x		Italy	x	x	x	x	
Congo	x	x		x		Jamaica	x			x	
Cook Islands				x		Japan	x			x	
Costa Rica	x	x	x	x		Jordan	x	x	x	x	x
Côte d'Ivoire	x			x		Kazakhstan				x	
Croatia	x	x		x		Kenya	x			x	
Cuba		x		x		Kiribati				x	
Cyprus	x	x	x	x		Kuwait	x	x		x	
Czech Republic	x	x		x		Kyrgyzstan	x	x		x	x
Dem. People's Rep. of Korea	x			x		Lao People's Dem. Rep.				x	
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	x			x		Latvia	x			x	

	I	II	III	IV	V
Lebanon	x	x		x	
Lesotho	x			x	
Liberia		x		x	
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	x	x	x	x	
Liechtenstein				x	
Lithuania	x			x	x
Luxembourg	x	x		x	
Madagascar	x	x	x	x	
Malawi	x			x	
Malaysia				x	
Maldives				x	
Mali	x			x	
Malta	x	x	x	x	
Marshall Islands				x	
Mauritania				x	
Mauritius	x	x		x	
Mexico	x			x	
Moldova (Republic of)	x	x		x	
Monaco				x	
Mongolia	x	x		x	x
Morocco	x	x	x	x	
Mozambique				x	
Myanmar				x	
Namibia	x			x	
Nauru				x	
Nepal	x			x	
Netherlands	x	x	x	x	
New Zealand	x	x		x	
Nicaragua	x	x		x	
Niger	x	x	x	x	x
Nigeria	x	x		x	
Niue				x	
Norway	x	x	x	x	
Oman				x	x
Pakistan				x	
Palau				x	
Panama	x	x	x	x	
Papua New Guinea				x	
Paraguay	x			x	
Peru	x	x		x	
Philippines	x	x	x	x	
Poland	x	x		x	
Portugal	x	x	x	x	
Qatar				x	
Republic of Korea	x			x	
Romania	x	x		x	
Russian Federation	x	x		x	
Rwanda	x			x	
Saint Kitts and Nevis				x	

	I	II	III	IV	V
Saint Lucia				x	
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	x	x	x	x	
Samoa				x	
San Marino	x			x	
Sao Tome and Principe				x	
Saudi Arabia		x		x	
Senegal	x	x	x	x	
Seychelles	x			x	
Sierra Leone	x	x		x	
Singapore				x	
Slovakia	x	x		x	
Slovenia	x	x		x	
Solomon Islands	x	x	x	x	
Somalia	x				
South Africa				x	
Spain	x	x	x	x	
Sri Lanka	x	x		x	
Sudan	x			x	
Suriname	x			x	
Swaziland		x		x	
Sweden	x	x		x	
Switzerland	x			x	
Syrian Arab Republic	x			x	
Tajikistan		x		x	
Thailand				x	
The FYR of Macedonia	x	x		x	
Togo	x			x	
Tonga				x	
Trindad and Tobago	x			x	
Tunisia	x			x	
Turkey				x	
Turkmenistan	x			x	
Tuvalu				x	
Uganda	x	x	x	x	
Ukraine	x	x		x	
United Arab Emirates				x	x
United Kingdom	x	x	x	x	
United Republic of Tanzania	x	x		x	
United States of America					
Uruguay	x			x	
Uzbekistan	x	x		x	x
Vanuatu				x	
Venezuela	x	x		x	
Viet Nam	x	_[2]	_[2]	x	
Yemen	x			x	
Yugoslavia	x	x		x	
Zambia	x			x	x
Zimbabwe	x			x	x

1. Instrument of ratification deposited by the authorities representing China at UNESCO at the time of the deposit. The Director-General received from the Permanent Delegation of the People's Republic of China to UNESCO the following communication dated 2 September 1974: 'All signatures affixed to the Convention concerning the International Exchange of Publications by the Chiang Kai-shek Clique usurping the name of China are illegal and without force. The Chinese Government does not recognize them and shall in no way be bound by them'. By a communication dated 17 May 1988, the Permanent Delegation of the People's Republic of China to UNESCO informed the Director-General that the preceding declaration also applied to the Convention concerning the Exchange of Official Publications and Government Documents between States and to the Convention against Discrimination in Education.
2. The Democratic Republic of Viet Nam and the Republic of South Viet Nam (the latter having replaced the Republic of Viet Nam) united on 2 July 1976 to form a new State, the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam (Viet Nam). At the time of writing, the Government of Viet Nam had not yet made known its position regarding any succession.

II. Regional tables

As in the previous edition of the *World Education Report*, countries and regions are classified as indicated below:[1]

More developed regions

Northern America comprises Canada and the United States.

Asia and Oceania comprises Australia, Israel, Japan and New Zealand.

Europe comprises Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Monaco, Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, San Marino, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland and the United Kingdom.

Countries in transition

Countries in transition comprises Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Estonia, Georgia, Hungary, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia, Tajikistan, The Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Turkmenistan, Ukraine, Uzbekistan and Yugoslavia.

Less developed regions

Sub-Saharan Africa comprises Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Central African Republic, Chad, Comoros, Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Djibouti, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sao Tome and Principe, Senegal, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Somalia, South Africa, Sudan, Swaziland, Togo, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

Arab States comprises Algeria, Bahrain, Djibouti, Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Mauritania, Morocco, Oman, Palestinian Autonomous Territories, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Somalia, Sudan, Syrian Arab Republic, Tunisia, United Arab Emirates and Yemen.

Latin America and the Caribbean comprises Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Bolivia, Brazil, British Virgin Islands, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Grenada, Guatemala, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, Jamaica, Mexico, Netherlands Antilles, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Suriname, Trinidad and Tobago, Uruguay and Venezuela.

Eastern Asia and Oceania comprises Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, China,[2] Cook Islands, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Fiji, Hong Kong Special Administrative Region of China, Indonesia, Kiribati, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Macau, Malaysia, Mongolia, Myanmar, Papua New Guinea, Philippines, Republic of Korea, Samoa, Singapore, Solomon Islands, Thailand, Tonga, Tuvalu, Vanuatu and Viet Nam.

Southern Asia comprises Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Islamic Republic of Iran, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka.

Least developed countries comprises Afghanistan, Angola, Bangladesh, Benin, Bhutan, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cambodia, Cape Verde, Central African Republic, Chad, Comoros, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Djibouti, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Gambia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Haiti, Kiribati, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Maldives, Mali, Mauritania, Mozambique, Myanmar, Nepal, Niger, Rwanda, Samoa, Sao Tome and Principe, Sierra Leone, Solomon Islands, Somalia, Sudan, Togo, Tuvalu, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania, Vanuatu, Yemen and Zambia.

1. The totals for each regional group include data and estimates for other small countries and territories not shown individually in Appendix III's indicators tables. It should also be noted that the totals for 'Less developed regions' include data for Cyprus, Malta and Turkey, and do not double count data for the four countries (Djibouti, Mauritania, Somalia and Sudan) which belong to both the sub-Saharan Africa and the Arab States groups.
2. Data for China do not include Hong Kong Special Administrative Region.

Table 1
Dependency ratios[1] and population aged 15-64, 1990-2005

	1990				1997				2005			
	Dependency ratio (percentage)			Population (millions)	Dependency ratio (percentage)			Population (millions)	Dependency ratio (percentage)			Population (millions)
	0–5	6–14	65+	15–64	0–5	6–14	65+	15–64	0–5	6–14	65+	15–64
WORLD TOTAL	22.8	29.4	10.0	3 231	19.9	28.8	10.7	3 638	17.4	25.3	11.3	4 160
More developed regions	11.6	17.7	19.9	541	10.9	17.1	21.7	562	9.9	16.1	23.5	581
of which:												
Northern America	13.9	19.2	18.6	186	13.2	19.9	19.0	199	11.2	18.5	18.8	216
Asia/Oceania	10.2	17.9	17.1	102	9.3	15.2	21.7	105	9.7	14.2	26.8	105
Europe	10.5	16.5	21.9	253	9.9	15.7	23.6	258	8.8	14.7	26.0	260
Countries in transition	15.7	22.7	14.8	267	11.6	22.3	17.2	272	10.5	16.5	18.7	282
Less developed regions	26.0	32.8	7.3	2 423	22.5	31.8	7.9	2 805	19.4	27.6	8.5	3 297
of which:												
Sub-Saharan Africa	41.3	46.4	5.6	257	38.8	46.5	5.6	311	35.8	44.4	5.5	386
Arab States	34.4	42.7	6.0	123	29.1	40.0	6.1	151	25.9	34.2	6.2	191
Latin America/Caribbean	25.2	35.7	7.9	258	21.6	31.5	8.3	304	18.5	27.3	9.0	356
Eastern Asia/Oceania	19.8	26.3	7.9	1 086	16.3	25.7	8.8	1 210	13.4	21.2	9.9	1 364
of which: China	18.2	23.3	8.3	771	14.5	23.8	9.5	842	11.8	19.2	10.6	937
Southern Asia	29.5	37.1	7.0	684	25.2	35.7	7.4	809	20.8	30.4	7.7	978
of which: India	27.0	34.5	7.3	504	23.7	33.5	7.8	585	19.1	29.2	8.4	694
Least developed countries	39.2	45.8	5.8	265	35.1	44.2	5.7	325	32.5	40.2	5.6	407

1. Percentage ratio of the population in each age group to the population aged 15–64.

Source: United Nations Population Division database (1998 revision).

Table 2
Estimated illiterate population (millions) aged 15 and over, 1990-2005

	1990			1997			2005		
	MF	F	%F	MF	F	%F	MF	F	%F
WORLD TOTAL	894.5	566.4	63.3	882.1	562.2	63.7	857.5	548.3	63.9
More developed regions									
and countries in transition	18.7	13.0	69.8	14.2	9.8	68.6	10.2	6.8	66.8
Less developed regions	875.8	553.4	63.2	867.9	552.4	63.6	847.3	541.4	63.9
of which:									
Sub-Saharan Africa	134.9	81.7	60.5	137.6	83.6	60.7	136.7	82.8	60.5
Arab States	63.4	40.0	63.0	66.2	42.2	63.8	68.4	43.9	64.2
Latin America/Caribbean	42.7	23.9	55.9	41.6	23.0	55.2	39.6	21.5	54.2
Eastern Asia/Oceania	240.3	167.1	69.5	206.7	147.4	71.3	167.3	122.6	73.3
of which: China	192.2	134.1	69.8	164.3	118.5	72.1	131.6	98.4	74.8
Southern Asia	383.5	232.3	60.6	406.0	248.7	61.2	427.2	264.3	61.9
of which: India	274.1	167.6	61.1	284.8	175.6	61.7	292.8	181.9	62.1
Least developed countries	160.8	96.8	60.2	176.9	106.9	60.4	192.6	116.5	60.5

Source: Estimates and projections by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics as assessed in 1999.

Table 3
Estimated adult literacy rates (percentages),[1] 1990- 2005

	1990			1997			2005		
	MF	M	F	MF	M	F	MF	M	F
WORLD TOTAL	74.9	81.6	68.2	78.1	84.1	72.2	81.5	86.6	76.4
More developed regions and countries in transition	98.0	98.7	97.3	98.6	99.1	98.1	99.0	99.3	98.7
Less developed regions	66.6	75.7	57.2	71.5	79.5	63.4	76.5	83.2	69.6
of which:									
Sub-Saharan Africa	50.3	60.1	40.9	58.2	66.7	50.1	66.5	73.2	60.0
Arab States	51.2	64.8	36.7	58.5	70.6	45.9	66.2	76.3	55.8
Latin America/Caribbean	84.8	86.4	83.3	87.5	88.5	86.4	89.9	90.6	89.3
Eastern Asia/Oceania	79.5	87.7	71.0	84.3	91.1	77.3	88.8	94.1	83.5
of which: China	77.0	86.5	67.0	82.2	90.3	73.7	87.3	93.7	80.6
Southern Asia	47.6	59.9	34.5	53.2	64.8	41.0	59.5	69.9	48.4
of which: India	49.3	61.9	35.9	54.9	66.5	42.5	61.1	71.4	50.1
Least developed countries	42.6	53.8	31.7	48.4	58.9	38.0	55.2	64.5	45.9

1. Percentage of literate adults in the population aged 15 years and over. The population data utilized are those of the United Nations Population Division database (1998 revision).

Source: Estimates and projections by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics as assessed in 1999.

Table 4
Culture and communication indicators, 1990 and 1997

	Circulation of daily newspapers (copies per thousand inhabitants)		Radio receivers (per thousand inhabitants)		Television receivers (per thousand inhabitants)		Telephone main lines (per thousand inhabitants)		Number of PCs (per thousand inhabitants)	Number of Internet hosts (per 100 000 inhabitants)
	1990	1996	1990	1997	1990	1997	1990	1997	1997	1997
WORLD TOTAL	107	96	394	418	208	240	97	139	58	515
More developed regions	300	282	1 207	1 325	586	642	466	554	274	3 411
of which:										
Northern America	242	206	1 979	2 011	781	791	537	633	388	7 106
Asia/Oceania	538	525	929	992	582	651	441	482	223	1 357
Europe	250	242	848	920	442	517	424	521	204	1 336
Countries in transition	275	100	414	479	287	340	126	180	35	116
Less developed regions	41	37	219	244	124	156	21	54	12	16
of which:										
Sub-Saharan Africa	12	12	173	202	30	48	10	15	8	21
Arab States	36	36	249	269	100	119	33	55	10	5
Latin America/Caribbean	82	101	347	412	162	205	61	107	31	49
Eastern Asia/Oceania	67	56	293	306	207	253	18	64	13	18
of which: China	42	...	323	335	267	321	6	57	6	1
Southern Asia	23	33	86	118	29	54	7	22	2	1
of which: India	27	...	79	120	32	65	6	18	2	1
Least developed countries	8	8	112	142	13	23	3	4	1	0

Table 5
Enrolment (millions) and gross enrolment ratios in pre-primary education, 1990 and 1997

	Enrolment						Gross enrolment ratio (%)					
	1990			1997			1990			1997		
	MF	F	%F	MF	F	%F	MF	M	F	MF	M	F
WORLD TOTAL	85.4	41.0	48	95.6	45.6	48	28.4	28.7	28.1	30.8	31.3	30.4
More developed regions	20.9	10.2	49	22.0	10.7	49	67.7	67.9	67.6	71.8	71.9	71.7
of which:												
Northern America	7.8	3.7	48	9.0	4.4	49	62.4	63.3	61.5	69.7	70.1	69.3
Asia/Oceania	2.6	1.3	49	2.4	1.2	49	52.8	53.3	52.3	42.9	43.0	42.7
Europe	10.5	5.1	49	10.5	5.1	49	78.2	77.9	78.5	79.7	79.6	79.7
Countries in transition	17.0	8.2	48	13.2	6.2	47	66.5	67.8	65.2	60.2	62.0	58.3
Less developed regions	47.5	22.7	48	60.4	28.7	47	19.4	19.7	19.1	23.5	23.9	23.0
of which:												
Sub-Saharan Africa	2.4	1.1	48	3.1	1.4	47	8.0	8.3	7.7	8.6	9.1	8.1
Arab States	1.9	0.7	39	2.4	1.0	41	14.5	17.4	11.4	15.3	17.8	12.7
Latin America/Caribbean	11.9	5.8	49	15.1	7.5	50	43.7	44.1	43.4	53.6	53.1	54.2
Eastern Asia/Oceania	25.9	12.6	49	33.2	15.8	47	23.2	22.9	23.5	29.3	29.3	29.2
of which: China	19.7	9.4	48	25.2	11.7	46	22.7	22.7	22.6	28.5	28.9	28.0
Southern Asia	5.4	2.4	44	6.8	3.1	45	8.8	9.5	8.0	10.6	11.3	9.8
of which: India	1.5	0.7	46	2.6	1.2	47	3.4	3.6	3.2	5.7	5.9	5.5
Least developed countries	3.5	1.5	44	3.8	1.7	45	10.7	11.8	9.5	9.8	10.8	8.9

Table 6
Enrolment (millions) and gross enrolment ratios in primary education, 1990 and 1997

	Enrolment						Gross enrolment ratio (%)					
	1990			1997			1990			1997		
	MF	F	%F	MF	F	%F	MF	M	F	MF	M	F
WORLD TOTAL	596.9	273.5	46	668.5	308.4	46	99.2	105.0	93.0	101.8	106.9	96.4
More developed regions	61.3	29.8	49	62.9	30.6	49	102.8	103.1	102.5	103.5	103.6	103.4
of which:												
Northern America	24.8	12.0	48	26.9	13.1	49	102.4	103.2	101.4	101.1	101.4	100.8
Asia/Oceania	12.0	5.9	49	10.7	5.2	49	97.2	97.3	97.1	98.8	98.9	98.7
Europe	24.5	11.9	49	25.2	12.3	49	104.4	104.3	104.5	107.2	107.2	107.3
Countries in transition	29.7	14.5	49	27.4	13.3	49	96.5	96.7	96.2	100.1	100.6	99.5
Less developed regions	505.9	229.1	45	578.2	264.4	46	98.9	105.7	91.7	101.7	107.6	95.5
of which:												
Sub-Saharan Africa	64.4	29.1	45	81.0	36.5	45	74.8	81.9	67.6	76.8	84.1	69.4
Arab States	30.4	13.2	44	36.6	16.3	45	81.4	90.0	72.4	84.7	92.1	76.9
Latin America/Caribbean	75.5	36.8	49	85.2	40.6	48	105.0	106.2	103.7	113.6	116.9	110.2
Eastern Asia/Oceania	194.9	91.6	47	214.7	102.8	48	118.5	122.0	114.8	118.0	118.3	117.6
of which: China	122.4	56.6	46	140.0	66.7	48	125.2	129.6	120.3	122.8	122.5	123.0
Southern Asia	136.0	56.1	41	157.7	66.6	42	90.3	102.6	77.1	95.4	106.8	83.3
of which: India	99.1	41.0	41	111.1	48.2	43	97.2	109.9	83.6	99.5	108.8	89.5
Least developed countries	53.8	23.4	44	68.7	29.7	43	65.8	73.4	58.0	71.5	80.6	62.3

Table 7
Enrolment (millions) and gross enrolment ratios in secondary education, 1990 and 1997

	Enrolment						Gross enrolment ratio (%)					
	1990			1997			1990			1997		
	MF	F	%F	MF	F	%F	MF	M	F	MF	M	F
WORLD TOTAL	315.0	139.1	44	398.1	180.9	45	51.8	56.5	46.9	60.1	64.0	56.0
More developed regions	68.9	33.9	49	75.8	37.3	49	94.5	93.7	95.4	108.0	107.0	109.2
of which:												
Northern America	21.6	10.6	49	24.7	12.1	49	93.9	93.3	94.4	98.2	97.8	98.6
Asia/Oceania	13.0	6.4	49	13.3	6.5	49	96.2	96.0	96.5	102.4	102.6	102.1
Europe	34.4	16.9	49	37.8	18.7	49	94.8	93.9	95.8	113.2	111.6	114.9
Countries in transition	38.2	19.0	50	41.1	20.6	50	91.6	90.4	92.8	87.0	85.4	88.6
Less developed regions	207.9	86.2	41	281.3	123.0	44	42.1	48.1	35.9	51.6	56.6	46.3
of which:												
Sub-Saharan Africa	14.7	6.3	43	21.0	9.3	44	22.4	25.5	19.2	26.2	29.1	23.3
Arab States	15.0	6.3	42	18.7	8.4	45	52.2	59.1	44.9	56.9	61.2	52.3
Latin America/Caribbean	22.2	11.4	51	29.2	15.1	52	50.9	49.0	52.8	62.2	59.2	65.3
Eastern Asia/Oceania	82.0	35.6	43	113.4	52.2	46	47.4	52.3	42.3	66.3	69.3	63.1
of which: China	52.4	21.7	41	71.9	32.5	45	48.7	55.3	41.7	70.1	73.7	66.2
Southern Asia	71.0	25.5	36	94.6	36.1	38	39.8	49.2	29.7	45.3	54.1	35.8
of which: India	55.0	19.5	35	69.7	26.1	37	44.4	55.0	32.9	49.1	59.1	38.2
Least developed countries	12.1	4.4	36	16.4	6.3	38	17.2	21.8	12.6	19.3	23.5	15.0

Table 8
Enrolment (millions) and gross enrolment ratios in tertiary education, 1990 and 1997

	Enrolment						Gross enrolment ratio (%)					
	1990			1997			1990			1997		
	MF	F	% F	MF	F	% F	MF	M	F	MF	M	F
WORLD TOTAL	68.6	31.6	46	88.2	41.3	47	13.8	14.6	13.0	17.4	18.1	16.7
More developed regions	29.1	14.7	51	34.2	17.9	52	48.0	46.5	49.6	61.1	56.8	65.6
of which:												
Northern America	15.6	8.5	54	16.0	8.9	55	77.2	68.9	85.8	80.7	70.8	91.0
Asia/Oceania	3.5	1.5	41	5.5	2.5	46	30.3	33.1	27.4	42.1	43.3	40.9
Europe	10.0	4.8	48	12.7	6.5	52	34.5	35.3	33.6	50.7	47.9	53.6
Countries in transition	10.7	5.6	53	11.0	6.0	54	36.1	33.4	38.8	34.0	30.6	37.6
Less developed regions	28.8	11.2	39	43.0	17.4	40	7.1	8.5	5.7	10.3	12.0	8.5
of which:												
Sub-Saharan Africa	1.4	0.4	32	2.2	0.8	35	3.0	4.1	1.9	3.9	5.1	2.8
Arab States	2.4	0.9	37	3.9	1.6	41	11.4	14.1	8.6	14.9	17.3	12.4
Latin America/Caribbean	7.3	3.5	49	9.4	4.5	48	16.8	17.3	16.4	19.4	20.1	18.7
Eastern Asia/Oceania	10.6	4.1	38	16.8	6.8	41	5.9	7.1	4.7	10.8	12.5	9.0
of which: China	3.8	1.3	33	6.1	2.0	33	3.0	3.9	2.0	6.1	7.8	4.2
Southern Asia	6.5	2.0	32	9.3	3.2	34	5.7	7.4	3.7	7.2	9.1	5.1
of which: India	5.0	1.6	33	6.4	2.3	36	6.1	7.7	4.2	7.2	8.8	5.5
Least developed countries	1.2	0.3	27	1.9	0.5	27	2.5	3.6	1.3	3.2	4.6	1.7

Table 9
Number of teachers (thousands), by level of education, 1990 and 1997

	1990					1997				
	Pre-primary	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary	All levels	Pre-primary	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary	All levels
WORLD TOTAL	4 588	22 626	19 380	5 100	51 694	4 854	24 818	23 017	6 284	58 973
More developed regions	1 018	3 747	5 236	2 018	12 018	1 066	3 918	5 522	2 506	13 011
of which:										
Northern America	303	1 582	1 449	969	4 302	323	1 673	1 576	1 093	4 664
Asia/Oceania	132	614	831	339	1 916	140	601	981	492	2 214
Europe	583	1 552	2 956	710	5 800	603	1 644	2 965	921	6 132
Countries in transition	1 709	1 503	2 950	946	7 108	1 408	1 480	3 605	1 007	7 498
Less developed regions	1 861	17 377	11 195	2 136	32 569	2 381	19 422	13 891	2 771	38 465
of which:										
Sub-Saharan Africa	75	1 720	677	77	2 550	105	2 095	824	123	3 148
Arab States	88	1 252	874	136	2 351	114	1 634	1 175	193	3 117
Latin America/Caribbean	518	3 006	1 520	605	5 648	729	3 474	1 874	789	6 866
Eastern Asia/Oceania	1 031	8 247	5 373	871	15 522	1 260	8 624	6 603	1 045	17 532
of which: China	750	5 582	3 632	512	10 475	884	5 794	4 437	544	11 659
Southern Asia	147	2 990	2 621	414	6 172	168	3 472	3 202	574	7 417
of which: India	24	2 109	1 907	330	4 370	37	2 377	2 186	419	5 019
Least developed countries	103	1 248	550	61	1 962	110	1 545	709	95	2 460

Table 10
Number of teachers (all levels) per thousand population in the age group 15- 64 and percentage of female teachers by level of education, 1990 and 1997

	Number of teachers (all levels)[1] per thousand population in the age group 15–64		Percentage of female teachers					
			1990			1997		
	1990	1997	Pre-primary	Primary	Secondary	Pre-primary	Primary	Secondary
WORLD TOTAL	16	16	94.5	56.3	44.8	93.7	58.3	47.7
More developed regions	22	23	92.6	77.1	49.6	92.9	79.0	52.7
of which:								
Northern America	23	23	94.7	84.5	54.0	93.4	84.5	56.6
Asia/Oceania	19	21	90.4	62.9	34.7	90.6	66.8	39.3
Europe	23	24	92.0	75.3	51.7	93.1	77.9	55.0
Countries in transition	27	28	99.8	87.5	64.2	99.7	88.4	67.1
Less developed regions	13	14	90.7	49.1	37.4	90.5	51.9	40.7
of which:								
Sub-Saharan Africa	10	10	86.8	39.4	32.8	91.5	43.3	30.7
Arab States	19	21	58.8	51.4	39.1	74.4	52.3	41.9
Latin America/Caribbean	22	23	97.2	77.1	48.6	94.5	76.7	46.7
Eastern Asia/Oceania	14	14	96.2	47.4	36.1	94.8	52.1	41.7
of which: China	14	14	96.3	43.2	31.1	94.0	48.3	37.2
Southern Asia	9	9	46.6	30.6	34.0	49.5	32.2	37.0
of which: India	9	9	93.3	28.0	34.4	93.5	29.6	37.9
Least developed countries	7	8	38.1	33.3	27.0	43.9	34.5	29.6

1. Including tertiary education.

Table 11
Foreign students by host region and region of origin, 1996

Region of origin	Host region[1] WORLD	More developed regions	Countries in transition	Less developed regions	Sub-Saharan Africa	Arab States	Latin America/ Caribbean	Eastern Asia/ Oceania	Southern Asia
WORLD	1 550 305	1 257 046	154 776	138 483	15 011	55 304	18 563	32 472	677
More developed regions	476 391	438 503	18 054	19 834	16	214	939	16 708	5
of which:									
Northern America	57 489	52 316	655	4 518	5	42	260	4 157	2
Asia/Oceania	81 090	68 860	2 030	10 200	–	51	5	9 976	2
Europe	337 812	317 327	15 369	5 116	11	121	674	2 575	1
Countries in transition	180 270	76 451	98 444	5 375	3	320	4	582	111
Less developed regions	833 226	702 194	36 459	94 573	7 953	50 109	14 478	14 385	557
of which:									
Sub-Saharan Africa	104 069	79 554	8 072	16 443	7 947	4 772	2 747	446	19
Arab States	164 118	101 241	14 190	48 687	7	46 385	344	334	213
Latin America/Caribbean	87 794	74 364	1 732	11 698	–	30	11 416	247	–
Eastern Asia/Oceania	341 555	324 637	3 948	12 970	–	369	140	12 316	75
Southern Asia	91 063	79 920	7 331	3 812	5	908	29	1 037	249
Least developed countries	76 192	53 748	10 041	12 403	2 047	6 671	1 945	654	194
Unspecified	60 418	39 898	1 819	18 701	7 039	4 661	3 142	797	4

– Magnitude nil.
1. Refers to 77 major host countries for which data are available; major host countries Brazil and India are not included.

Table 12
Estimated public expenditure on education, 1980-97

	US$ (billions)					Percentage of GNP				
	1980	1985	1990	1995	1997	1980	1985	1990	1995	1997
WORLD TOTAL	567.6	606.7	1 004.6	1 342.6	1 386.8	4.9	4.8	4.7	4.7	4.8
More developed regions	407.8	444.4	816.5	1 101.9	1 098.4	5.1	4.9	5.0	5.0	5.1
of which:										
Northern America	155.1	221.6	330.2	406.8	452.8	5.2	5.0	5.4	5.3	5.4
Asia/Oceania	63.3	67.5	133.3	225.4	193.5	5.0	4.3	4.0	4.0	4.0
Europe	189.5	155.4	352.9	469.7	452.2	5.2	5.2	5.1	5.3	5.3
Countries in transition	61.3	62.3	49.6	36.5	45.5	6.4	6.3	4.3	4.6	4.8
Less developed regions	98.5	99.9	138.5	204.3	242.9	3.8	3.9	3.8	3.8	3.9
of which:										
Sub-Saharan Africa	16.2	11.7	15.2	19.0	22.7	5.0	4.5	4.6	5.1	5.1
Arab States	18.2	23.8	24.5	28.1	34.3	4.1	5.8	4.9	5.0	5.4
Latin America/Caribbean	33.7	27.9	44.5	76.5	92.6	3.9	4.0	4.0	4.5	4.6
Eastern Asia/Oceania	16.2	20.1	31.8	58.6	67.3	2.8	3.1	3.0	2.9	2.9
of which: China	7.6	7.7	9.1	15.6	20.7	2.5	2.5	2.3	2.3	2.3
Southern Asia	13.0	15.4	18.6	17.7	21.1	4.1	3.4	3.7	3.2	3.3
of which: India	5.2	7.4	11.9	11.3	12.9	3.0	3.5	3.9	3.3	3.3
Least developed countries	3.8	3.5	4.6	5.3	6.4	2.8	2.7	2.3	2.1	2.0

Table 13
Estimated public current expenditure per pupil, by level of education, 1990 and 1997

	Number of countries		All levels		Pre-primary + primary		Secondary		Pre-primary + primary + secondary		Tertiary	
			US$	% of GNP per capita	US$	% of GNP per capita	US$	% of GNP per capita	US$	% of GNP per capita	US$	% of GNP per capita
WORLD TOTAL	109	1990	1 054	22.2	...	...	...	...	839	17.7	3 046	64.2
		1997	1 224	22.0	...	...	...	...	999	17.9	3 655	65.7
More developed regions	23	1990	4 391	20.5	...	...	...	...	3 939	18.4	5 036	23.5
		1997	5 360	21.0	...	...	...	...	4 992	19.5	6 437	25.2
of which:												
Northern America	2	1990	4 344	20.0	...	...	...	...	4 155	19.1	4 775	21.9
		1997	5 330	21.5	...	...	...	...	5 014	20.3	6 478	26.2
Asia / Oceania	4	1990	5 106	18.5	...	...	...	...	4 702	17.0	5 228	18.9
		1997	6 136	17.9	...	...	...	...	5 833	17.0	5 407	15.8
Europe	17	1990	4 107	23.0	...	...	...	...	3 370	18.86	5 437	30.4
		1997	5 032	23.0	...	...	...	...	4 583	20.92	6 893	31.5
Countries in transition	17	1990	384	20.5	...	...	...	...	296	15.8	666	35.5
		1997	544	26.0	...	...	...	...	397	19.0	683	32.7
Less developed regions	69	1990	148	16.6	...	...	...	...	113	12.6	741	82.8
		1997	194	15.5	...	...	...	...	150	12.0	852	68.0
of which:												
Sub-Saharan Africa	24	1990	231	15.0	134	8.7	351	22.8	177	11.5	2 454	159.4
		1997	252	10.7	143	6.1	378	16.0	190	8.1	1 611	68.3
Arab States	10	1990	416	20.5	...	...	...	...	332	16.4	1 616	79.6
		1997	584	22.1	...	...	...	...	494	18.7	1 726	65.5
Latin America / Caribbean	20	1990	369	13.2	266	9.5	407	14.5	305	10.9	922	33.0
		1997	465	13.8	331	9.8	546	16.2	392	11.7	1 169	34.7
Eastern Asia / Oceania	9	1990	103	13.9	57	7.6	129	17.5	77	10.3	550	74.2
		1997	182	14.2	108	8.5	199	15.6	136	10.6	817	63.9
Southern Asia	5	1990	80	18.7	47	11.0	75	17.5	56	13.1	390	91.4
		1997	64	15.3	40	9.4	53	12.7	44	10.6	305	72.8
Least developed countries	19	1990	39	14.8	20	7.8	59	22.6	27	10.5	326	125.5
		1997	39	14.4	20	7.6	60	22.5	28	10.4	236	88.2

... Data not available.

Table 14
Expenditure on educational development co-operation by bilateral and multilateral agencies, 1980-97 [1] (millions of current US dollars)

Agency	*1980*	*1985*	*1990*	*1992*	*1993*	*1994*	*1995*	*1996*	*1997*
I. Bilateral[2]	3 395	2 301	3 642	3 465	3 740	4 419	4 550	4 226	3 553
II. Multilateral banks and funds[3]	668	1 394	2 083	2 852	3 222	3 315	2 737	1 886	2 789
African Development Bank	27	116	148	310	127	14	+	33	154
Arab Multilateral[4]	17	49	2	+	55	1	1	1	1
Asian Development Bank	65	67	291	236	387	138	358	368	628
Caribbean Development Bank	1	1	3	10	5	1	20	21	22
European Development Fund[5]	34	30	43	89	106	124	53	31	...
Inter-American Development Bank	67	126	61	261	495	969	127	270	1 019
Islamic Development Bank	17	45	43	32	26	53	55	56	41
OPEC[6] Fund	+	32	5	30	15	7	66	35	44
World Bank	440	928	1 487	1 884	2 006	2 008	2 057	1 071	880
III. United Nations programmes and funds									
UNDP[7]	31	16	18	12	10	7	7	7	9
UNFPA[8]	3	4	8	5	4	6	7	7	6
UNICEF[9]	34	33	57	72	72	87	85	67	82
WFP[10]	...	...	129	130	116	79	103	88	81
UNESCO[11]	78	88	73	82	82	100	100	106	106
Memo Item:									
World GDP deflator (1990 = 100)[12]	21	42	100	135	160	191	210	223	234

\+ Amount less than US$0.5 million.
... Data not available.

1. Financial year for each agency.
2. Official Development Assistance (ODA, as defined by OECD), by OECD donor countries, members of the Development Assistance Committee (DAC). The Members of the Development Assistance Committee are Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Luxembourg, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, United States of America, and the Commission of the European Communities. The figure for 1997 is provisional.
3. New loan, credit or grant approvals, net of cancellation of previous loans or credits.
4. Includes Arab Fund for Economic and Social Development (AFESD) and Arab Gulf Programme for United Nations Development Organizations (AGFUND).
5. Figures refer to technical and financial co-operation by the European Development Fund (EDF) outside the European Union in the African, Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) countries.
6. Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries.
7. United Nations Development Programme; figures refer to expenditure by UNESCO on account of education projects financed by UNDP.
8. United Nations Population Fund; figures refer to education projects implemented by UNESCO.
9. United Nations Children's Fund.
10. World Food Programme.
11. Approved programme and budget for education.
12. Taken from *International Financial Statistics,* Washington, D.C., International Monetary Fund, 1999.

Source: Annual reports of the various agencies.

III. World education indicators

THIS APPENDIX contains eleven tables of statistical indicators relating to selected aspects of education and its demographic, socio-economic, cultural and communications setting in 190 countries and territories.

The particular selection of indicators shown in this and previous editions of the *World Education Report* basically represents a compromise between the demands of a wide range of users on the one hand and the availability of data on the other. The majority of the indicators are updated in each edition of the report; a minority are new (indicated by ∗ in the Explanatory notes below), being selected for their particular relevance to the themes of the report, or, in a few cases, because new data have become available. An important consideration in selecting any particular indicator is that the relevant data should be available for a number of countries belonging to all major regions of the world, and not just for countries in only one or two regions.

Improvement of the comparability, scope and depth of coverage of the world education indicators, and of international educational statistics generally, is a long-term task; the main constraints were evoked in the *World Education Report 1993* (pp. 108–9).

During the biennium 1998–1999, the Organization's efforts to improve international educational statistics were concentrated on the dissemination of the revised International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED), which was approved by the

ISCED-1976 compared to ISCED-1997

ISCED 1976		ISCED 1997	
0	Education preceding the first level	0	Pre-primary education
1	Education at the first level	1	Primary education or first stage of basic education
2	Education at the second level, first stage	2	Lower secondary or second stage of basic education
3	Education at the second level, second stage	3	Upper secondary education
		4	Post secondary Non-tertiary education
5	Education at the third level, first stage, of the type that leads to an award not equivalent to a first university degree	5	First stage of tertiary education (not leading directly to an advanced research qualification)
6	Education at the third level, first stage, of the type that leads to a first university degree or equivalent		
7	Education at the third level, second stage of the type that leads to a post-graduate university degree or equivalent	6	Second stage of tertiary education (leading to an advanced research qualification)
9	Education not definable by level		

Source: ISCED 1997, Paris, UNESCO, 1997 (Document No. BPE-98/WS/1).

General Conference of UNESCO at its twenty-ninth session (Paris, 1997).

The revised ISCED terminology for the levels of education – 'primary', 'secondary' and 'tertiary' – is used in the present report in place of the old terms 'first', 'second' and 'third', although the data reported for each level are based on the previous ISCED criteria. The relationship between the previous ISCED levels and the levels adopted in the revised ISCED (known as 'ISCED-1997') is shown in the box on the previous page.

Explanatory notes

General notes

Data refer to the year indicated or to the nearest year for which data are available. For educational indicators the year indicated is that in which the school or financial year begins; e.g. 1996 refers to the school or financial year 1996 or 1996/97.

Certain indicators such as enrolment ratios, dependency ratios and illiteracy rates were not calculated for some countries because of inconsistencies between enrolment and population data and/or the unavailability of population data by age.

Due to the more comprehensive definition of the scope of education used in the recent common UNESCO/OECD/EUROSTAT surveys, 1996 data for OECD countries are not strictly comparable with those for 1990, particularly as regards secondary and tertiary education.

Enrolment data for Cyprus do not include Turkish schools.

Data presented for Jordan, with the exception of data on population in Table 1, refer to the East Bank only.

As of 1 July 1997, Hong Kong became a Special Administrative Region (SAR) of China. However, for statistical purposes, the data for China do not include Hong Kong SAR.

The following symbols are used:

–	Magnitude nil.
0 or 0.0	Magnitude less than half the unit employed.
...	Data not available.
·	Category not applicable.
♦ or #	The explanation of these symbols is given below for each specific indicator.
./.	Data included elsewhere with another category.

Table notes

Table 1. Population and GNP

Total population. Estimates of 1997 population, in thousands.

Population growth rate. Average annual percentage growth rate of total population between 1990 and 1997.

Population age 6-14 ∗. Estimates of 1997 population in the 6–14 age group, in thousands.

Dependency ratios. Populations in the age groups 0–14 and 65 years and over, expressed as percentages of the population in the age group 15–64.

Urban population. Number of persons living in urban areas, expressed as a percentage of the total population. 'Urban areas' are defined according to national criteria, which affect the comparability between countries.

Life expectancy at birth. The average number of years a new-born infant would live if prevailing patterns of mortality at the time of its birth were to stay the same throughout its life.

Total fertility rate. The average number of children that would be born alive to a woman during her lifetime if she were to bear children at each age in accordance with prevailing age-specific fertility rates.

Infant mortality rate. The number of deaths of infants under 1 year of age per 1,000 live births in a given year. More specifically, the probability of dying between birth and exactly 1 year of age times 1,000.

GNP per capita. Gross national product per capita in current US dollars, the average annual growth rate of GNP per capita between 1990 and 1997 in constant prices, and estimates of GNP per capita based on purchasing power parities (PPP).

Table 2. Literacy, culture and communication

Estimated number of adult illiterates. Estimated number of adult illiterates (15 years and over), in thousands, and the percentage of female illiterates.

Estimated adult illiteracy rate. Estimated number of adult illiterates (15 years and over and 15–24 age groups ∗) expressed as a percentage of the population in the corresponding age groups.

Daily newspapers. Estimated circulation of daily newspapers, expressed in number of copies per 1,000 inhabitants.

Radio and television receivers. Number of radio and television receivers per 1,000 inhabitants. The indicators are based on estimates of the number of receivers in use.

Main telephone lines. Number of telephone lines connecting a customer's equipment to the switched network and which have a dedicated port on a telephone exchange, per 1,000 inhabitants.

Personal computers ∗. Estimated number of self-contained computers designed to be used by a single individual, per 1,000 inhabitants.

Internet hosts ∗. Number of computers with active Internet Protocol (IP) addresses connected to the Internet, per 100,000 inhabitants.

Table 3. Enrolment in pre-primary education and access to schooling

Age group in pre-primary education. Population age group that according to the national regulations can be enrolled at this level of education.

The symbol ♦ is shown when there has been a change in the duration of pre-primary school between 1995 and 1996.

Gross enrolment ratio, pre-primary. Total enrolment in education preceding primary education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population age group corresponding to the national regulations for this level of education.

Apparent intake rate, primary education. Number of new entrants into first grade of primary education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population of official admission age to primary education.

School life expectancy. The school life expectancy, or expected number of years of formal education, is the number of years a child is expected to remain at school, or university, including years spent on repetition. It is the sum of the age-specific enrolment ratios for primary, secondary and tertiary education.

Table 4. Primary education: duration, population and enrolment ratios

Duration of compulsory education. Number of years of compulsory education, according to the regulations in force in each country.

Duration of primary education. Number of grades (years) in primary education, according to the education system in force in each country in 1996.

The symbol ♦ is shown when there has been a change in the duration between 1990 and 1996.

School-age population. Population, in thousands, of the age group which officially corresponds to primary schooling.

Gross enrolment ratio/Net enrolment ratio. The gross enrolment ratio is the total enrolment in primary education, regardless of age, divided by the population of the age group which officially corresponds to primary schooling. The net enrolment ratio only includes enrolment for the age group corresponding to the official school age of primary education. All ratios are expressed as percentages.

Table 5. Primary education: internal efficiency

Percentage of repeaters. Total number of pupils who are enrolled in the same grade as the previous year, expressed as a percentage of the total enrolment in primary education.

Percentage of a cohort reaching Grade 2 and Grade 5. Percentage of children starting primary school who eventually attain Grade 2 or Grade 5 (Grade 4, if the duration of primary education is four years). The estimate is based on the Reconstructed Cohort

Method, which uses data on enrolment and repeaters for two consecutive years. (See *Technical specifications in UNESCO World education indicators 1998*, on CD-ROM, or *Education for all. The year 2000 assessment: Technical guidelines*, UNESCO 1998).

Table 6. Secondary education: duration, population and enrolment ratios

Duration of secondary general education, lower and upper. Number of grades (years) in secondary general education, according to the education system in force in each country in 1996.

The symbol ♦ is shown when there has been a change in the duration between 1990 and 1996.

School-age population. Population, in thousands, of the age group which officially corresponds to secondary general education.

Gross enrolment ratio/Net enrolment ratio. The gross enrolment ratio is the total enrolment in secondary education, regardless of age, divided by the population of the age group which officially corresponds to secondary schooling. The net enrolment ratio only includes enrolment for the age group corresponding to the official school age of secondary education. All ratios are expressed as percentages.

Table 7. Teaching staff in pre-primary, primary and secondary education

Pupil-teacher ratio. This ratio represents the average number of pupils per teacher at the level of education specified. Since teaching staff includes in principle both full- and part-time teachers, comparability of these ratios may be affected as the proportion of part-time teachers varies from one country to another. For secondary education the ratio refers to general education only.

Percentage of female teachers. The number of female teachers, at the level specified, expressed as a percentage of the total number of teachers at the same level. For secondary education, the data refer to general education only.

Teachers per 1,000 non-agricultural labour force. Total number of teachers in pre-primary, primary, secondary and tertiary education expressed as per 1,000 of the economically active population engaged in non-agricultural activities. The economically active population refers to the adult population and covers all employed and unemployed persons.

Table 8. Tertiary education: enrolment and breakdown by ISCED level

Number of students per 100,000 inhabitants. Number of students enrolled in tertiary education (or higher education) per 100,000 inhabitants.

Gross enrolment ratio. Total enrolment in tertiary education regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population in the five-year age group following on from the secondary-school leaving age.

Percentage of students by ISCED level. Enrolment in higher education at each ISCED level as a percentage of total enrolment.

Percentage of female students in each ISCED level. Female enrolment as a percentage of total (male and female) enrolment at the level specified.

Definitions of ISCED level categories within higher education:

Level 5: first stage of tertiary education, of the type that leads to an award not equivalent to a first university degree.

Level 6: first stage of tertiary education, of the type that leads to a first university degree or equivalent.

Level 7: second stage of tertiary education, of the type that leads to a postgraduate degree or equivalent.

When the symbol ♦ is shown, data refer to universities only.

When the symbol ./. is shown, data are included with level 6.

When the symbol # is shown, data do not include students at ISCED level 7, for which registration is not required.

Table 9. Tertiary education: students and graduates by broad field of study, 1996

Percentage of students (and graduates) by field of study. Enrolment in tertiary education, in the broad field of study specified, expressed as a percentage of the total enrolment in tertiary education. Figures in parentheses refer to graduates. The total may not add to 100 per cent due to 'other' or 'unspecified' fields. The distribution is shown only for countries where the percentage of students in 'other' or 'unspecified' fields is less than 25 per cent.

Percentage of female students in each field of study. Number of female students in each broad field of study, expressed as a percentage of the total (male and female) enrolment in the field specified.

Gender segregation index. This index is defined as the percentage of all persons enrolled in tertiary education who would need to change their field of study if the ratio of females to males were to be the same in all fields of study, assuming that in each field of study there is no change in the total enrolment. The index shown in this table is calculated on the basis of enrolments in the five broad fields of study mentioned below, plus the residual field 'other'. The index is calculated only for countries where the percentage of students in 'other' is less than 25 per cent.

For an explanation of the calculation of this index, see Appendix I of the *World Education Report 1995*.

ISCED fields of study are grouped into the following broad fields of study:

Education: education science and teacher training.

Humanities: humanities; fine and applied arts; religion and theology.

Law and social sciences: law; social and behavioural sciences; commercial and business administration; home economics; mass communication and documentation; service trades.

Natural sciences, engineering and agriculture: natural sciences; engineering; mathematics and computer sciences; architecture and town planning; transport and communications; trade, craft and industrial programmes; agriculture, forestry and fisheries.

Medical sciences: medical and health-related sciences.

When the symbol ♦ is shown, data refer to universities only.

When the symbol ./. is shown, the field considered is included with the humanities. For Qatar, medical sciences are included with natural sciences.

When the symbol # is shown, data do not include students at ISCED level 7, for which registration is not required.

Table 10. Private enrolment and public expenditure on education

Private enrolment as percentage of total enrolment. Enrolment in private schools, at the level specified, expressed as a percentage of the total enrolment at the same level. Government-aided schools are considered as private if they are privately managed. For secondary education, data refer to general education only.

Public expenditure on education as percentage of GNP. Total public expenditure on education expressed as a percentage of the Gross National Product.

The symbol ♦ is shown when total public expenditure on education refers to expenditure of the Ministry of Education only.

Public expenditure on education as percentage of government expenditure. Total public expenditure on education expressed as a percentage of total government expenditure.

The symbol ♦ is shown when total public expenditure on education refers to expenditure of the Ministry of Education only.

Average annual growth rate of public expenditure on education. The average annual growth rate between 1990 and 1996 refers to the growth of total public expenditure on education in constant prices (data are deflated by using the implicit gross domestic product (GDP) deflator); it has been computed by fitting a trend line to the logarithmic values of

data on expenditure (actual or estimated) for each year of the period.

Current expenditure as percentage of total. Public current expenditure on education, expressed as a percentage of total public expenditure on education.

Table 11. Public current expenditure on education

Teachers' emoluments as percentage of total current expenditure. Expenditure on emoluments of teaching staff expressed as a percentage of total public current expenditure on education.

The symbol ♦ is shown when the indicator refers to the emoluments of total personnel (administrative staff, teaching staff and other personnel).

Percentage distribution of current expenditure by level. Public current expenditure by level, expressed as a percentage of total public current expenditure on education. The total may not add to 100 due to expenditure on 'other types of education' and/or expenditure not distributed by level of education.

Current expenditure per pupil (or student) as a percentage of GNP per capita. Public current expenditure per pupil (or student), at each level of education, expressed as a percentage of GNP per capita.

When the symbol ./. is shown, data for secondary education are included with pre-primary and primary education.

Data sources

Population and demographic indicators: United Nations Population Division database (1998 revision).

GNP and GNP per capita: World Bank, World Development Indicators 1999.

Illiteracy: Estimates and projections by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics based on actual country data supplied by the United Nations Statistics Division or drawn from national publications.

Education, culture and communication: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

Main telephone lines and personal computers: International Telecommunication Union (ITU), "World Telecommunication Indicators Database".

Internet Hosts: Network Wizards, Réseaux IP Européens.

Non-agricultural, economically active population: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) (1999 revision).

Table 1
Population and GNP

Country or territory	Population									GNP per capita		
				Dependency ratio								
	Total (000)	Average annual growth rate (%)	Age 6–14 (000)	Age 0–14	Age 65 and over	Percentage urban	Life expectancy at birth (years)	Total fertility rate (births per woman)	Total mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	US$	Average annual growth rate (%)	PPP (International dollars)
	1997	1990–97	1997	1997	1997	1997	1997	1997	1997	1997	1990–97	1997
Africa												
Algeria	29 394	2.4	6 501	65	6	56	69	3.8	44	1 500	–1.6	4 250
Angola	11 715	3.5	2 901	97	6	31	46	6.8	125	260	–10.0	820
Benin	5 629	2.7	1 471	94	6	38	53	5.8	88	380	1.7	1 260
Botswana	1 541	2.7	379	79	5	60	47	4.4	59	3 310	1.3	7 430
Burkina Faso	11 001	2.8	2 770	95	5	16	44	6.6	99	250	0.8	1 000
Burundi	6 362	2.2	1 599	92	5	8	42	6.3	119	140	–5.9	620
Cameroon	13 924	2.8	3 320	84	7	45	55	5.3	74	620	–3.3	1 770
Cape Verde	399	2.2	92	74	8	54	69	3.6	56	1 090	1.0	2 950
Central African Republic	3 420	2.2	814	81	7	39	45	4.9	98	320	–1.0	1 310
Chad	7 086	3.0	1 738	91	7	22	47	6.1	112	230	1.0	950
Comoros	640	2.8	160	82	5	30	59	4.8	76	400	–3.1	1 530
Congo	2 709	2.9	661	91	7	58	49	6.1	90	670	–2.9	1 290
Côte d'Ivoire	14 064	2.7	3 581	84	5	43	47	5.1	87	710	0.9	1 690
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	47 987	3.6	11 878	96	6	29	51	6.4	90	110	–9.6	760
Djibouti	617	2.6	141	74	5	82	50	5.3	106	...	...	...
Egypt	64 731	2.0	14 494	63	7	45	66	3.4	51	1 200	2.8	3 080
Equatorial Guinea	420	2.6	97	82	7	42	50	5.6	108	1 060	12.1	...
Eritrea	3 433	2.5	819	84	5	17	51	5.7	91	230	2.9	1 040
Ethiopia	58 218	2.8	14 241	90	6	15	43	6.3	116	110	2.2	500
Gabon	1 137	2.8	236	72	11	50	52	5.4	87	4 120	–0.1	6 560
Gambia	1 189	3.7	255	72	5	29	47	5.2	122	340	–0.6	1 440
Ghana	18 656	3.0	4 586	84	6	36	60	5.2	66	390	1.4	1 610
Guinea	7 325	3.5	1 831	86	5	29	47	5.5	124	550	2.7	1 790
Guinea-Bissau	1 136	2.2	259	80	8	22	45	5.8	130	230	1.0	...
Kenya	28 446	2.7	7 471	86	6	29	52	4.5	66	340	–0.3	1 160
Lesotho	2 016	2.3	447	72	7	24	56	4.8	93	680	2.5	2 490
Liberia	2 402	–1.0	722	106	6	45	47	6.3	116	...	...	...
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	5 210	2.4	1 271	70	5	85	70	3.8	28	...	...	...
Madagascar	14 620	3.3	3 314	84	6	26	58	5.4	83	250	–1.6	900
Malawi	10 067	1.1	2 510	94	5	13	39	6.8	138	210	0.8	700
Mali	10 436	2.4	2 619	95	7	27	53	6.6	118	260	0.3	720
Mauritania	2 461	2.8	586	83	6	51	54	5.5	92	440	1.5	1 650
Mauritius	1 133	1.0	178	39	9	41	71	1.9	16	3 870	3.7	9 230
Morocco	26 890	1.7	5 481	55	7	52	67	3.1	51	1 260	0.2	3 210
Mozambique	18 443	3.8	4 380	86	6	34	45	6.3	114	140	2.6	690
Namibia	1 622	2.7	375	77	7	36	52	4.9	65	2 110	1.1	5 100
Niger	9 764	3.4	2 428	98	5	18	49	6.8	115	200	–1.9	830
Nigeria	103 898	2.6	25 263	83	6	40	50	5.2	81	280	0.7	860
Rwanda	5 962	–2.2	1 522	90	5	6	41	6.2	124	210	–5.7	650
Sao Tome and Principe	138	2.2	...	...	...	43	...	...	...	290	–1.7	...
Senegal	8 772	2.6	2 131	86	5	44	52	5.6	63	540	0.0	1 690
Seychelles	75	1.1	...	...	...	54	...	...	...	6 910	1.7	...
Sierra Leone	4 420	1.5	1 028	83	6	33	37	6.1	170	160	–5.7	410
Somalia	8 821	1.8	2 176	96	5	26	47	7.3	122	...	...	...
South Africa	38 760	1.9	7 991	59	6	49	55	3.3	59	3 210	–0.2	7 190
Sudan	27 718	2.0	6 597	73	5	31	55	4.6	71	290	3.7	1 370
Swaziland	925	3.0	220	81	5	31	60	4.7	65	1 520	–0.6	3 690
Togo	4 284	2.9	1 056	91	6	31	49	6.1	84	340	–1.2	1 460
Tunisia	9 211	1.8	1 864	53	9	62	70	2.6	30	2 110	2.0	5 050

Country or territory	Population									GNP per capita		
	Total (000)	Average annual growth rate (%)	Age 6–14 (000)	Dependency ratio		Percentage urban	Life expectancy at birth (years)	Total fertility rate (births per woman)	Total mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	US$	Average annual growth rate (%)	PPP (International dollars)
				Age 0–14	Age 65 and over							
	1997	1990–97	1997	1997	1997	1997	1997	1997	1997	1997	1990–97	1997
Uganda	20 000	2.8	5 157	103	5	13	40	7.1	107	330	4.4	1 160
United Rep. of Tanzania	31 417	3.0	7 850	89	5	24	48	5.5	82	210	0.9	620
Zambia	8 585	2.5	2 275	96	5	43	40	5.6	82	370	–0.9	910
Zimbabwe	11 215	1.9	2 810	79	5	32	44	3.8	69	720	–0.7	2 240
America, North												
Antigua and Barbuda	66	0.6	...	...	...	36	...	...	...	7 380	1.8	8 650
Bahamas	291	1.9	51	48	8	86	74	2.6	16	...	–2.0	...
Barbados	267	0.5	37	34	17	47	76	1.5	12	...	–0.9	...
Belize	224	2.6	52	75	8	47	75	3.7	29	2 670	0.3	4 080
British Virgin Islands	20	2.9	...	...	...	56	...	...	...	...	...	...
Canada	30 261	1.2	3 667	29	18	77	79	1.6	6	19 640	0.8	21 750
Costa Rica	3 748	3.0	751	55	8	49	76	2.8	12	2 680	2.3	6 510
Cuba	11 068	0.6	1 510	32	13	76	76	1.6	9	...	...	...
Dominica	71	–0.1	...	...	...	69	...	...	...	3 040	0.7	4 020
Dominican Republic	8 097	1.9	1 636	56	7	62	71	2.8	34	1 750	3.5	4 690
El Salvador	5 911	2.1	1 233	62	8	45	69	3.2	32	1 810	3.5	2 860
Grenada	93	0.3	...	...	...	36	...	...	...	3 140	1.3	4 760
Guatemala	10 519	2.7	2 601	86	7	39	64	4.9	46	1 580	1.5	4 060
Haiti	7 820	1.8	1 973	78	7	32	54	4.4	68	380	–4.4	1 260
Honduras	5 981	3.0	1 443	80	6	44	69	4.3	35	740	1.0	2 260
Jamaica	2 516	0.9	480	53	12	54	75	2.5	22	1 550	0.8	3 330
Mexico	94 281	1.8	19 094	57	7	73	72	2.8	31	3 700	0.2	8 110
Netherlands Antilles	211	1.7	32	39	11	69	75	2.2	14	...	...	...
Nicaragua	4 679	2.9	1 139	83	6	62	68	4.4	43	410	1.6	1 820
Panama	2 722	1.8	522	52	9	56	74	2.6	21	3 080	3.0	6 890
Saint Kitts and Nevis	39	–0.9	...	...	...	34	...	...	...	6 260	4.0	7 770
Saint Lucia	148	1.4	...	...	...	37	...	...	...	3 510	2.8	5 030
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	112	0.8	...	...	...	48	...	...	...	2 420	1.8	4 060
Trinidad and Tobago	1 277	0.7	242	43	10	72	74	1.7	15	4 250	0.5	6 460
United States	271 772	1.0	35 798	34	19	76	77	2.0	7	29 080	1.7	29 080
America, South												
Argentina	35 671	1.3	5 978	46	10	88	73	2.6	22	8 950	4.2	10 100
Bolivia	7 774	2.4	1 734	72	4	61	61	4.4	66	970	2.0	2 810
Brazil	163 700	1.5	30 764	47	5	78	67	2.3	42	4 790	1.9	6 350
Chile	14 625	1.6	2 505	46	7	84	75	2.4	13	4 820	6.4	12 240
Colombia	40 043	2.0	7 798	55	5	73	70	2.8	30	2 180	2.6	6 570
Ecuador	11 937	2.2	2 478	59	4	59	70	3.1	46	1 570	0.9	4 700
Guyana	843	0.8	158	49	4	35	64	2.3	58	800	12.9	2 800
Paraguay	5 088	2.7	1 188	74	3	52	70	4.2	39	2 000	0.0	3 860
Peru	24 367	1.8	5 032	58	5	71	68	3.0	45	2 610	4.6	4 580
Suriname	412	0.4	86	54	5	49	70	2.2	29	1 320	–0.5	...
Uruguay	3 265	0.7	475	40	13	90	74	2.4	18	6 130	3.5	9 110
Venezuela	22 777	2.2	4 729	59	4	86	72	3.0	21	3 480	–0.2	8 660
Asia												
Afghanistan	20 893	5.1	4 309	76	5	20	45	6.9	152	...	...	...
Armenia	3 551	0.0	641	42	12	69	70	1.7	26	560	–10.7	2 540
Azerbaijan	7 642	0.9	1 471	49	10	56	70	2.0	36	510	–16.0	1 520
Bahrain	583	2.5	103	46	4	90	73	2.9	17	...	2.6	...

Table 1 (continued)

Country or territory	Population									GNP per capita		
				Dependency ratio								
	Total (000)	Average annual growth rate (%)	Age 6–14 (000)	Age 0–14	Age 65 and over	Percentage urban	Life expectancy at birth (years)	Total fertility rate (births per woman)	Total mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	US$	Average annual growth rate (%)	PPP (International dollars)
	1997	1990–97	1997	1997	1997	1997	1997	1997	1997	1997	1990–97	1997
Bangladesh	122 650	1.6	29 385	65	5	18	58	3.1	79	360	3.3	1 090
Bhutan	1 945	2.0	448	80	7	6	61	5.5	63	430	2.0	...
Brunei Darussalam	308	2.6	60	54	6	69	76	2.8	10	...	–2.1	...
Cambodia	10 478	2.8	2 545	78	6	20	53	4.6	103	300	2.7	1 290
China	1 244 202	1.1	200 716	38	9	30	70	1.8	41	860	10.0	3 070
Hong Kong SAR	6 511	1.9	777	26	14	95	78	1.3	6	25 200	3.3	24 350
Cyprus	763	1.7	116	38	18	54	78	2.0	9	...	2.6	...
Dem. People's Rep. of Korea	22 981	1.7	3 468	40	7	61	72	2.1	22	...	...	...
Georgia	5 121	–0.9	735	36	18	58	73	1.9	20	860	–14.9	1 980
India	966 192	1.8	195 895	57	8	27	63	3.1	72	370	4.3	1 660
Indonesia	203 380	1.5	38 817	50	7	35	65	2.6	48	1 110	5.9	3 390
Iran, Islamic Republic of	64 628	2.0	16 414	71	7	59	69	2.8	35	1 780	1.9	5 690
Iraq	21 180	2.3	5 094	77	6	75	62	5.3	95	...	...	...
Israel	5 860	3.3	986	46	16	91	78	2.7	8	16 180	2.6	17 680
Japan	126 038	0.3	12 105	22	23	78	80	1.4	4	38 160	1.4	24 400
Jordan	6 126	4.1	1 448	78	5	71	70	4.9	26	1 520	2.8	3 350
Kazakhstan	16 373	–0.3	2 981	45	11	60	68	2.3	35	1 350	–7.4	3 530
Kuwait	1 732	–3.0	412	62	3	97	76	2.9	12	...	17.5	...
Kyrgyzstan	4 619	0.7	990	63	10	39	68	3.2	40	480	–9.7	2 180
Lao People's Dem. Rep	5 032	2.8	1 204	85	6	21	53	5.8	93	400	3.9	1 300
Lebanon	3 143	3.0	610	56	9	88	70	2.7	29	3 350	4.9	6 090
Macau	450	2.7	71	36	10	99	78	1.4	10	...	...	...
Malaysia	20 983	2.3	4 182	58	7	54	72	3.2	11	4 530	5.8	7 730
Maldives	263	2.9	68	86	7	27	65	5.4	50	1 180	4.3	3 340
Mongolia	2 537	2.0	590	63	7	61	66	2.6	51	390	–1.4	1 490
Myanmar	43 936	1.2	8 267	46	7	26	60	2.4	79	...	...	...
Nepal	22 316	2.5	5 330	78	7	10	57	4.5	83	220	2.2	1 090
Oman	2 305	3.7	587	87	5	76	71	5.9	25	...	–0.4	...
Pakistan	144 047	2.7	33 691	78	6	34	64	5.0	74	500	2.0	1 580
Palestinian Auton. Territories	996	6.5	...	...	...	94	71	7.3	24	...	...	...
Philippines	71 430	2.4	15 494	64	6	54	68	3.6	36	1 200	1.6	3 670
Qatar	569	2.3	92	38	2	91	72	3.7	17	...	–5.3	...
Republic of Korea	45 731	0.9	6 219	32	8	81	72	1.7	10	10 550	6.0	13 430
Saudi Arabia	19 479	2.8	4 409	74	5	83	71	5.8	23	7 150	–2.5	10 540
Singapore	3 427	1.8	430	31	9	100	77	1.7	5	32 810	6.7	29 230
Sri Lanka	18 274	1.0	3 244	43	10	22	73	2.1	18	800	4.0	2 460
Syrian Arab Republic	14 948	2.7	3 915	81	6	52	69	4.0	33	1 120	3.3	3 000
Tajikistan	5 925	1.6	1 445	78	8	32	67	4.2	57	330	–16.1	1 100
Thailand	59 736	1.0	10 098	39	8	20	69	1.7	29	2 740	5.9	6 490
Turkey	63 403	1.8	11 142	46	8	69	69	2.5	45	3 130	2.3	6 470
Turkmenistan	4 233	2.1	958	69	7	45	65	3.6	55	640	–14.6	1 410
United Arab Emirates	2 307	2.7	425	43	3	84	75	3.4	16	...	–3.8	...
Uzbekistan	23 212	1.8	5 346	69	8	41	68	3.4	44	1 020	–5.6	...
Viet Nam	76 387	2.0	16 199	60	9	19	67	2.6	38	310	6.1	1 590
Yemen	16 290	5.0	4 005	96	5	34	58	7.6	80	270	–1.5	720
Europe												
Albania	3 132	–0.7	571	48	9	37	73	2.5	30	760	2.2	2 170
Austria	8 099	0.7	871	26	22	64	77	1.4	6	27 920	1.0	22 010
Belarus	10 351	0.1	1 446	31	20	71	68	1.4	23	2 150	–6.0	4 820

Country or territory	Population									GNP per capita		
				Dependency ratio								
	Total (000)	Average annual growth rate (%)	Age 6–14 (000)	Age 0–14	Age 65 and over	Percentage urban	Life expectancy at birth (years)	Total fertility rate (births per woman)	Total mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	US$	Average annual growth rate (%)	PPP (International dollars)
	1997	1990–97	1997	1997	1997	1997	1997	1997	1997	1997	1990–97	1997
Belgium	10 127	0.3	1 084	27	24	97	77	1.6	7	26 730	1.3	23 090
Bosnia and Herzegovina	3 520	–2.8	491	29	12	41	73	1.4	15	...	...	...
Bulgaria	8 393	–0.5	977	26	23	68	71	1.2	17	1 170	–2.0	3 870
Croatia	4 484	–0.1	529	27	20	56	73	1.6	10	4 060	2.7	4 930
Czech Republic	10 301	0.0	1 172	26	19	65	74	1.2	6	5 240	–0.3	10 380
Denmark	5 256	0.3	522	26	23	85	76	1.7	7	34 890	2.5	23 450
Estonia	1 447	–1.2	195	29	20	73	69	1.3	19	3 360	–2.8	5 090
Finland	5 141	0.4	581	28	22	63	77	1.7	6	24 790	0.9	19 660
France	58 472	0.4	6 878	29	24	75	78	1.7	6	26 300	1.0	22 210
Germany	82 057	0.5	8 323	24	23	87	77	1.3	5	28 280	0.7	21 170
Greece	10 569	0.5	1 077	24	25	59	78	1.3	8	11 640	1.0	12 540
Hungary	10 156	–0.3	1 106	26	21	65	71	1.4	10	4 510	0.2	6 970
Iceland	274	1.0	39	37	18	92	79	2.1	5	...	0.4	...
Ireland	3 658	0.6	524	34	17	58	76	1.9	7	17 790	5.6	17 420
Italy	57 377	0.1	5 079	21	25	67	78	1.2	7	20 170	1.0	20 100
Latvia	2 461	–1.2	333	29	21	73	68	1.3	18	2 430	–7.3	3 970
Lithuania	3 705	–0.1	509	31	19	72	70	1.4	21	2 260	–7.1	4 140
Luxembourg	417	1.3	43	27	21	89	77	1.7	7	...	0.2	...
Malta	381	1.1	50	32	16	89	77	1.9	8	9 330	3.0	13 380
Monaco	33	1.2	...	...	...	100	...	...	...	...	...	...
Netherlands	15 614	0.6	1 707	27	20	89	78	1.5	6	25 830	1.9	21 300
Norway	4 396	0.5	501	30	24	73	78	1.9	5	36 100	3.8	24 260
Poland	38 693	0.2	5 493	32	17	64	73	1.5	15	3 590	4.2	6 510
Portugal	9 864	0.0	1 027	25	22	36	75	1.4	9	11 010	2.0	14 180
Republic of Moldova	4 376	0.0	727	39	15	52	68	1.8	29	460	–10.8	1 450
Romania	22 549	–0.4	2 970	28	18	56	70	1.2	23	1 410	–0.1	4 270
Russian Federation	147 656	–0.1	20 604	29	18	76	67	1.3	18	2 680	–7.9	4 280
San Marino	26	1.4	...	...	...	94	...	...	...	...	...	...
Slovakia	5 372	0.3	748	32	16	59	73	1.4	11	3 680	0.3	7 860
Slovenia	1 995	0.6	230	25	18	51	74	1.3	7	9 840	4.2	11 880
Spain	39 613	0.1	3 843	22	24	76	78	1.2	7	14 490	1.3	15 690
Sweden	8 856	0.5	991	29	27	83	79	1.6	5	26 210	0.2	19 010
Switzerland	7 250	0.8	764	26	21	61	79	1.5	6	43 060	–0.5	26 580
The FYR of Macedonia	1 987	0.6	291	36	14	60	73	2.1	23	1 100	–2.1	3 180
Ukraine	51 062	–0.2	6 574	29	21	70	69	1.4	19	1 040	–12.6	2 170
United Kingdom	58 544	0.2	6 825	30	25	89	77	1.7	7	20 870	1.9	20 710
Yugoslavia	10 628	0.7	1 420	32	18	57	73	1.8	18	...	...	...
Oceania												
Australia	18 333	1.2	2 364	32	18	85	78	1.8	6	20 650	2.4	19 510
Cook Islands	19	0.6	...	...	...	60	...	...	...	...	...	...
Fiji	786	1.1	162	54	7	41	73	2.7	20	2 460	0.4	3 860
Kiribati	80	1.4	...	...	...	36	...	...	...	910	–0.6	...
New Zealand	3 761	1.6	517	35	18	86	77	2.0	7	15 830	1.2	15 780
Papua New Guinea	4 499	2.3	994	68	5	16	58	4.6	61	930	2.5	...
Samoa	172	1.0	39	68	7	21	71	4.2	23	1 140	0.7	3 570
Solomon Islands	404	3.3	98	82	5	17	72	4.9	23	870	1.0	2 270
Tonga	98	0.3	...	...	...	41	...	...	...	1 810	1.4	...
Tuvalu	11	2.9	...	...	...	47	...	...	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	177	2.5	43	80	7	19	67	4.3	39	1 340	–3.5	3 230

Table 2
Literacy, culture and communication

Country or territory	Literacy										Culture and communication					
	Estimated number of adult illiterates				Estimated adult illiteracy rate (%)						Daily newspapers (copies)	Radio receivers	Television receivers	Main telephone lines	Number of PCs	Number of Internet hosts
	1990		1997		1997											1997
					Age 15 and over			Age 15–24			1996	1997				
	Total (000)	%F	Total (000)	%F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	per 1,000 inhabitants					per 100,000 inhab.
Africa																
Algeria	6 606	64	6 511	66	35.8	24.5	47.3	13.7	8.7	19.0	38	242	105	48	4	0
Angola	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	11	54	13	5	1	0
Benin	1 731	60	1 895	64	63.6	47.9	78.5	46.1	26.0	66.0	2	110	11	6	1	0
Botswana	221	49	221	47	25.4	28.0	22.9	13.1	17.3	8.9	27	154	20	56	10	36
Burkina Faso	3 978	56	4 542	57	78.7	68.9	88.1	68.6	57.3	80.0	1	34	9	3	1	0
Burundi	1 839	62	1 876	60	55.2	45.7	63.9	40.3	37.1	43.4	3	69	4	2	...	–
Cameroon	2 371	63	2 158	63	27.6	20.6	34.4	7.6	7.0	8.2	7	163	32	5	2	0
Cape Verde	70	72	67	73	28.1	17.3	36.3	12.8	9.2	16.2	–	183	4	83	0	–
Central African Republic	1 113	63	1 119	64	57.4	43.8	69.7	37.0	26.8	46.7	2	83	5	3	...	0
Chad	1 795	63	1 907	65	49.7	36.0	62.9	...	...	...	0	236	1	1	...	–
Comoros	129	59	151	59	42.3	37.2	49.2	34.1	28.3	40.0	–	141	2	9	0	–
Congo	397	67	334	68	22.9	15.3	30.0	3.6	2.7	4.5	8	126	12	8	...	–
Côte d'Ivoire	4 040	56	4 434	56	56.6	48.1	65.7	39.0	32.7	45.4	17	161	64	10	4	2
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3	376	135	0	...	0
Djibouti	173	63	187	65	51.9	37.8	65.0	...	...	...	–	84	45	13	7	1
Egypt	17 905	62	19 162	62	47.1	35.2	59.3	32.5	24.9	40.7	38	317	119	53	7	3
Equatorial Guinea	54	74	48	78	19.9	9.2	29.9	4.0	1.9	6.1	5	428	10	9	...	–
Eritrea	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	–	100	0	6	...	–
Ethiopia	18 850	55	20 361	54	64.7	58.7	70.9	49.6	47.7	51.7	2	202	6	3	...	0
Gabon	259	64	233	66	33.8	23.9	43.2	...	...	...	30	183	55	33	7	0
Gambia	397	55	468	56	66.5	59.3	73.4	47.2	38.7	55.4	2	165	4	21	3	1
Ghana	3 442	65	3 345	66	32.2	22.5	41.6	11.3	7.7	14.9	14	236	93	6	2	1
Guinea	2 084	61	2 159	62	62.3	48.0	76.1	...	...	...	–	49	12	3	3	0
Guinea-Bissau	407	64	419	67	64.5	44.5	83.4	46.5	21.7	70.7	5	43	–	7	...	1
Kenya	3 495	68	3 224	68	20.6	13.1	27.9	6.1	4.7	7.5	9	108	26	10	3	2
Lesotho	223	25	219	21	18.1	29.6	7.4	10.4	19.0	1.8	8	52	27	10	...	–
Liberia	834	63	641	66	53.1	35.8	70.7	33.8	17.5	50.8	16	329	29	3	...	0
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	773	71	721	75	23.0	11.1	36.2	4.6	0.3	9.1	14	259	140	...	...	0
Madagascar	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	5	209	22	3	1	0
Malawi	2 370	69	2 270	69	42.7	27.5	57.1	31.4	20.6	42.4	3	258	–	4	...	–
Mali	3 475	56	3 522	57	63.6	56.0	70.7	39.5	32.5	46.5	1	55	4	2	1	–
Mauritania	710	59	819	60	59.5	48.7	69.9	50.6	40.3	60.9	1	146	25	5	...	–
Mauritius	149	63	139	61	16.7	12.9	20.4	6.7	7.1	6.3	76	371	228	197	79	18
Morocco	8 972	62	9 581	63	53.9	40.5	67.1	35.7	25.6	46.1	27	247	115	51	3	5
Mozambique	5 259	63	5 968	65	58.7	42.6	74.0	42.7	27.2	58.0	3	40	5	4	2	0
Namibia	194	56	188	54	19.9	18.7	21.2	9.5	11.2	7.7	19	143	37	57	18	39
Niger	3 584	55	4 321	55	85.7	78.2	92.9	79.1	70.1	88.0	0	70	13	2	0	0
Nigeria	24 390	61	23 496	62	40.4	31.2	49.3	16.5	12.5	20.6	27	226	66	...	6	0
Rwanda	1 712	61	1 226	61	38.3	30.3	46.0	20.0	17.2	22.8	0	101	0	...	...	–
Sao Tome and Principe	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	–	272	163	21	...	9
Senegal	2 864	57	3 151	58	65.4	55.4	75.2	52.3	43.1	61.7	5	141	41	13	11	1
Seychelles	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	46	560	145	209	...	1
Sierra Leone	1 640	60	1 660	62	66.7	52.5	80.0	...	...	...	5	253	12	4	...	–
Somalia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	53	15	2	...	–
South Africa	3 991	54	3 935	54	15.8	15.0	16.5	9.5	9.4	9.5	34	355	134	120	46	315
Sudan	7 328	63	7 446	64	45.6	32.9	58.1	26.1	19.0	33.2	27	272	86	4	1	0
Swaziland	115	57	117	56	22.4	21.1	23.6	11.0	11.6	10.3	27	168	23	27	...	36
Togo	1 033	67	1 063	70	46.0	28.5	62.9	29.7	14.2	45.1	4	219	17	6	6	1
Tunisia	2 081	65	2 025	67	32.6	21.7	43.5	8.7	3.6	13.9	31	224	100	71	9	1

Country or territory	Literacy										Culture and communication					
	Estimated number of adult illiterates				Estimated adult illiteracy rate (%)						Daily newspapers (copies)	Radio receivers	Television receivers	Main telephone lines	Number of PCs	Number of Internet hosts
	1990		1997		1997											1997
					Age 15 and over			Age 15–24			1996	1997				
	Total (000)	%F	Total (000)	%F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	per 1,000 inhabitants					per 100,000 inhab.
Uganda	3 724	66	3 626	66	36.1	24.7	47.1	23.4	15.8	30.8	2	130	16	3	1	0
United Rep. of Tanzania	4 934	69	4 676	69	27.5	17.4	37.2	10.7	7.3	14.2	2	280	3	3	2	0
Zambia	1 174	68	1 105	68	24.7	16.6	32.2	13.7	10.3	17.0	14	120	32	9	...	2
Zimbabwe	1 061	66	872	68	13.6	8.9	18.1	3.5	1.8	5.2	19	102	33	19	10	5
America, North																
Antigua and Barbuda	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	91	542	463	...	...	275
Bahamas	9	46	9	44	4.6	5.4	3.9	2.7	3.6	1.8	99	739	230	331	...	74
Barbados	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	199	888	285	406	57	9
Belize	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	–	591	183	137	28	115
British Virgin Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	–	470	218	...	...	–
Canada	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	158	1 067	710	616	271	2 773
Costa Rica	117	50	120	49	4.8	4.9	4.8	1.9	2.2	1.6	88	261	140	156	...	79
Cuba	394	51	323	52	3.7	3.6	3.8	0.3	0.3	0.3	118	352	239	34	...	0
Dominica	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	–	647	78	...	...	107
Dominican Republic	924	50	934	49	17.6	17.5	17.7	9.9	10.7	9.2	52	178	95	88	...	60
El Salvador	831	59	853	59	22.7	19.7	25.6	12.7	11.8	13.6	48	465	677	61	...	3
Grenada	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	–	615	353	286	...	1
Guatemala	1 835	60	1 949	61	33.4	25.8	41.0	22.2	15.7	28.8	33	79	61	41	3	6
Haiti	2 321	54	2 402	54	53.2	50.9	55.4	38.5	38.3	38.6	3	53	5	8	...	–
Honduras	841	51	925	50	27.1	27.1	27.2	18.0	19.5	16.5	55	410	95	39	...	1
Jamaica	277	40	246	37	14.4	18.5	10.5	6.7	10.2	3.1	63	483	183	167	5	11
Mexico	6 240	62	5 901	62	9.6	7.4	11.6	3.5	2.8	4.2	97	329	272	98	38	44
Netherlands Antilles	6	52	6	53	3.7	3.6	3.7	2.1	2.3	1.9	334	1 031	328	...	...	1
Nicaragua	721	50	850	49	32.5	34.0	31.1	27.3	29.9	24.7	30	265	68	27	...	11
Panama	170	53	162	53	8.8	8.2	9.5	3.6	3.2	4.0	62	299	187	134	...	37
Saint Kitts and Nevis	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	–	701	264	437	...	13
Saint Lucia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	–	746	213	250	...	9
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	9	690	163	184	...	9
Trinidad and Tobago	25	68	19	70	2.1	1.3	2.9	0.2	0.2	0.2	123	533	333	191	20	72
United States	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	212	2 116	806	635	401	7 589
America, South																
Argentina	963	54	881	52	3.4	3.4	3.5	1.5	1.7	1.3	123	681	223	191	39	56
Bolivia	836	71	757	72	16.3	9.2	23.1	4.9	2.5	7.3	55	675	116	69	...	7
Brazil	18 425	53	18 070	51	15.9	15.8	16.0	8.3	10.1	6.5	40	434	223	104	26	72
Chile	545	54	491	54	4.7	4.5	5.0	1.4	1.6	1.2	98	354	215	180	54	122
Colombia	2 542	53	2 402	52	9.1	9.0	9.1	3.6	4.2	2.9	46	524	115	133	30	25
Ecuador	793	60	751	60	9.7	7.8	11.7	3.4	2.9	4.0	70	348	130	75	13	9
Guyana	15	65	11	66	1.9	1.3	2.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	50	498	55	65	...	8
Paraguay	237	60	226	59	7.5	6.2	8.8	3.3	3.2	3.5	43	182	101	43	...	6
Peru	1 922	73	1 781	74	11.2	6.0	16.2	3.8	2.1	5.5	84	273	126	68	12	14
Suriname	21	66	18	66	6.5	4.6	8.4	...	...	...	122	728	153	155	...	0
Uruguay	77	46	62	44	2.5	2.9	2.1	0.8	1.0	0.5	293	603	239	233	22	315
Venezuela	1 323	55	1 223	54	8.3	7.7	8.9	2.5	3.2	1.8	206	472	180	123	37	17
Asia																
Afghanistan	6 031	58	7 936	60	65.3	50.8	80.6	48.0	33.0	63.8	6	132	13	1	...	0
Armenia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	24	239	232	160	...	12
Azerbaijan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	23	22	87	...	5
Bahrain	60	55	56	56	13.8	10.2	19.2	2.2	2.3	2.1	117	580	472	261	86	58

Table 2 (continued)

Country or territory	Literacy										Culture and communication					
	Estimated number of adult illiterates				Estimated adult illiteracy rate (%)						Daily newspapers (copies)	Radio receivers	Television receivers	Main telephone lines	Number of PCs	Number of Internet hosts
	1990		1997		1997											1997
					Age 15 and over			Age 15–24			1996	1997				
	Total (000)	%F	Total (000)	%F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	per 1,000 inhabitants					per 100,000 inhab.
Bangladesh	39 631	58	46 085	58	60.6	49.5	72.2	51.1	40.6	62.1	9	50	6	...	...	–
Bhutan	616	61	627	62	55.7	41.9	69.7	...	...	...	–	19	6	3	...	0
Brunei Darussalam	25	67	20	67	9.9	6.2	14.1	0.9	1.4	0.3	69	302	250	249	...	110
Cambodia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2	128	9	2	1	0
China	192 228	70	164 335	72	17.8	9.7	26.3	3.1	1.4	4.9	45	335	321	57	6	1
Hong Kong SAR	450	76	393	73	7.4	3.8	11.4	0.9	1.4	0.3	786	684	283	560	230	1 043
Cyprus	28	80	21	79	3.6	1.5	5.7	0.3	0.3	0.2	111	406	325	506	40	395
Dem. People's Rep. of Korea	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	199	146	52	48	...	–
Georgia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	–	590	502	121	...	8
India	274 097	61	284 775	62	45.1	33.5	57.5	29.9	22.1	38.4	35	120	65	18	2	1
Indonesia	23 894	68	20 656	69	14.9	9.4	20.4	2.9	2.1	3.8	23	155	68	24	8	5
Iran, Islamic Republic of	11 045	62	10 326	63	26.6	19.3	34.1	7.4	4.6	10.3	26	263	71	101	24	0
Iraq	5 519	60	5 798	60	47.4	37.0	58.1	30.4	24.0	37.2	20	229	83	32	...	–
Israel	196	73	190	74	4.5	2.4	6.6	0.5	0.4	0.6	288	524	288	453	188	1 481
Japan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	578	956	686	479	202	927
Jordan	460	72	424	73	12.0	6.2	18.4	0.9	1.1	0.7	42	271	82	66	8	4
Kazakhstan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	–	395	237	111	...	7
Kuwait	305	47	217	54	20.1	17.7	22.6	8.9	9.5	8.4	377	678	505	238	87	234
Kyrgyzstan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	15	113	45	76	...	3
Lao People's Dem. Rep.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	4	145	10	5	...	–
Lebanon	327	72	322	73	15.4	8.8	21.5	5.7	3.3	8.1	141	907	375	179	32	36
Macau	28	73	26	75	7.7	4.1	11.1	2.5	0.8	4.2	455	356	109	377	...	34
Malaysia	2 169	66	1 936	66	14.3	9.7	18.8	3.2	3.2	3.1	163	434	172	201	48	154
Maldives	7	49	6	49	4.2	4.2	4.3	1.2	1.3	1.0	19	129	28	68	12	20
Mongolia	29	57	18	51	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.5	0.6	0.3	27	142	47	34	5	1
Myanmar	5 013	68	5 015	65	16.3	11.5	21.1	9.8	9.0	10.9	10	96	6	5	...	–
Nepal	7 418	63	7 997	64	61.9	44.2	79.4	43.9	26.4	62.5	11	38	6	7	...	1
Oman	434	59	414	61	32.9	23.2	44.8	4.1	1.0	7.3	28	607	694	87	15	29
Pakistan	43 424	59	47 193	61	57.0	43.0	72.2	39.9	26.1	55.0	21	94	22	18	3	1
Palestinian Auton. Territories	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Philippines	2 732	54	2 405	52	5.4	5.2	5.7	1.7	1.9	1.5	82	161	52	29	14	6
Qatar	81	27	83	27	20.0	20.3	19.1	6.3	8.6	3.9	161	450	404	250	106	33
Republic of Korea	1 302	80	958	81	2.7	1.0	4.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	20	1 039	348	447	152	267
Saudi Arabia	3 062	58	2 963	59	25.9	17.9	37.1	8.6	5.3	12.0	59	321	262	117	44	0
Singapore	262	75	227	76	8.5	4.1	12.9	0.4	0.6	0.2	324	744	388	492	362	1 681
Sri Lanka	1 293	69	1 202	68	9.2	6.0	12.2	3.6	3.3	4.0	29	211	84	19	4	4
Syrian Arab Republic	2 272	74	2 390	76	28.2	13.4	43.2	14.8	5.4	24.4	20	278	70	88	2	–
Tajikistan	55	78	36	76	1.0	0.5	1.5	0.2	0.2	0.2	21	143	3	38	...	0
Thailand	2 865	70	2 304	69	5.3	3.3	7.2	1.3	0.8	1.8	64	234	254	81	20	24
Turkey	8 012	76	7 399	77	16.6	7.5	25.9	4.45	1.6	7.3	110	178	330	248	21	55
Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	–	289	194	86	...	0
United Arab Emirates	392	29	422	28	26.0	27.0	23.8	11.3	15.4	6.4	170	355	134	362	87	84
Uzbekistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3	465	276	64	...	0
Viet Nam	3 881	72	3 637	69	7.4	4.8	9.8	3.5	3.6	3.4	4	107	47	21	5	–
Yemen	3 993	69	4 845	69	57.0	35.3	78.6	38.5	18.8	60.3	15	64	29	14	1	0
Europe																
Albania	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	37	259	129	28	...	4
Austria	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	296	751	525	490	210	1 339
Belarus	57	79	41	74	0.5	0.3	0.7	0.2	0.2	0.2	173	292	243	223	...	7

Country or territory	Literacy										Culture and communication					
	Estimated number of adult illiterates				Estimated adult illiteracy rate (%)						Daily newspapers (copies)	Radio receivers	Television receivers	Main telephone lines	Number of PCs	Number of Internet hosts
	1990		1997		1997											1997
					Age 15 and over			Age 15–24			1996	1997				per 100,000 inhab.
	Total (000)	%F	Total (000)	%F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	per 1,000 inhabitants					
Belgium	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	161	797	466	471	237	1 055
Bosnia and Herzegovina	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	152	267	0	86	...	11
Bulgaria	194	70	132	69	1.9	1.2	2.6	0.4	0.3	0.5	254	537	394	319	29	81
Croatia	113	85	77	83	2.1	0.7	3.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	115	337	272	332	22	184
Czech Republic	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	254	803	531	318	83	552
Denmark	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	311	1 145	594	636	361	3 222
Estonia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	174	698	418	324	15	1 094
Finland	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	455	1 498	622	556	311	9 469
France	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	218	946	595	576	174	607
Germany	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	311	948	567	551	256	1 380
Greece	412	78	291	75	3.3	1.7	4.8	0.3	0.3	0.2	153	475	240	514	44	266
Hungary	77	63	62	63	0.7	0.6	0.9	0.2	0.2	0.2	186	690	435	305	49	668
Iceland	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	535	950	358	613	292	6 770
Ireland	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	149	697	402	410	241	1 090
Italy	1 098	65	841	65	1.7	1.2	2.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	104	880	528	448	113	443
Latvia	4	56	4	56	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	247	715	496	304	8	288
Lithuania	20	67	15	65	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.2	0.2	0.2	93	513	459	283	6	109
Luxembourg	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	328	683	391	671	695	1 137
Malta	31	49	27	48	8.8	9.4	8.3	1.7	3.0	0.3	127	669	735	491	80	215
Monaco	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	251	1 039	768	1 014	...	326
Netherlands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	306	980	519	567	282	2 506
Norway	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	590	917	462	622	361	6 652
Poland	119	60	91	56	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	113	522	337	194	36	229
Portugal	999	66	738	68	9.0	6.2	11.6	0.2	0.2	0.2	75	306	336	406	75	430
Republic of Moldova	80	83	49	82	1.5	0.6	2.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	60	736	288	143	4	6
Romania	529	77	401	76	2.2	1.1	3.3	0.5	0.5	0.4	298	319	233	167	9	60
Russian Federation	859	76	635	73	0.5	0.3	0.7	0.2	0.2	0.2	105	417	410	182	32	103
San Marino	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	71	610	360	686	...	837
Slovakia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	184	581	488	259	56	270
Slovenia	7	58	6	57	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	199	403	356	362	188	977
Spain	1 175	71	898	71	2.7	1.6	3.7	0.2	0.3	0.2	99	331	409	400	121	496
Sweden	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	445	932	519	679	350	3 936
Switzerland	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	331	979	457	647	386	2 609
The FYR of Macedonia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	21	206	257	205	...	25
Ukraine	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	54	882	353	184	6	27
United Kingdom	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	331	1 443	521	545	244	1 687
Yugoslavia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	106	296	259	205	...	46
Oceania																
Australia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	296	1 391	564	510	365	3 630
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	105	711	193	268	...	10
Fiji	51	63	43	63	8.2	5.9	10.6	1.2	1.1	1.3	51	636	27	91	...	12
Kiribati	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	–	212	15	31	...	–
New Zealand	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	216	997	512	489	266	4 500
Papua New Guinea	731	64	722	65	26.3	18.0	35.3	...	...	...	15	91	9	...	...	1
Samoa	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	85	1 035	61	49	...	–
Solomon Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	141	6	19	...	4
Tonga	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	72	619	21	...	6	743
Tuvalu	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	–	384	–	47	...	–
Vanuatu	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	–	350	14	27	...	26

Table 3
Enrolment in pre-primary education and access to schooling

Country or territory	Pre-primary education					Access to schooling								
		Gross enrolment ratio (%)				Apparent intake rate in primary education (%)			School life expectancy (expected number of years of formal schooling)					
	Age group	Total	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total		Male		Female	
	1996	1990	1996			1996			1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996
Africa														
Algeria	4–5	–	2	2	2	101	103	99	10.3	10.8	...	11.4	...	10.1
Angola	5	54	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Benin	3–5	3	3	3	3	80	95	65	...	...	...	...	...	...
Botswana	–	–	–	–	–	114	116	112	10.4	11.3	10.1	11.1	10.6	11.4
Burkina Faso	4–6	1	2	2	2	43	53	34	2.6	...	3.3	...	2.0	...
Burundi	4–6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cameroon	4–5	13	10	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cape Verde	5–6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Central African Republic	3–5	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Chad	3–5	...	1	1	0	74	91	57	...	3.9	...	...	...	...
Comoros	♦4–6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Congo	3–5	3	...	...	...	87	91	83	...	...	...	...	...	...
Côte d'Ivoire	3–5	1	2	3	2	70	79	61	...	...	...	...	...	...
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	3–5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Djibouti	4–5	1	1	1	1	35	...	...	...	3.4	...	3.9	...	2.8
Egypt	4–5	6	9	9	9	90	93	85	...	...	...	...	...	...
Equatorial Guinea	3–5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Eritrea	5–6	...	4	4	4	42	46	38	...	4.3	...	4.9	...	3.7
Ethiopia	4–6	2	1	1	1	82	105	58	...	...	...	...	...	...
Gabon	3–5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Gambia	5–6	...	...	...	...	95	105	85	...	...	...	...	...	...
Ghana	4–5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guinea	4–6	...	3	3	3	41	47	36	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guinea-Bissau	4–6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kenya	3–5	34	35	35	35	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Lesotho	–	–	–	–	–	103	102	103	9.7	9.6	8.7	8.9	10.8	10.4
Liberia	4–5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	4–5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Madagascar	3–5	...	5	4	5	102	102	102	...	...	...	...	...	...
Malawi	–	–	–	–	–	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mali	♦3–6	...	2	2	2	42	49	35	2.1	...	2.7	...	1.4	...
Mauritania	3–5	...	...	...	...	92	95	89	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mauritius	3–4	56	104	104	104	110	110	111	...	...	...	...	...	...
Morocco	5–6	66	68	92	44	92	100	84	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mozambique	6	–	–	–	–	69	77	61	...	3.7	...	4.3	...	3.0
Namibia	6	14	11	10	11	117	118	117	...	12.9	...	...	...	...
Niger	4–6	1	1	1	1	32	38	25	2.3	...	...	...	...	...
Nigeria	3–5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Rwanda	4–6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sao Tome and Principe	3–6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Senegal	4–6	2	2	2	2	74	77	71	...	...	...	...	...	...
Seychelles	4–5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sierra Leone	3–4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Somalia	4–5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Africa	5	19	35	35	35	...	...	...	13.3	14.1	13.2	14.1	13.4	14.1
Sudan	♦4–5	18	23	27	19	66	73	59	...	...	...	...	...	...
Swaziland	3–5	17	...	...	...	112	113	111	10.7	11.6	11.0	12.0	10.4	11.3
Togo	3–5	3	2	3	2	128	141	115	8.9	...	11.4	...	6.4	...
Tunisia	3–5	8	11	12	11	102	103	101	10.6	...	11.3	...	9.8	...

Country or territory	Pre-primary education					Access to schooling								
	Age group	Gross enrolment ratio (%)				Apparent intake rate in primary education (%)			School life expectancy (expected number of years of formal schooling)					
		Total	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total		Male		Female	
	1996	1990	1996			1996			1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996
Uganda	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
United Rep. of Tanzania	4–6	...	...	...	...	74	76	73	...	...	...	...	...	...
Zambia	3–6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	7.8	...	8.3	...	7.2
Zimbabwe	♦5–6	...	...	...	...	129	130	127	...	...	...	...	...	...
America, North														
Antigua and Barbuda	3–4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bahamas	3–4	...	9	9	9	109	97	121	...	...	...	...	...	...
Barbados	3–4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Belize	3–4	24	27	26	28	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
British Virgin Islands	3–5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Canada	4–5	60	64	64	64	...	...	...	16.9	16.8	16.5	16.5	17.4	17.1
Costa Rica	5	61	71	71	70	102	102	102	9.6	10.1	...	...	...	...
Cuba	5	101	88	88	87	103	...	...	12.1	...	11.6	...	12.5	...
Dominica	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Dominican Republic	♦3–5	...	33	33	33	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
El Salvador	4–6	21	40	39	42	127	129	125	...	9.8	...	9.7	...	9.9
Grenada	3–5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guatemala	5–6	26	35	35	34	113	117	109	...	...	...	...	...	...
Haiti	3–5	34	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Honduras	4–6	13	14	13	14	129	...	...	8.7	...	...	...	...	...
Jamaica	3–5	78	...	...	...	...	...	...	10.9	...	10.8	...	11.0	...
Mexico	4–5	64	73	72	74	115	115	115	10.6	11.2	...	...	...	...
Netherlands Antilles	4–5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nicaragua	3–6	12	23	23	24	132	133	130	...	...	...	...	...	...
Panama	5	53	76	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Saint Kitts and Nevis	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Saint Lucia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Trinidad and Tobago	3–4	9	...	...	...	89	90	88	...	...	...	...	...	...
United States	3–5	63	70	71	70	...	...	...	15.5	15.9	15.1	15.5	15.9	16.4
America, South														
Argentina	3–5	50	54	53	56	117	117	117	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bolivia	4–5	32	...	...	...	...	...	...	9.9	...	...	...	...	...
Brazil	4–6	48	58	...	...	147	...	...	10.4	11.1	...	...	...	...
Chile	5	82	98	97	98	103	104	102	12.0	12.6	...	12.7	...	12.5
Colombia	3–5	13	33	33	34	140	142	137	9.0	10.0	...	...	...	...
Ecuador	5	42	56	55	56	133	134	132	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guyana	4–5	69	89	89	89	96	97	95	...	9.9	...	9.8	...	9.9
Paraguay	♦5	27	61	51	71	122	123	121	8.6	10.0	8.7	10.0	8.4	10.0
Peru	3–5	30	36	36	37	124	124	123	...	12.4	...	...	...	...
Suriname	4–5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uruguay	3–5	43	45	44	46	99	98	100	...	...	...	...	...	...
Venezuela	3–5	41	44	44	45	103	105	102	10.8	...	...	...	...	...
Asia														
Afghanistan	3–6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Armenia	3–6	37	26	20	32	90	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Azerbaijan	♦3–5	20	19	21	18	106	108	104	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bahrain	3–5	27	33	33	32	100	101	99	13.5	...	13.3	...	13.8	...

Table 3 (continued)

Country or territory	Pre-primary education					Access to schooling								
		Gross enrolment ratio (%)				Apparent intake rate in primary education (%)			School life expectancy (expected number of years of formal schooling)					
	Age group	Total	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total		Male		Female	
	1996	1990	1996			1996			1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996
Bangladesh	5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	5.1	...	5.9	...	4.2	...
Bhutan	5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Brunei Darussalam	3–5	47	53	53	53	100	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cambodia	3–5	5	5	5	5	133	139	127	...	...	...	...	...	...
China	3–6	23	29	29	28	108	107	109	...	...	...	...	...	...
Hong Kong SAR	3–5	80	83	82	83	98	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cyprus	2–5	57	59	60	56	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Dem. People's Rep. of Korea	4–5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Georgia	3–5	59	30	...	...	96	...	...	...	11.0	...	11.0	...	11.1
India	4–5	3	5	5	5	126	137	114	...	...	...	...	...	...
Indonesia	5–6	18	19	18	20	112	114	111	9.7	10.0	...	10.4	...	9.6
Iran, Islamic Republic of	5	12	11	11	11	92	93	91	...	11.3	...	12.0	...	10.5
Iraq	4–5	8	7	7	7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Israel	2–5	83	71	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Japan	3–5	48	50	49	50	102	102	101	13.2	13.2	...	...	...	...
Jordan	4–5	....	....	....	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kazakhstan	3–6	72	29	30	28	95	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kuwait	4–5	33	63	64	62	77	79	76	7.0	9.2	6.8	9.0	7.1	9.3
Kyrgyzstan	3–6	34	7	9	6	103	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Lao People's Dem. Rep.	3–5	7	8	7	8	115	121	108	...	8.0	...	9.1	...	6.9
Lebanon	3–5	68	75	76	73	100	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Macau	3–5	89	...	...	...	...	...	...	11.6	...	12.1	...	11.3	...
Malaysia	4–5	35	42	41	44	106	106	106	...	...	...	...	...	...
Maldives	4–5	...	66	64	68	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mongolia	4–7	39	25	23	27	96	95	97	...	7.7	...	6.8	...	8.7
Myanmar	4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nepal	3–5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Oman	4–5	3	5	5	4	69	69	68	...	...	...	...	...	...
Pakistan	3–4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Palestinian Auton. Territories	4–5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Philippines	5–6	12	11	...	...	...	...	...	10.9	11.2	...	...	...	...
Qatar	4–5	27	32	35	28	54	51	57	12.3	...	11.6	...	13.1	...
Republic of Korea	5	55	88	87	89	102	102	103	13.3	14.6	14.0	15.3	12.5	13.9
Saudi Arabia	4–5	7	8	8	7	75	74	76	8.0	9.2	8.6	9.5	7.4	8.8
Singapore	4–5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sri Lanka	4	...	...	...	...	107	107	107	...	...	...	...	...	...
Syrian Arab Republic	3–5	6	7	8	7	95	98	92	10.3	9.5	11.2	10.1	9.4	8.8
Tajikistan	3–6	16	10	11	9	99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Thailand	3–5	43	62	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Turkey	4–5	5	8	8	7	105	108	102	8.5	9.5	...	10.4	...	8.5
Turkmenistan	3–6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	8.5	...	...	...	...	...
United Arab Emirates	4–5	52	57	58	56	89	91	88	10.8	10.7	10.4	10.3	11.3	11.2
Uzbekistan	3–5	73	55	56	54	99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Viet Nam	3–5	28	38	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Yemen	3–5	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Europe														
Albania	3–5	59	40	39	41	100	99	101	...	...	...	...	...	...
Austria	3–5	70	80	80	81	...	...	...	...	14.5	...	14.5	...	14.4
Belarus	3–5	84	82	86	77	100	102	97	...	...	...	...	...	...

Country or territory	Pre-primary education					Access to schooling									
		Gross enrolment ratio (%)				Apparent intake rate in primary education (%)			School life expectancy (expected number of years of formal schooling)						
	Age group	Total	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total		Male		Female		
	1996	1990	1996			1996			1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	
Belgium	3–5	105	118	118	117	...	...	...	14.2	16.8	14.1	16.7	14.2	16.9	
Bosnia and Herzegovina	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Bulgaria	♦3–6	92	63	64	62	102	103	101	12.3	12.2	12.3	...	12.3	...	
Croatia	3–6	28	40	41	39	87	87	87	11.0	11.4	...	11.3	...	11.5	
Czech Republic	3–5	95	91	91	91	101	102	101	...	12.8	...	12.8	...	12.9	
Denmark	3–6	99	83	83	83	102	102	102	14.2	14.8	14.0	14.6	14.3	15.0	
Estonia	3–6	75	68	69	67	97	97	97	...	12.6	...	12.3	...	12.9	
Finland	3–6	34	45	45	45	102	102	102	...	16.0	...	15.4	...	16.5	
France	2–5	83	83	83	83	...	...	...	14.5	15.5	14.2	15.2	14.8	15.7	
Germany	3–5	...	89	89	88	104	104	104	...	15.8	...	15.9	...	15.8	
Greece	4–5	56	64	63	64	...	...	...	13.3	13.7	13.4	13.7	13.2	13.7	
Hungary	3–5	113	109	110	108	...	...	...	11.4	12.9	11.3	12.7	11.4	13.1	
Iceland	2–5	...	80	84	77	103	102	104	...	15.2	...	14.7	...	15.5	
Ireland	4–5	101	114	114	114	103	104	103	12.6	13.9	12.4	13.6	12.8	14.2	
Italy	3–5	93	95	95	94	100	100	99	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Latvia	3–6	45	47	49	46	96	...	...	...	12.1	...	11.8	...	12.5	
Lithuania	3–6	58	40	41	39	100	101	100	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Luxembourg	4–5	92	98	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Malta	3–4	104	107	106	109	108	107	110	12.9	13.4	13.3	13.5	12.5	13.3	
Monaco	3–5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Netherlands	4–5	99	100	100	99	...	...	...	14.9	15.9	15.2	16.0	14.6	15.6	
Norway	4–6	88	103	101	106	102	102	102	14.2	15.6	14.0	15.2	14.5	16.0	
Poland	3–6	47	46	46	46	95	...	...	12.2	12.9	12.0	12.8	12.4	13.1	
Portugal	3–5	53	61	62	59	...	...	...	...	14.5	...	14.2	...	14.9	
Republic of Moldova	3–6	73	45	46	43	98	99	97	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Romania	♦3–6	76	53	53	53	100	...	...	...	11.6	...	11.5	...	11.6	
Russian Federation	3–6	74	...	...	...	101	103	99	...	...	...	...	...	...	
San Marino	3–5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Slovakia	3–5	...	76	...	...	98	98	97	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Slovenia	3–6	74	61	62	60	95	96	94	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Spain	2–5	59	74	73	74	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Sweden	3–6	65	73	71	74	111	110	111	13.0	15.2	12.7	14.6	13.2	15.7	
Switzerland	♦5–6	60	95	96	94	101	101	101	13.6	14.1	14.1	14.7	13.1	13.5	
The FYR of Macedonia	3–6	...	26	26	26	102	103	101	...	11.4	...	11.4	...	11.4	
Ukraine	♦3–6	85	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
United Kingdom	3–4	52	30	30	30	...	...	...	13.7	16.6	13.5	16.2	13.9	17.0	
Yugoslavia	3–6	...	31	31	31	70	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Oceania															
Australia	♦4	71	78	...	...	...	...	...	13.1	17.1	12.9	17.1	13.3	17.1	
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Fiji	3–5	13	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Kiribati	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
New Zealand	2–4	75	77	77	76	107	108	106	14.5	16.2	14.4	15.6	14.6	16.7	
Papua New Guinea	5–6	0	1	1	1	104	110	97	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Samoa	3–4	...	33	...	...	105	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Solomon Islands	3–5	32	36	37	35	108	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Tonga	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Tuvalu	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Vanuatu	3–5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	

Table 4
Primary education: duration, population and enrolment ratios

Country or territory	Duration in years		School-age population (000)		Gross enrolment ratio (%)						Net enrolment ratio (%)					
					Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female	
	Compulsory education	Primary education	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996
Africa																
Algeria	9	6	4 182	4 349	100	107	108	113	92	102	93	94	99	97	87	91
Angola	8	4	1 080	...	92	...	95	...	88	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Benin	6	6	843	1 004	58	78	78	98	39	57	49	63	65	80	32	47
Botswana	...	7	250	296	113	108	109	107	117	108	93	81	90	79	97	83
Burkina Faso	7	6	1 513	1 768	33	40	41	48	26	31	27	31	33	37	21	24
Burundi	6	6	870	1 024	73	51	79	55	66	46	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cameroon	6	6	1 942	2 144	101	88	109	93	93	84	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cape Verde	6	6	58	62	121	148	...	150	...	147	...	...	...	...	...	...
Central African Republic	6	6	474	...	65	...	80	...	51	...	53	...	64	...	42	...
Chad	6	6	966	1 185	54	57	75	76	34	39	...	46	...	59	...	33
Comoros	9	6	97	105	75	75	87	...	63	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Congo	10	6	373	435	133	114	141	120	124	109	...	...	...	...	...	...
Côte d'Ivoire	6	6	2 110	2 436	67	71	79	82	56	60	47	55	...	63	...	47
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	...	6	6 486	7 500	70	72	81	86	60	59	54	...	61	...	48	...
Djibouti	6	6	83	96	38	39	45	44	32	33	32	32	37	36	27	27
Egypt	8	5	7 422	8 153	94	101	101	108	86	94	...	93	...	98	...	88
Equatorial Guinea	5	5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Eritrea	7	5	...	451	...	53	...	59	...	48	...	30	...	32	...	29
Ethiopia	6	6	7 552	9 346	33	43	39	55	26	30	...	32	...	39	...	24
Gabon	10	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Gambia	...	6	135	161	64	77	76	87	52	67	51	65	60	72	42	57
Ghana	8	6	2 584	2 955	75	79	82	84	68	74	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guinea	6	6	935	1 240	37	54	50	68	24	41	...	42	...	50	...	33
Guinea-Bissau	6	6	148	162	54	62	70	79	38	45	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kenya	8	8	5 676	6 531	95	85	97	85	93	85	...	...	...	...	...	...
Lesotho	7	7	315	348	112	108	100	102	123	114	73	70	65	64	81	76
Liberia	10	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	9	9	1 117	...	105	...	108	...	102	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Madagascar	6	5	1 526	1 788	103	92	103	92	103	91	...	61	...	59	...	62
Malawi	8	8	2 064	2 162	68	134	74	140	62	127	50	100	52	100	48	100
Mali	9	6	1 495	1 765	26	49	34	58	19	40	21	31	27	38	16	25
Mauritania	6	6	344	396	49	79	56	84	41	75	...	57	...	61	...	53
Mauritius	7	6	126	120	109	106	109	106	109	106	95	98	95	98	95	98
Morocco	6	6	3 713	3 677	67	86	79	97	54	74	58	74	68	83	48	65
Mozambique	7	5	1 883	2 353	67	60	77	70	57	50	44	40	49	45	38	34
Namibia	10	7	243	292	129	131	123	129	135	132	89	91	...	...	...	...
Niger	8	6	1 280	1 645	29	29	37	36	21	23	25	24	32	30	18	19
Nigeria	6	6	14 891	16 522	91	98	104	109	79	87	...	...	...	...	...	...
Rwanda	6	♦7	1 580	...	70	...	70	...	69	...	66	...	66	...	66	...
Sao Tome and Principe	4	4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Senegal	6	6	1 202	1 441	59	71	68	78	50	65	48	60	55	65	41	55
Seychelles	10	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sierra Leone	...	7	761	...	50	...	60	...	41	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Somalia	8	8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Africa	9	7	5 715	6 145	122	133	123	135	121	131	100	96	100	95	100	96
Sudan	8	♦8	3 871	5 894	53	51	60	55	45	47	...	...	...	...	...	...
Swaziland	7	7	150	176	111	117	114	120	109	114	88	91	87	90	88	91
Togo	6	6	591	719	109	120	132	140	86	99	75	81	87	93	62	69
Tunisia	9	6	1 241	1 230	113	118	120	122	107	114	94	98	97	99	90	96

Country or territory	Duration in years		School-age population (000)		Gross enrolment ratio (%)						Net enrolment ratio (%)					
					Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female	
	Compulsory education	Primary education	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996
Uganda	...	7	3 370	3 917	74	74	83	81	66	68	...	...	...	...	...	...
United Rep. of Tanzania	7	7	4 847	6 107	70	66	70	67	69	66	51	48	51	48	52	49
Zambia	7	7	1 480	1 702	99	89	...	91	...	86	...	75	...	76	...	74
Zimbabwe	8	7	1 829	2 206	116	113	117	115	115	111	...	...	...	...	...	...
America, North																
Antigua and Barbuda	11	7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bahamas	9	6	33	35	102	98	102	...	103	...	96	...	96	...	97	...
Barbados	11	7	30	...	93	...	93	...	93	...	78	...	78	...	77	...
Belize	10	8	43	45	112	121	113	123	110	119	...	...	...	...	...	...
British Virgin Islands	11	7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Canada	10	6	2 307	2 402	103	102	104	103	102	101	97	95	97	96	97	94
Costa Rica	10	6	432	507	101	104	101	104	100	103	86	89	86	89	87	89
Cuba	9	6	909	1 032	98	106	99	108	96	104	92	100	92	100	92	100
Dominica	11	7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Dominican Republic	10	8	...	1 449	...	94	...	94	...	94	...	...	...	...	...	...
El Salvador	9	9	1 245	1 223	81	97	81	98	82	96	...	78	...	78	...	78
Grenada	11	7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guatemala	6	6	1 539	1 754	81	88	86	93	76	82	...	72	...	76	...	69
Haiti	6	6	1 162	...	48	...	49	...	46	...	22	...	22	...	23	...
Honduras	6	6	845	908	108	111	105	110	110	112	89	...	...	...	...	...
Jamaica	6	♦6	335	323	101	100	102	100	101	99	96	...	96	...	96	...
Mexico	6	6	12 643	12 805	114	114	115	116	112	113	100	100	...	100	...	100
Netherlands Antilles	9	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nicaragua	6	6	677	765	94	102	91	100	96	103	72	78	71	76	73	79
Panama	6	6	330	352	106	105	108	...	104	...	91	...	91	...	92	...
Saint Kitts and Nevis	12	7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Saint Lucia	10	7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	10	7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Trinidad and Tobago	7	7	201	184	97	99	97	99	96	98	91	88	91	88	91	88
United States	10	6	21 925	23 619	102	102	103	102	101	101	96	95	96	94	96	95
America, South																
Argentina	10	7	4 673	4 633	106	113	...	114	...	113	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bolivia	8	8	1 350	...	95	...	99	...	90	...	91	...	95	...	87	...
Brazil	8	8	27 239	27 472	106	125	...	...	...	...	86	90	...	...	...	...
Chile	8	8	1 993	2 212	100	101	101	103	99	100	89	89	90	91	88	88
Colombia	5	5	4 155	4 370	102	113	95	113	109	112	69	85	...	...	...	...
Ecuador	10	6	1 585	1 658	116	127	...	134	...	119	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guyana	8	6	107	106	98	96	98	97	97	96	93	87	93	87	93	87
Paraguay	6	6	652	817	105	111	107	112	103	109	93	91	94	91	92	91
Peru	6	6	3 280	3 361	118	123	119	125	116	121	...	91	...	91	...	90
Suriname	6	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uruguay	6	6	319	318	109	109	109	109	108	108	91	93	91	92	92	93
Venezuela	10	9	4 235	4 668	96	91	94	90	97	93	88	84	87	83	89	85
Asia																
Afghanistan	6	6	2 302	2 701	27	49	35	64	19	32	...	...	...	...	...	...
Armenia	11	4	...	294	...	87	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Azerbaijan	11	♦4	464	676	114	106	114	108	113	105	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bahrain	9	6	61	69	110	106	110	105	110	106	99	98	99	97	99	99

Table 4 (continued)

Country or territory	Duration in years		School-age population (000)		Gross enrolment ratio (%)						Net enrolment ratio (%)					
					Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female	
	Compulsory education	Primary education	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996
Bangladesh	5	5	16 683	...	72	...	77	...	66	...	64	...	68	...	60	...
Bhutan	...	7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Brunei Darussalam	12	6	34	41	115	106	119	109	112	104	91	91	92	90	90	91
Cambodia	...	♦6	1 099	1 751	121	110	...	119	...	100	...	98	...	...	...	...
China	9	5	97 812	114 017	125	123	130	122	120	123	97	100	99	100	95	100
Hong Kong SAR	9	6	513	498	102	94	102	93	103	95	...	90	...	88	...	91
Cyprus	9	6	60	66	105	100	105	100	105	100	100	97	100	96	100	97
Dem. People's Rep. of Korea	10	4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Georgia	9	4	362	332	97	88	97	89	97	88	...	90	...	88	...	91
India	8	5	101 968	110 650	97	100	110	109	84	90	...	...	...	...	...	...
Indonesia	9	6	25 831	25 946	115	113	117	115	114	110	97	95	100	96	95	93
Iran, Islamic Republic of	5	5	8 351	9 385	112	98	118	102	106	95	99	90	100	91	96	88
Iraq	6	6	2 990	3 416	111	85	120	92	102	78	...	76	...	81	...	71
Israel	11	♦6	764	644	95	98	93	...	96	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Japan	9	6	9 399	7 748	100	101	100	101	100	101	100	100	100	100	100	100
Jordan	9	10	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kazakhstan	11	4	1 371	1 373	87	98	...	97	...	98	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kuwait	8	4	208	184	60	77	62	78	59	77	45	62	45	62	44	61
Kyrgyzstan	10	♦4	319	454	111	104	111	105	111	103	...	95	...	96	...	93
Lao People's Dem. Rep.	5	5	549	703	105	112	118	123	92	101	61	72	66	76	57	68
Lebanon	9	5	292	345	118	111	120	113	116	108	...	76	...	...	...	...
Macau	5	6	35	...	99	...	101	...	96	...	81	...	81	...	81	...
Malaysia	...	6	2 620	2 845	94	101	94	101	94	101	...	100	...	100	...	100
Maldives	...	5	...	39	...	128	...	130	...	127	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mongolia	8	♦4	171	265	97	88	96	86	98	91	...	81	...	79	...	83
Myanmar	5	5	5 058	4 478	106	121	108	...	105	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nepal	5	5	2 589	3 050	108	113	132	129	81	96	...	...	...	...	...	...
Oman	...	6	305	413	86	76	90	78	82	74	70	69	73	70	68	68
Pakistan	...	5	16 448	...	61	...	82	...	39	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Palestinian Auton. Territories	...	10	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Philippines	6	6	9 370	10 113	111	114	113	115	109	113	97	100	...	...	...	...
Qatar	...	6	50	62	97	86	101	87	94	86	87	...	87	...	86	...
Republic of Korea	9	6	4 639	4 056	105	94	105	94	105	94	100	92	100	92	100	93
Saudi Arabia	...	6	2 561	2 970	73	76	78	77	68	75	59	61	65	63	53	60
Singapore	...	6	249	286	104	94	105	95	102	93	...	92	...	93	...	92
Sri Lanka	9	5	1 994	1 686	106	109	107	110	105	108	...	...	...	...	...	...
Syrian Arab Republic	6	6	2 263	2 669	108	101	114	106	102	96	98	91	100	95	93	87
Tajikistan	9	4	558	671	91	95	92	96	90	94	...	...	...	...	...	...
Thailand	6	6	7 023	6 797	99	87	100	...	98	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Turkey	8	5	6 924	5 949	99	107	102	111	96	104	89	99	...	100	...	96
Turkmenistan	...	4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
United Arab Emirates	6	6	219	291	104	89	106	91	103	87	94	78	95	79	93	78
Uzbekistan	...	4	2 184	2 456	81	78	82	79	81	76	...	...	...	...	...	...
Viet Nam	5	5	8 616	9 193	103	113	...	115	...	111	...	...	...	...	...	...
Yemen	9	9	...	3 843	...	70	...	100	...	40	...	...	...	...	...	...
Europe																
Albania	8	8	550	521	100	107	100	106	100	108	...	100	...	100	...	100
Austria	9	4	363	381	102	100	102	100	102	100	...	...	...	...	...	...
Belarus	9	4	649	637	95	98	...	100	...	96	...	85	...	87	...	84

Country or territory	Duration in years		School-age population (000)		Gross enrolment ratio (%)						Net enrolment ratio (%)					
					Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female	
	Compulsory education	Primary education	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996
Belgium	12	6	716	722	101	103	100	104	101	102	97	98	96	99	98	98
Bosnia and Herzegovina	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		
Bulgaria	8	♦4	984	437	98	99	99	100	96	98	86	92	86	93	86	91
Croatia	8	♦4	509	234	85	87	85	88	84	87	79	82	79	83	79	82
Czech Republic	9	4	566	521	96	104	96	105	97	103	...	91	...	92	...	91
Denmark	9	6	346	332	98	101	98	102	98	101	98	99	98	99	98	99
Estonia	9	♦6	115	135	111	94	112	95	109	93	...	87	...	87	...	86
Finland	9	6	395	387	99	99	99	98	99	99	...	98	...	98	...	98
France	10	5	3 825	3 813	108	105	109	106	108	104	100	100	100	100	100	100
Germany	12	4	3 480	3 715	99	104	98	104	99	104	...	86	...	86	...	87
Greece	9	6	832	699	98	93	98	93	98	93	94	90	94	90	94	90
Hungary	10	♦4	1 196	490	95	103	95	104	95	102	91	97	91	97	92	96
Iceland	10	7	29	30	101	98	...	98	...	98	...	98	...	98	...	98
Ireland	9	6	405	343	103	104	103	105	103	104	91	92	90	91	91	93
Italy	8	5	2 963	2 793	103	101	103	101	103	100	...	100	...	100	...	100
Latvia	...	4	152	153	94	96	95	98	94	93	...	89	...	92	...	87
Lithuania	9	4	223	230	91	98	93	99	88	96	...	...	...	...	...	...
Luxembourg	9	6	26	29	91	99	87	...	94	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Malta	11	2	34	33	110	107	112	108	108	107	99	100	99	100	98	100
Monaco	10	5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Netherlands	13	6	1 057	1 142	102	108	101	109	104	107	95	100	93	100	97	99
Norway	9	6	308	330	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Poland	8	8	5 276	5 210	98	96	99	97	98	95	97	95	97	95	97	94
Portugal	9	6	826	680	123	128	126	131	120	124	100	...	100	...	100	...
Republic of Moldova	11	4	324	329	93	97	93	98	93	97	...	...	...	...	...	...
Romania	8	4	1 373	1 358	91	103	91	104	91	103	...	95	...	96	...	95
Russian Federation	9	3	6 958	7 325	109	107	109	108	109	107	...	93	...	93	...	93
San Marino	8	5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Slovakia	9	4	...	324	...	102	...	102	...	102	...	...	...	...	...	...
Slovenia	8	4	103	101	108	98	...	98	...	98	...	95	...	95	...	94
Spain	10	♦6	2 598	2 491	109	109	109	109	108	108	100	100	100	100	100	100
Sweden	9	6	580	648	100	107	100	106	100	107	100	100	100	100	100	100
Switzerland	9	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
The FYR of Macedonia	8	8	269	263	99	99	100	100	98	98	94	95	95	96	94	94
Ukraine	9	♦4	4 496	...	89	...	89	...	89	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
United Kingdom	11	6	4 350	4 605	104	116	103	115	106	116	97	99	96	98	98	99
Yugoslavia	8	4	648	632	72	69	71	69	73	70	69	...	69	...	70	...
Oceania																
Australia	10	7	1 470	1 828	108	101	108	101	107	101	99	95	99	95	99	95
Cook Islands	9	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Fiji	8	6	115	...	126	...	126	...	126	...	100	...	100	...	100	...
Kiribati	9	7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
New Zealand	10	6	302	352	106	99	106	99	105	99	100	100	100	100	100	100
Papua New Guinea	...	6	577	643	72	80	78	87	66	74	...	...	...	...	...	...
Samoa	8	♦8	29	35	122	100	117	101	127	100	...	96	...	96	...	95
Solomon Islands	...	6	56	63	84	97	91	103	78	89	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tonga	8	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tuvalu	7	8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	6	6	25	...	96	...	98	...	94	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Table 5
Primary education: internal efficiency

Country or territory	Percentage of repeaters						Percentage of 1995 cohort reaching					
	Total		Male		Female		Grade 2			Grade 5		
	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Africa												
Algeria	9	10	11	13	7	8	99	98	99	94	93	95
Angola	33	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Benin	21	25	21	25	22	25	87	89	84	61	64	57
Botswana	5	3	5	4	5	3	93	92	93	90	87	93
Burkina Faso	18	16	18	16	18	16	93	91	94	75	74	77
Burundi	22	...	22	...	21	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cameroon	29	...	30	...	28	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cape Verde	19	...	20	...	17	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Central African Republic	32	...	32	...	32	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Chad	32	32	32	32	34	32	84	84	84	59	62	53
Comoros	39	...	39	...	39	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Congo	37	33	37	35	37	32	93	87	100	55	40	78
Côte d'Ivoire	24	24	24	24	24	25	90	91	89	75	77	71
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	18	...	17	...	18	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Djibouti	13	16	...	...	...	...	94	...	...	79	...	...
Egypt	...	6	...	7	...	5	...	...	...	...	...	...
Equatorial Guinea	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Eritrea	32	20	29	19	36	22	89	90	88	70	73	67
Ethiopia	...	8	...	7	...	9	66	66	65	51	51	50
Gabon	33	35	33	36	34	34	76	75	77	59	58	61
Gambia	16	13	17	13	15	12	86	85	86	80	78	83
Ghana	3	...	3	...	3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guinea	20	28	18	27	23	29	76	...	...	54	...	...
Guinea-Bissau	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kenya	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Lesotho	22	20	25	23	19	18	84	81	87	63	55	71
Liberia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Madagascar	36	34	37	35	34	33	77	85	71	40	49	33
Malawi	19	15	19	15	19	15	62	63	61	34	36	32
Mali	27	18	27	18	28	18	100	100	98	84	92	70
Mauritania	18	16	17	15	19	17	90	88	92	64	61	68
Mauritius	5	4	5	5	5	4	100	100	99	99	98	99
Morocco	11	12	12	14	10	10	92	93	91	75	76	74
Mozambique	26	26	25	25	27	27	86	90	79	46	52	39
Namibia	...	13	...	14	...	12	96	...	...	86	...	...
Niger	14	13	14	13	14	13	92	93	92	73	72	73
Nigeria	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Rwanda	12	...	13	...	12	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sao Tome and Principe	29	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Senegal	16	13	16	13	16	13	93	94	93	87	89	85
Seychelles	–	–	–	–	–	–	100	99	100	99	98	99
Sierra Leone	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Somalia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Africa	12	...	14	...	11	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sudan	–	–	–	–	–	–	93	94	92	74	75	73
Swaziland	15	16	17	18	13	13	92	92	92	76	73	79
Togo	36	24	35	24	37	25	89	91	87	71	79	60
Tunisia	20	16	21	17	18	15	98	98	98	91	90	92

Country or territory	Percentage of repeaters						Percentage of 1995 cohort reaching					
	Total		Male		Female		Grade 2			Grade 5		
	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Uganda	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
United Rep. of Tanzania	4	2	4	2	5	2	96	95	96	81	78	84
Zambia	...	3	...	3	...	3	...	...	...	...	...	...
Zimbabwe	–	–	–	–	–	–	88	89	88	79	78	79
America, North												
Antigua and Barbuda	3	...	3	...	3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bahamas	–	–	–	–	–	–	...	...	...	...	...	...
Barbados	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Belize	7	10	8	12	6	9	...	...	...	...	...	...
British Virgin Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Canada	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Costa Rica	11	11	12	13	10	10	96	95	97	88	86	89
Cuba	3	3	...	...	...	...	100	...	...	100	...	...
Dominica	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Dominican Republic	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
El Salvador	8	4	9	5	7	4	89	89	90	77	76	77
Grenada	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guatemala	...	15	...	16	...	14	78	78	77	50	52	47
Haiti	13	...	13	...	13	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Honduras	12	12	11	...	13	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Jamaica	4	...	4	...	4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mexico	9	7	...	8	...	6	93	93	93	86	85	86
Netherlands Antilles	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nicaragua	17	15	...	16	...	14	76	74	79	47	43	52
Panama	10	...	12	...	8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Saint Kitts and Nevis	–	–	–	–	–	–	...	...	...	...	...	...
Saint Lucia	–	–	–	–	–	–	...	...	...	...	...	...
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Trinidad and Tobago	3	6	3	6	3	5	100	100	100	97	98	97
United States	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
America, South												
Argentina	...	5	..	6	...	4	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bolivia	3	...	3	...	3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Brazil	...	18	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Chile	...	5	...	6	...	4	100	100	100	100	100	100
Colombia	11	7	15	8	9	7	76	74	78	73	70	76
Ecuador	...	3	...	4	...	3	89	89	90	85	84	86
Guyana	6	4	7	5	5	3	100	100	100	91	91	92
Paraguay	9	9	10	10	7	8	92	92	92	78	77	80
Peru	...	15	...	16	...	15	...	...	...	...	...	...
Suriname	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uruguay	9	9	11	11	8	8	99	99	100	98	96	99
Venezuela	11	10	13	12	9	9	96	95	97	89	86	92
Asia												
Afghanistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Armenia	...	0	...	...	...	...	100	...	...	100	...	...
Azerbaijan	...	0	...	0	...	0	96	...	...	93	...	...
Bahrain	5	5	5	5	5	5	99	98	99	95	94	95

Table 5 (continued)

Country or territory	Percentage of repeaters						Percentage of 1995 cohort reaching					
	Total		Male		Female		Grade 2			Grade 5		
	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Bangladesh	7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bhutan	...	19	...	20	...	18	...	...	...	...	...	...
Brunei Darussalam	10	8	...	...	...	...	98	...	...	92	...	...
Cambodia	...	26	...	27	...	25	87	88	85	49	51	46
China	6	2	...	2	...	1	100	100	100	94	93	94
Hong Kong SAR	1	1	...	...	...	...	100	...	...	100	...	...
Cyprus	0	0	1	0	0	0	100	100	100	100	99	100
Dem. People's Rep. of Korea	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Georgia	...	0	...	...	...	...	100	...	...	98	...	...
India	...	4	...	3	...	4	...	...	...	...	...	...
Indonesia	10	6	...	6	...	6	98	97	99	88	88	89
Iran, Islamic Republic of	9	6	11	7	8	4	...	...	...	...	...	...
Iraq	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Israel	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Japan	–	–	–	–	–	–	...	...	...	...	...	...
Jordan	5	1	6	1	5	1	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kazakhstan	...	1	...	...	...	...	98	...	...	92	...	...
Kuwait	3	3	3	3	3	3	97	97	98	96	94	97
Kyrgyzstan	...	0	...	...	...	...	97	...	...	97	...	...
Lao People's Dem. Rep.	31	23	32	25	29	22	78	78	78	55	57	54
Lebanon	...	13	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Macau	7	...	8	...	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Malaysia	–	–	–	–	–	–	...	...	...	...	...	...
Maldives	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mongolia	...	1	...	1	...	1	94	94	95	90	89	92
Myanmar	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nepal	27	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Oman	9	9	10	11	8	7	99	99	99	96	96	96
Pakistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Palestinian Auton. Territories	...	4	...	4	...	3	100	99	100	100	99	100
Philippines	2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Qatar	7	5	10	6	5	3	100	100	100	99	97	99
Republic of Korea	–	–	–	–	–	–	100	100	100	98	98	99
Saudi Arabia	9	8	11	11	7	4	96	94	97	89	87	92
Singapore	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sri Lanka	8	2	9	3	7	2	100	100	100	83	83	84
Syrian Arab Republic	7	7	8	8	6	6	99	98	99	94	93	94
Tajikistan	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Thailand	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Turkey	7	5	7	4	7	5	...	...	...	...	...	...
Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
United Arab Emirates	4	4	5	5	4	3	93	93	93	83	83	84
Uzbekistan	...	0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Viet Nam	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Yemen	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Europe												
Albania	...	5	...	7	...	4	93	93	93	82	81	83
Austria	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Belarus	1	1	...	1	...	1	99	98	99	98	98	98

Country or territory	Percentage of repeaters						Percentage of 1995 cohort reaching					
	Total		Male		Female		Grade 2			Grade 5		
	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Belgium	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bosnia and Herzegovina	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bulgaria	4	3	6	4	3	3	93	93	93	89	90	89
Croatia	...	1	...	1	...	0	100	100	100	100	100	100
Czech Republic	...	1	...	1	...	1	98	98	98	98	98	98
Denmark	–	–	–	–	–	–	100	100	99	100	100	99
Estonia	...	3	...	4	...	1	99	99	99	96	96	97
Finland	0	0	1	1	0	0	100	100	100	100	100	100
France	5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Germany	...	2	...	2	...	1	100	99	100	100	99	100
Greece	0	...	0	...	0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Hungary	3	...	4	...	2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Iceland	–	–	–	–	–	–	100	100	100	99	99	99
Ireland	2	2	2	2	2	2	...	...	...	...	...	...
Italy	1	0	1	1	1	0	100	100	100	99	98	99
Latvia	...	2	...	...	...	...	99	...	...	97	...	...
Lithuania	...	1	...	2	...	1	99	99	98	99	99	98
Luxembourg	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Malta	1	2	1	2	1	1	100	100	100	100	99	99
Monaco	6	...	6	...	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Netherlands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Norway	–	–	–	–	–	–	100	100	100	100	100	100
Poland	2	1	...	...	...	...	99	...	...	97	...	...
Portugal	14	...	16	...	12	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Republic of Moldova	...	1	...	1	...	1	96	96	97	95	93	97
Romania	2	3	2	3	1	2	97	...	...	95	...	...
Russian Federation	...	2	...	2	...	2	...	...	...	...	...	...
San Marino	0	0	0	0	0	0	100	100	100	100	100	100
Slovakia	...	2	...	2	...	2	97	97	98	96	96	97
Slovenia	...	1	...	1	...	1	100	100	100	100	100	100
Spain	4	...	4	...	3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sweden	–	–	–	–	–	–	100	100	100	98	98	97
Switzerland	2	2	2	2	1	1	...	...	...	...	...	...
The FYR of Macedonia	...	1	...	1	...	0	99	99	98	95	95	95
Ukraine	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
United Kingdom	–	–	–	–	–	–	...	...	...	...	...	...
Yugoslavia	2	1	...	...	...	...	99	...	...	98	...	...
Oceania												
Australia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Fiji	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kiribati	1	0	1	0	1	0	97	95	98	95	95	93
New Zealand	3	–	3	–	3	–	98	98	98	97	97	97
Papua New Guinea	–	–	–	–	–	–	...	...	...	...	...	...
Samoa	...	2	...	...	...	...	90	...	...	86	...	...
Solomon Islands	10	9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tonga	4	...	4	...	4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tuvalu	–	–	–	–	–	–	...	...	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Table 6
Secondary education: duration, population and enrolment ratios

Country or territory	Duration in years of secondary general education		School-age population (000)		Gross enrolment ratio (%)						Net enrolment ratio (%)					
					Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female	
	Lower	Upper	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996
Africa																
Algeria	3	3	3 576	4 136	61	63	67	65	54	62	54	56	60	58	48	54
Angola	4	3	1 515	...	12	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Benin	4	3	673	955	12	18	17	26	7	11	...	...	...	...	...	...
Botswana	2	3	145	183	43	65	41	61	45	68	34	44	31	40	36	49
Burkina Faso	4	3	1 383	...	7	...	9	...	5	...	7	...	9	...	5	...
Burundi	4	3	787	884	6	7	7	...	4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cameroon	4	3	1 789	2 052	28	27	33	32	23	22	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cape Verde	3	3	47	58	21	55	...	54	...	56	...	48	...	47	...	48
Central African Republic	4	3	434	...	12	...	17	...	7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Chad	4	3	813	1 052	8	9	13	15	3	4	...	...	...	...	...	...
Comoros	4	3	87	101	18	21	21	24	14	19	...	...	...	...	...	...
Congo	4	3	346	403	53	53	62	62	44	45	...	...	...	...	...	...
Côte d'Ivoire	4	3	1 786	2 448	22	25	30	34	14	16	...	...	...	...	...	...
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	2	4	5 222	5 900	21	26	28	32	14	19	15	...	19	...	11	...
Djibouti	4	3	80	94	12	14	14	17	9	12	...	12	...	15	...	10
Egypt	3	3	7 229	8 978	76	75	84	80	68	70	...	67	...	71	...	64
Equatorial Guinea	4	3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Eritrea	2	4	...	441	...	20	...	24	...	17	...	16	...	17	...	14
Ethiopia	2	4	6 079	7 288	14	12	16	14	13	10	...	...	...	...	...	...
Gabon	4	3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Gambia	3	3	108	131	19	25	25	30	12	19	18	...	24	...	12	...
Ghana	4	3	2 336	...	36	...	45	...	28	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guinea	4	3	859	1 154	10	14	15	20	5	7	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guinea-Bissau	3	2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kenya	♦.	4	2 681	2 735	24	24	28	26	21	22	...	...	...	...	...	...
Lesotho	3	2	191	222	25	31	20	25	30	36	15	18	10	13	20	24
Liberia	3	3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	.	3	299	...	86	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Madagascar	4	3	1 885	2 050	18	16	18	16	18	16	...	...	...	...	...	...
Malawi	2	2	784	860	8	17	11	21	5	12	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mali	3	3	1 210	1 490	7	13	9	17	5	8	5	...	7	...	4	...
Mauritania	3	3	276	326	14	16	19	21	9	11	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mauritius	3	4	150	149	53	64	53	63	53	66	...	...	...	...	...	...
Morocco	3	3	3 387	3 689	35	39	41	44	30	34	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mozambique	2	5	2 099	2 625	8	7	10	9	6	5	...	6	...	7	...	5
Namibia	.	5	142	171	44	61	39	56	49	66	...	36	...	...	...	...
Niger	4	3	1 161	1 424	7	7	9	9	4	5	6	6	8	7	3	4
Nigeria	3	3	11 691	13 394	25	33	29	36	21	30	...	...	...	...	...	...
Rwanda	.	6	880	...	8	...	9	...	7	...	7	...	8	...	6	...
Sao Tome and Principe	5	2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Senegal	4	3	1 112	1 327	16	16	21	20	11	12	...	...	...	...	...	...
Seychelles	♦.	5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sierra Leone	5	2	592	...	17	...	22	...	13	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Somalia	.	4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Africa	3	2	3 691	3 984	74	95	69	88	80	103	51	58	47	53	54	63
Sudan	♦.	3	3 043	1 910	24	21	27	23	21	20	...	...	...	...	...	...
Swaziland	3	2	94	105	44	54	44	55	43	54	33	38	30	34	36	41
Togo	4	3	533	656	24	27	35	40	12	14	18	...	26	...	10	...
Tunisia	3	4	1 258	1 428	45	65	50	66	40	63	43	...	46	...	39	...

Country or territory	Duration in years of secondary general education		School-age population (000)		Gross enrolment ratio (%)						Net enrolment ratio (%)					
					Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female	
	Lower	Upper	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996
Uganda	4	2	2 205	2 655	13	12	17	15	10	9	...	...	...	...	...	...
United Rep. of Tanzania	4	2	3 377	4 030	5	5	6	6	4	5	...	...	...	...	...	...
Zambia	2	3	826	947	24	27	...	34	...	21	...	...	...	...	...	...
Zimbabwe	.	6	1 335	1 549	50	49	53	52	46	45	...	...	...	...	...	...
America, North																
Antigua and Barbuda	3	2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bahamas	3	3	31	32	94	87	94	...	94	...	87	...	87	...	88	...
Barbados	.	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Belize	.	4	19	21	41	49	39	47	44	52	29	...	27	...	30	...
British Virgin Islands	3	2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Canada	3	3	2 278	2 389	101	105	101	105	101	105	89	91	88	92	89	90
Costa Rica	3	2	314	389	42	47	41	45	43	49	36	40	34	...	37	...
Cuba	3	3	1 127	883	89	81	83	76	95	85	69	...	64	...	74	...
Dominica	.	5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Dominican Republic	.	4	...	667	...	54	...	47	...	61	...	22	...	18	...	26
El Salvador	.	3	360	420	26	34	26	32	27	36	...	22	...	21	...	23
Grenada	.	5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guatemala	3	3	1 258	1 461	23	26	...	27	...	25	...	...	...	...	...	...
Haiti	3	3	908	...	21	...	21	...	20	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Honduras	3	2	588	...	33	...	29	...	37	...	21	...	...	...	...	...
Jamaica	3	4	365	...	65	...	63	...	67	...	64	...	62	...	65	...
Mexico	3	3	12 589	12 373	53	64	53	64	54	64	45	51	...	...	...	...
Netherlands Antilles	.	5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nicaragua	3	2	455	573	40	55	34	50	47	60	...	...	...	...	...	...
Panama	3	3	313	323	63	69	60	...	65	...	51	...	48	...	53	...
Saint Kitts and Nevis	4	2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Saint Lucia	3	2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	5	2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Trinidad and Tobago	3	2	121	141	80	74	78	72	82	75	...	...	...	...	...	...
United States	3	3	20 693	22 050	93	97	93	98	94	97	86	90	85	90	87	90
America, South																
Argentina	3	2	3 038	3 378	71	77	...	73	...	81	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bolivia	.	4	599	...	37	...	40	...	34	...	29	...	32	...	27	...
Brazil	.	3	9 101	10 324	38	56	...	...	...	...	15	...	...	...	...	...
Chile	2	2	980	987	73	75	71	72	76	78	55	58	53	56	57	60
Colombia	4	2	4 680	4 939	50	61	47	57	53	66	34	46	...	42	...	49
Ecuador	3	3	1 422	1 536	55	50	...	50	...	50	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guyana	3	2	84	84	83	75	81	73	86	78	71	66	68	64	73	68
Paraguay	3	3	529	675	31	43	30	42	32	45	26	38	25	37	26	39
Peru	2	3	2 523	2 672	67	70	...	72	...	67	...	53	...	54	...	52
Suriname	4	3	64	...	52	...	48	...	56	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uruguay	3	3	327	317	81	85	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Venezuela	.	2	812	956	35	40	29	33	40	46	19	22	15	18	22	27
Asia																
Afghanistan	.	6	2 097	2 389	13	22	18	32	9	12	...	...	...	...	...	...
Armenia	♦4	2	...	415	...	90	...	100	...	79	...	...	...	...	...	...
Azerbaijan	5	2	965	1 068	90	77	90	73	90	81	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bahrain	3	3	47	61	100	94	98	91	101	98	85	83	84	79	86	87

Table 6 (continued)

Country or territory	Duration in years of secondary general education		School-age population (000)		Gross enrolment ratio (%)						Net enrolment ratio (%)					
					Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female	
	Lower	Upper	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996
Bangladesh	5	2	18 931	...	19	...	25	...	13	...	18	...	24	...	12	...
Bhutan	2	2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Brunei Darussalam	5	2	33	40	69	77	66	72	71	82	71	68	77	64	65	71
Cambodia	3	3	825	1 290	32	24	45	31	19	17	...	...	...	...	...	...
China	3	2	107 582	102 561	49	70	55	74	42	66	...	...	...	...	...	...
Hong Kong SAR	5	2	601	649	80	73	78	71	82	76	...	69	...	67	...	71
Cyprus	3	3	54	63	83	97	83	95	83	99	79	92	78	90	80	95
Dem. People's Rep. of Korea	.	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Georgia	5	2	599	578	95	77	96	78	94	76	...	74	...	75	...	74
India	3	4	123 813	139 319	44	49	55	59	33	39	...	...	...	...	...	...
Indonesia	3	3	24 913	25 438	44	51	48	55	40	48	38	42	40	45	35	39
Iran, Islamic Republic of	3	4	9 213	11 446	55	77	64	81	46	73	...	71	...	74	...	68
Iraq	3	3	2 547	2 772	47	42	57	51	36	32	...	...	...	...	...	...
Israel	♦3	3	362	615	85	88	82	89	89	87	...	...	...	...	...	...
Japan	3	3	11 355	9 563	97	103	96	103	98	104	97	...	...	...	...	...
Jordan	.	2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kazakhstan	5	2	2 187	2 220	98	87	97	82	99	91	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kuwait	4	4	330	332	51	65	51	65	51	65	45	61	46	62	45	61
Kyrgyzstan	5	2	651	674	100	79	99	75	101	83	...	...	...	...	...	...
Lao People's Dem. Rep.	3	3	548	659	25	28	31	34	19	23	15	22	17	25	13	19
Lebanon	4	3	390	430	74	81	71	78	76	84	...	...	...	...	...	...
Macau	.	6	27	...	65	...	62	...	68	...	53	...	50	...	56	...
Malaysia	3	4	2 586	3 031	56	64	55	59	58	69	...	...	...	...	...	...
Maldives	5	2	...	45	...	59	...	59	...	60	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mongolia	♦4	2	365	348	82	56	77	48	88	65	...	53	...	45	...	61
Myanmar	4	2	5 651	5 939	23	30	23	29	23	30	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nepal	3	2	2 140	2 652	33	42	46	51	20	33	...	...	...	...	...	...
Oman	3	3	222	325	46	67	51	68	40	66	...	...	...	...	...	...
Pakistan	3	4	19 141	...	23	...	30	...	15	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Palestinian Auton. Territories	.	2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Philippines	.	4	5 510	6 323	73	77	74	77	73	78	57	59	...	...	...	...
Qatar	3	3	37	48	81	80	77	80	85	79	67	...	64	...	70	...
Republic of Korea	3	3	5 075	4 573	90	102	91	102	88	102	86	97	87	97	85	98
Saudi Arabia	3	3	2 031	2 462	44	58	49	62	39	54	31	48	34	54	28	41
Singapore	4	3	324	298	68	74	70	...	66	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sri Lanka	6	2	2 822	3 092	74	75	71	72	77	78	...	...	...	...	...	...
Syrian Arab Republic	3	3	1 762	2 255	52	42	60	45	44	40	46	38	52	40	39	36
Tajikistan	5	2	813	935	102	78	...	83	...	74	...	...	...	...	...	...
Thailand	3	3	7 410	6 963	30	56	31	...	30	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Turkey	3	3	8 046	8 177	47	58	57	68	37	48	41	51	...	59	...	43
Turkmenistan	5	2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
United Arab Emirates	3	3	161	227	67	80	63	77	72	82	59	71	56	68	63	74
Uzbekistan	5	2	3 214	3 532	99	94	104	100	95	88	...	...	...	...	...	...
Viet Nam	4	3	10 553	11 712	32	47	33	48	31	46	...	...	...	...	...	...
Yemen	9	3	.	1 031	...	34	...	53	...	14	...	...	...	...	...	...
Europe																
Albania	.	4	263	240	78	38	84	37	72	38	...	...	...	...	...	...
Austria	4	4	719	768	104	103	107	105	100	102	...	88	...	88	...	89
Belarus	5	2	1 041	1 146	93	93	...	91	...	95	...	...	...	...	...	...

Country or territory	Duration in years of secondary general education		School-age population (000)		Gross enrolment ratio (%)						Net enrolment ratio (%)					
					Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female	
	Lower	Upper	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996
Belgium	2	4	747	724	103	146	103	142	103	151	88	88	86	89	89	87
Bosnia and Herzegovina	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bulgaria	♦4	4	521	955	75	77	74	77	77	76	63	74	62	...	65	...
Croatia	♦4	4	244	510	76	82	73	81	80	83	63	66	60	...	66	...
Czech Republic	4	4	1 391	1 207	91	99	93	97	90	100	...	87	...	86	...	89
Denmark	3	3	426	362	109	121	109	120	110	122	87	88	86	87	88	89
Estonia	♦2	3	132	108	102	104	98	99	107	109	...	83	...	80	...	86
Finland	3	3	367	400	116	118	106	110	127	125	93	93	92	93	94	94
France	4	3	5 606	5 368	99	111	96	112	101	111	86	95	84	94	88	95
Germany	6	3	7 526	8 084	98	104	100	105	97	103	...	88	...	88	...	89
Greece	3	3	913	857	93	95	94	95	92	96	83	87	82	85	83	88
Hungary	4	4	654	1 138	79	98	78	96	79	99	75	86	73	85	76	87
Iceland	3	4	30	29	100	104	101	105	98	102	...	87	...	86	...	88
Ireland	3	2	344	331	101	118	96	113	105	122	80	86	78	84	82	88
Italy	3	5	6 184	4 863	83	95	83	94	83	95	...	...	...	...	...	...
Latvia	5	3	285	286	93	84	93	82	93	85	...	79	...	78	...	79
Lithuania	5	3	431	439	92	86	...	85	...	88	...	...	...	...	...	...
Luxembourg	3	4	30	33	75	88	...	85	...	90	...	68	...	65	...	70
Malta	2	5	39	41	84	84	87	86	81	82	80	79	80	79	79	79
Monaco	4	3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Netherlands	3	3	1 173	1 077	120	137	124	141	115	134	84	91	83	90	85	91
Norway	3	3	360	311	103	118	101	121	105	116	88	97	87	97	88	98
Poland	.	4	2 317	2 602	81	98	80	98	83	97	76	85	73	81	79	88
Portugal	3	3	995	856	67	111	62	106	72	116	...	78	...	74	...	81
Republic of Moldova	♦5	2	575	553	80	80	77	79	83	82	...	...	...	...	...	...
Romania	♦4	4	3 084	2 821	92	78	92	79	92	78	...	73	...	72	...	74
Russian Federation	5	2	14 958	...	93	...	91	...	96	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
San Marino	3	5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Slovakia	4	4	...	720	...	94	...	92	...	96	...	...	...	...	...	...
Slovenia	4	4	229	232	91	92	...	90	...	93	...	...	...	...	...	...
Spain	♦2	4	4 567	3 221	104	120	101	116	108	123	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sweden	3	3	652	591	90	140	88	128	92	153	85	99	85	99	86	99
Switzerland	3	4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
The FYR of Macedonia	.	4	127	133	56	63	56	64	55	62	...	56	...	57	...	55
Ukraine	♦5	2	3 672	...	93	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
United Kingdom	3	4	5 073	5 078	85	129	83	120	88	139	79	91	77	90	81	93
Yugoslavia	4	4	1 243	1 313	63	62	62	60	64	64	62	...	61	...	63	...
Oceania																
Australia	4	2	1 564	1 538	82	148	80	149	83	148	79	89	77	88	80	89
Cook Islands	3	3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Fiji	.	6	98	...	56	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kiribati	.	5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
New Zealand	4	3	383	377	89	114	88	111	90	117	85	92	84	91	86	93
Papua New Guinea	4	2	528	561	12	14	15	17	10	11	...	...	...	...	...	...
Samoa	♦3	2	21	20	50	62	46	59	56	66	...	...	...	...	...	...
Solomon Islands	3	2	40	45	14	17	17	21	11	14	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tonga	.	7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tuvalu	4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Vanuatu	4	3	22	...	17	...	19	...	14	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Table 7
Teaching staff in pre-primary, primary and secondary education

Country or territory	Pupil-teacher ratio						Percentage of female teachers						Teachers (all levels) per 1,000 non-agricultural labour force	
	Pre-primary		Primary		Secondary general		Pre-primary		Primary		Secondary general			
	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996
Africa														
Algeria	–	25	28	27	17	17	...	88	39	45	40	46	58	52
Angola	...	...	32	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	38	...
Benin	23	28	36	56	29	27	55	63	25	24	18	16	24	21
Botswana	–	...	32	25	19	18	...	...	80	77	41	44	44	57
Burkina Faso	28	41	57	50	29	...	85	89	27	24	...	...	37	48
Burundi	...	...	67	50	26	...	...	...	46	50	24	...	49	45
Cameroon	26	19	51	49	29	31	100	99	30	...	20	25	45	33
Cape Verde	...	...	33	29	30	25	...	...	60	62	45	36	32	39
Central African Republic	...	...	77	...	38	...	...	...	25	...	...	...	23	...
Chad	...	23	66	67	44	37	...	88	6	8	5	4	22	20
Comoros	...	...	37	42	25	25	...	...	...	...	...	...	66	53
Congo	9	...	65	70	35	33	100	...	32	36	...	15	34	28
Côte d'Ivoire	...	22	37	41	...	31	...	93	18	21	...	14	35	26
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	...	...	40	45	22	...	...	...	24	22	15	...	34	30
Djibouti	...	43	43	34	22	28	...	100	37	30	...	20	...	...
Egypt	25	24	24	23	20	17	95	99	52	49	42	39	55	57
Equatorial Guinea	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Eritrea	32	36	38	44	37	45	100	99	45	36	12	14	...	23
Ethiopia	35	38	36	43	38	35	94	95	24	28	10	10	32	31
Gabon	26	...	44	51	25	27	97	...	...	39	21	19	35	33
Gambia	32	...	31	30	...	...	...	...	31	29	...	...	46	59
Ghana	21	...	29	29	19	...	...	...	36	35	24	...	46	43
Guinea	...	52	40	49	16	29	...	74	22	25	13	11	43	38
Guinea–Bissau	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kenya	39	34	31	30	20	15	99	...	37	40	32	21	101	82
Lesotho	–	...	55	47	21	24	...	...	80	79	53	52	22	23
Liberia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	...	...	14	...	16	...	...	...	...	...	40	...	96	...
Madagascar	...	...	40	37	22	18	...	...	...	51	...	42	45	41
Malawi	–	...	61	59	29	22	...	...	31	39	25	...	42	77
Mali	...	35	47	71	15	27	...	74	25	25	15	18	24	23
Mauritania	...	...	45	50	17	26	...	...	18	20	11	9	15	18
Mauritius	18	17	21	20	21	20	100	100	45	50	40	44	33	31
Morocco	20	21	27	28	15	17	20	34	37	38	30	32	45	40
Mozambique	–	...	55	58	42	38	...	...	23	23	18	19	22	19
Namibia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Niger	37	24	42	42	29	28	100	99	33	32	18	21	32	31
Nigeria	...	...	41	37	...	...	...	...	43	46	...	...	25	25
Rwanda	...	...	57	...	...	...	...	...	46	...	...	...	83	...
Sao Tome and Principe	30	...	35	...	23	...	93	...	52	...	24	...	...	...
Senegal	26	20	53	56	22	24	75	78	27	26	16	16	30	29
Seychelles	20	18	19	17	19	14	100	100	82	88	...	53	...	...
Sierra Leone	...	...	35	...	18	...	...	...	...	...	17	...	37	...
Somalia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Africa	25	24	27	36	26	29	98	99	58	74	64	47	33	30
Sudan	35	39	34	29	22	26	47	75	51	62	36	46	38	36
Swaziland	19	...	33	34	19	19	...	...	79	75	46	42	54	53
Togo	29	22	58	46	28	34	100	97	19	14	12	11	32	39
Tunisia	26	...	28	24	...	19	99	...	45	49	...	38	44	47

Country or territory	Pupil-teacher ratio						Percentage of female teachers						Teachers (all levels) per 1,000 non-agricultural labour force	
	Pre-primary		Primary		Secondary general		Pre-primary		Primary		Secondary general			
	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996
Uganda	…	...	30	35	18	18	...	...	30	32	16	20	80	62
United Rep. of Tanzania	...	...	35	36	22	17	...	...	41	44	25	26	52	44
Zambia	...	...	44	39	...	...	...	...	...	43	...	...	56	52
Zimbabwe	...	...	36	39	27	27	...	...	39	44	29	36	59	52
America, North														
Antigua and Barbuda	...	...	...	...	15	...	...	...	...	...	87	...	...	...
Bahamas	17	14	...	22	...	16	100	100	...	88	...	69	...	27
Barbados	...	...	18	...	20	...	...	...	72	...	55	...	30	...
Belize	18	17	26	26	14	14	99	99	70	71	42	47	67	65
British Virgin Islands	...	9	19	16	12	...	...	100	...	85	...	...	...	...
Canada	31	40	15	16	14	19	70	67	69	67	54	67	33	31
Costa Rica	23	21	32	29	22	20	97	97	79	81	...	60	34	35
Cuba	24	22	13	12	11	11	100	100	79	81	56	64	52	44
Dominica	22	...	29	29	...	...	100	...	81	80	...	...	...	...
Dominican Republic	...	22	41	...	...	22	...	94	...	...	...	50	25	...
El Salvador	...	25	40	30	...	...	...	...	67	...	...	...	30	34
Grenada	...	...	24	...	...	...	...	...	72	...	...	...	...	...
Guatemala	...	31	34	35	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	45	43
Haiti	...	...	29	...	20	...	...	...	43	...	...	...	40	...
Honduras	32	...	38	35	...	...	100	...	74	...	...	...	37	35
Jamaica	32	...	34	32	...	...	...	...	88	88	...	...	31	28
Mexico	26	22	31	28	17	17	98	98	...	...	...	...	50	48
Netherlands Antilles	24	...	21	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	29	...
Nicaragua	33	31	33	36	38	39	99	97	87	84	58	56	29	28
Panama	22	23	23	...	20	...	100	...	74	...	56	...	43	...
Saint Kitts and Nevis	19	...	22	...	15	...	100	...	74	...	56	...	...	...
Saint Lucia	16	19	29	26	19	17	...	...	83	83	62	58	...	...
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	14	...	20	...	27	...	100	...	67	...	57	...	...	...
Trinidad and Tobago	14	...	26	25	20	21	96	...	70	74	54	57	33	29
United States	...	28	...	16	...	15	...	95	...	86	...	56	...	31
America, South														
Argentina	...	15	...	18	...	...	...	96	...	39	...	...	...	63
Bolivia	42	...	25	...	...	...	96	...	57	...	...	...	52	...
Brazil	21	19	23	24	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	37	37
Chile	24	30	29	30	...	...	...	97	75	72	...	...	35	36
Colombia	24	20	30	25	21	20	...	95	...	77	...	49	32	38
Ecuador	18	15	30	28	13	13	...	89	...	67	...	42	58	52
Guyana	23	16	30	29	44	29	99	99	76	85	55	62	27	28
Paraguay	...	23	25	21	15	12	...	...	...	...	67	65	48	63
Peru	25	22	29	27	20	19	95	98	...	58	47	39	60	56
Suriname	25	...	22	...	...	...	100	...	84	...	...	...	61	...
Uruguay	30	26	22	20	...	...	...	100	...	...	...	...	35	36
Venezuela	24	22	23	21	...	...	99	98	74	75	...	...	44	41
Asia														
Afghanistan	...	...	41	58	25	28	...	...	59	38	44	34	14	18
Armenia	9	7	...	19	...	6	...	...	...	97	...	85	...	57
Azerbaijan	7	7	...	20	...	9	100	100	...	80	...	66	...	63
Bahrain	26	27	19	18	16	15	100	100	54	67	62	69	36	38

Table 7 (continued)

Country or territory	Pupil-teacher ratio						Percentage of female teachers						Teachers (all levels) per 1,000 non-agricultural labour force	
	Pre-primary		Primary		Secondary general		Pre-primary		Primary		Secondary general			
	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996
Bangladesh	...	...	63	...	28	...	...	...	19	...	10	...	23	...
Bhutan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Brunei Darussalam	21	22	16	15	13	11	90	93	56	58	48	51	47	52
Cambodia	17	24	33	46	15	18	82	99	31	37	28	27	53	42
China	26	28	22	24	15	17	96	94	43	48	32	38	55	50
Hong Kong SAR	26	21	27	24	21	20	...	99	...	76	...	51	20	18
Cyprus	23	18	21	15	13	13	99	99	60	69	50	55	...	...
Dem. People's Rep. of Korea	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Georgia	7	8	17	18	7	8	100	100	92	95	61	72	72	55
India	...	...	47	47	29	33	...	...	28	30	35	38	34	31
Indonesia	17	17	23	22	13	14	...	...	51	52	35	39	65	56
Iran, Islamic Republic of	27	32	31	31	24	32	100	99	53	55	43	47	50	44
Iraq	18	18	25	20	23	20	100	100	70	71	61	56	53	47
Israel	30	...	15	...	...	...	...	...	82	...	...	...	68	...
Japan	18	16	21	19	...	14	89	89	58	62	...	37	25	26
Jordan	23	21	25	25	16	17	100	100	62	62	51	54	...	...
Kazakhstan	11	...	21	...	12	...	...	...	96	...	74	...	...	...
Kuwait	16	15	18	13	10	11	100	100	61	59	53	56	...	53
Kyrgyzstan	...	9	16	20	14	13	...	...	81	83	69	71	84	53
Lao People's Dem. Rep.	20	17	27	30	12	17	100	100	38	42	31	39	78	75
Lebanon	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Macau	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Malaysia	31	29	20	19	19	19	...	99	57	60	52	59	41	41
Maldives	...	32	...	25	...	...	...	90	...	67	...	...	...	50
Mongolia	26	12	28	31	19	15	...	100	90	90	63	66	42	34
Myanmar	...	...	48	46	13	16	...	...	62	67	71	74	38	36
Nepal	...	...	39	39	...	...	...	...	14	...	...	...	180	192
Oman	20	20	28	26	16	18	100	100	47	50	43	49	64	67
Pakistan	...	...	43	...	19	...	...	...	27	...	32	...	25	...
Palestinian Auton. Territories	...	29	...	41	...	7	...	100	...	49	...	43	...	...
Philippines	41	39	33	35	33	32	...	...	...	...	...	...	38	35
Qatar	18	22	11	9	9	10	99	100	72	79	58	59	32	37
Republic of Korea	22	28	36	31	26	25	94	100	50	63	37	42	25	23
Saudi Arabia	14	11	16	13	13	13	100	100	48	52	41	50	48	59
Singapore	23	...	26	25	21	20	100	...	71	77	60	63	18	18
Sri Lanka	...	...	29	28	19	22	...	...	...	96	...	62	54	44
Syrian Arab Republic	27	22	25	23	19	17	98	98	64	65	45	45	71	63
Tajikistan	10	11	21	24	...	16	...	...	49	54	...	35	100	112
Thailand	23	...	22	...	18	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	50	...
Turkey	17	18	30	28	27	24	100	100	43	44	39	43	38	35
Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
United Arab Emirates	21	18	18	16	...	13	99	100	64	70	...	56	27	33
Uzbekistan	15	11	24	21	10	9	...	...	79	82	48	49	97	93
Viet Nam	23	24	35	32	18	29	...	...	...	77	...	23	55	53
Yemen	15	...	...	30	...	21	...	...	...	17	...	...	...	50
Europe														
Albania	23	19	19	18	20	17	100	100	55	60	37	51	66	59
Austria	21	17	11	12	8	9	100	98	82	84	59	60	42	43
Belarus	7	6	17	20	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	47	46

Country or territory	Pupil-teacher ratio						Percentage of female teachers						Teachers (all levels) per 1,000 non-agricultural labour force	
	Pre-primary		Primary		Secondary general		Pre-primary		Primary		Secondary general			
	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996
Belgium	...	...	14	...	...	...	...	...	68	...	...	...	53	...
Bosnia and Herzegovina	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bulgaria	11	11	15	17	15	11	100	94	77	89	72	76	37	36
Croatia	13	14	19	19	...	14	...	100	75	89	...	67	28	29
Czech Republic	11	12	23	19	16	12	100	100	...	93	...	74	34	37
Denmark	13	10	11	10	...	9	...	92	58	58	...	54	34	41
Estonia	7	7	...	17	...	10	100	100	...	89	...	83	...	43
Finland	...	12	...	18	...	12	...	96	...	69	...	67	...	34
France	...	23	18	19	...	...	...	81	76	79	...	...	37	38
Germany	...	20	...	17	...	14	...	97	...	81	...	53	...	29
Greece	16	15	19	14	14	12	100	100	52	57	57	59	39	39
Hungary	12	11	12	11	12	10	100	100	84	92	66	75	45	50
Iceland	...	7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Ireland	28	24	27	22	...	...	77	78	77	78	...	...	42	44
Italy	14	14	12	11	9	11	99	99	91	94	70	74	45	38
Latvia	9	8	15	13	9	8	...	100	...	95	...	82	41	45
Lithuania	7	8	18	16	12	10	100	99	94	92	78	80	48	45
Luxembourg	17	17	13	15	10	8	...	...	51	...	...	40	29	33
Malta	16	14	21	19	13	11	100	100	79	95	41	50	43	48
Monaco	19	22	16	19	10	12	64	...	64	...	58	71	...	...
Netherlands	17	14	17	16	...	...	100	75	53	65	...	...	33	35
Norway	4	5	9	...	...	...	95	...	69	...	...	...	64	...
Poland	14	13	16	15	18	22	...	...	...	...	...	...	43	40
Portugal	19	...	14	...	10	...	98	...	81	...	67	...	41	...
Republic of Moldova	9	7	23	23	...	...	100	100	97	97	...	...	61	44
Romania	20	17	22	20	14	12	100	100	84	85	65	66	33	36
Russian Federation	9	...	22	...	13	...	...	...	99	...	77	...	39	...
San Marino	7	9	6	5	...	...	100	100	89	89	...	...	...	...
Slovakia	12	11	...	20	14	13	...	100	...	91	75	76	...	38
Slovenia	11	11	...	14	17	15	99	98	...	92	76	76	...	31
Spain	25	19	22	17	17	...	95	95	73	66	54	...	37	38
Sweden	...	20	10	12	...	11	...	98	77	73	...	64	42	41
Switzerland	...	14	...	12	...	...	...	99	...	69	...	...	...	34
The FYR of Macedonia	...	11	20	19	...	17	...	99	52	54	...	52	33	32
Ukraine	9	...	22	...	10	...	100	...	98	...	...	...	41	...
United Kingdom	26	29	20	19	13	13	95	100	78	81	55	55	26	30
Yugoslavia	9	11	22	...	15	...	94	95	74	...	57	...	34	...
Oceania														
Australia	...	...	17	17	12	12	...	...	72	76	50	51	30	40
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Fiji	20	...	34	...	18	...	...	...	57	...	...	...	59	...
Kiribati	...	...	29	24	16	17	...	...	57	62	40	40	...	...
New Zealand	...	15	18	18	16	16	100	96	79	82	53	60	39	39
Papua New Guinea	...	32	32	37	25	24	...	66	32	37	31	...	44	37
Samoa	...	...	24	24	18	19	...	...	64	72	45	47	...	...
Solomon Islands	...	...	19	24	17	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	89	79
Tonga	...	...	24	...	18	...	...	...	69	...	49	...	...	...
Tuvalu	...	...	21	...	15	...	...	...	72	...	48	...	...	...
Vanuatu	...	...	27	...	18	...	...	...	40	...	31	...	37	...

Table 8
Tertiary education: enrolment and breakdown by ISCED level

Country or territory	Number of students per 100,000 inhabitants		Gross enrolment ratio (%)						Percentage of students by ISCED level 1996			Percentage of female students in each ISCED level 1996		
			Total		Male		Female							
	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	Level 5	Level 6	Level 7	Level 5	Level 6	Level 7
Africa														
Algeria	1 147	1 238	11.6	12.0	15.2	14.0	7.8	9.8	♦15	80	6	37	47	27
Angola	71	...	0.8	...	1.3	...	0.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Benin	233	256	2.7	3.1	4.8	5.0	0.7	1.2	...	...	...	...	...	...
Botswana	306	587	3.2	5.8	3.4	6.1	2.9	5.5	♦30	65	6	54	44	50
Burkina Faso	60	83	0.7	0.9	1.0	1.4	0.3	0.4	4	96	./.	34	22	./.
Burundi	66	...	0.7	...	1.1	...	0.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cameroon	289	...	3.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cape Verde	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	.	.	.
Central African Republic	130	...	1.5	...	2.8	...	0.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Chad	...	51	...	0.6	...	1.1	...	0.2	...	...	...	...	...	...
Comoros	41	57	0.5	0.6	0.9	0.9	0.2	0.4	...	...	...	...	...	...
Congo	481	...	5.4	...	9.0	...	1.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Côte d'Ivoire	333	568	3.9	6.2	...	9.5	...	2.9	...	...	...	...	...	...
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	215	212	2.4	2.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Djibouti	10	26	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.2	100	–	–	47	.	.
Egypt	1 454	1 895	15.8	20.2	20.0	24.2	11.4	15.9	–	89	12	.	43	34
Equatorial Guinea	164	...	1.8	...	3.2	...	0.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Eritrea	...	90	...	1.0	...	1.7	...	0.3	14	86	–	8	14	.
Ethiopia	71	74	0.8	0.8	1.3	1.3	0.3	0.3	52	46	2	25	16	7
Gabon	457	649	5.7	8.0	8.0	...	3.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Gambia	...	148	...	1.7	...	2.2	...	1.2	...	...	...	...	...	...
Ghana	126	...	1.4	...	2.0	...	0.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guinea	93	112	1.1	1.3	2.0	2.0	0.1	0.3	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guinea-Bissau	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kenya	142	...	1.6	...	2.3	...	0.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Lesotho	118	234	1.3	2.4	1.1	2.2	1.5	2.6	55	45	1	53	56	50
Liberia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	1 397	...	16.6	...	17.6	...	15.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Madagascar	308	188	3.0	2.0	3.2	2.2	2.7	1.8	...	...	...	...	...	...
Malawi	52	58	0.6	0.6	0.9	0.9	0.3	0.4	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mali	69	134	0.6	1.4	1.0	2.3	0.2	0.6	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mauritania	264	365	2.8	3.8	4.8	6.3	0.8	1.3	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mauritius	330	632	3.5	6.1	4.4	6.0	2.6	6.2	...	...	...	...	...	...
Morocco	1 068	1 167	10.6	11.1	13.3	12.9	7.9	9.3	4	89	7	29	42	30
Mozambique	...	40	...	0.5	...	0.7	...	0.2	...	...	...	...	...	...
Namibia	300	735	3.3	8.1	2.4	6.3	4.3	9.9	...	...	...	...	...	...
Niger	58	...	0.7	...	1.2	...	0.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nigeria	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Rwanda	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sao Tome and Principe	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	.	.	.
Senegal	255	297	3.0	3.4	4.5	...	1.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Seychelles	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sierra Leone	119	...	1.4	...	2.4	...	0.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Somalia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Africa	1 291	1 841	13.2	17.2	14.7	18.0	11.8	16.5	47	46	8	48	52	43
Sudan	272	...	3.0	...	3.1	...	2.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Swaziland	425	630	4.1	6.0	4.8	5.9	3.5	6.1	60	36	4	54	48	51
Togo	255	315	2.9	3.6	5.0	5.9	0.8	1.2	44	56	–	16	11	.
Tunisia	840	1 341	8.5	13.7	10.3	15.0	6.8	12.5	9	85	6	34	47	34

Country or territory	Number of students per 100,000 inhabitants		Gross enrolment ratio (%)						Percentage of students by ISCED level 1996			Percentage of female students in each ISCED level 1996		
			Total		Male		Female							
	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	Level 5	Level 6	Level 7	Level 5	Level 6	Level 7
Uganda	107	179	1.2	1.9	1.7	2.6	0.7	1.3	54	43	3	31	37	26
United Rep. of Tanzania	26	57	0.3	0.6	0.5	1.0	0.1	0.2	32	64	5	19	15	16
Zambia	212	238	2.2	2.5	3.3	3.6	1.2	1.4	...	...	...	...	...	...
Zimbabwe	500	661	6.0	6.6	8.8	9.4	3.2	3.9	71	25	4	40	29	24
America, North														
Antigua and Barbuda	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	.	.	.
Bahamas	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Barbados	2 586	2 535	27.2	28.7	24.1	23.0	30.3	34.5	♦–	92	8	.	63	57
Belize	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	.	.	.
British Virgin Islands	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	.	.	.
Canada	6 897	5 953	94.7	87.3	85.3	80.7	104.3	95.3	44	49	7	49	58	48
Costa Rica	2 525	2 830	26.9	30.3	...	32.9	...	27.5	♦–	100	./.	.	...	...
Cuba	2 281	1 013	20.9	12.4	17.4	9.6	24.5	15.2	–	100	–	.	60	.
Dominica	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	–	–	...	.	.
Dominican Republic	...	2 223	...	22.9	...	19.0	...	26.8	10	90	1	...	...	...
El Salvador	1 530	1 935	15.9	17.8	18.6	17.7	13.4	17.9	...	...	...	...	...	...
Grenada	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guatemala	...	804	...	8.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Haiti	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Honduras	884	985	8.9	10.0	10.0	11.0	7.7	8.8	2	98	1	43	44	38
Jamaica	676	768	6.8	7.8	7.9	9.0	5.8	6.7	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mexico	1 575	1 739	14.5	16.0	16.6	16.7	12.5	15.2	./.	94	6	./.	48	41
Netherlands Antilles	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Nicaragua	803	1 209	8.2	11.8	8.0	11.3	8.4	12.4	9	90	2	58	51	46
Panama	2 220	3 025	21.5	31.5	...	...	...	...	♦9	90	1	33	62	61
Saint Kitts and Nevis	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Saint Lucia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Trinidad and Tobago	597	787	6.6	8.2	7.4	9.3	5.9	6.9	♦9	74	18	69	52	45
United States	5 396	5 341	75.2	80.9	67.0	70.6	83.8	91.8	39	47	14	58	54	54
America, South														
Argentina	3 058	3 117	38.1	36.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bolivia	2 066	...	21.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Brazil	1 081	1 424	11.2	14.5	10.9	...	11.6	...	./.	100	./.	./.	55	./.
Chile	1 965	2 546	21.3	31.5	...	33.5	...	29.4	20	77	3	45	46	46
Colombia	1 394	1 640	13.4	16.7	12.9	16.0	13.9	17.5	20	74	6	51	52	51
Ecuador	2 012	...	20.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guyana	...	956	...	11.4	...	11.3	...	11.5	♦41	56	3	56	60	62
Paraguay	779	948	8.3	10.3	8.8	10.0	7.7	10.7	23	77	0	67	51	42
Peru	3 161	3 268	30.4	25.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Suriname	1 082	...	9.3	...	8.7	...	9.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uruguay	2 306	2 458	29.9	29.5	...	...	...	...	15	85	./.	...	...	...
Venezuela	2 820	...	29.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Asia														
Afghanistan	165	...	1.8	...	2.4	...	1.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Armenia	1 886	996	23.8	12.2	...	10.5	...	14.0	...	...	...	...	...	...
Azerbaijan	2 289	1 513	24.2	17.4	28.5	17.1	19.6	17.8	27	72	1	64	44	...
Bahrain	1 402	...	17.7	...	15.0	...	20.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Table 8 (continued)

Country or territory	Number of students per 100,000 inhabitants		Gross enrolment ratio (%)						Percentage of students by ISCED level 1996			Percentage of female students in each ISCED level 1996		
			Total		Male		Female							
	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	Level 5	Level 6	Level 7	Level 5	Level 6	Level 7
Bangladesh	397	...	4.2	...	7.0	...	1.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bhutan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Brunei Darussalam	...	516	...	6.6	...	5.3	...	8.0	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cambodia	77	85	0.7	1.2	...	1.9	...	0.5	–	100	–	.	16	.
China	331	473	3.0	5.6	3.9	7.3	2.0	3.9	♦44	52	4	...	...	...
Hong Kong SAR	1 474	...	19.4	...	22.5	...	16.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cyprus	962	1 193	15.0	23.0	15.0	20.0	15.0	25.0	77	21	3	50	78	42
Dem. People's Rep. of Korea	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Georgia	2 718	3 149	36.7	42.0	33.8	39.7	39.8	44.4	19	80	1	53	53	55
India	582	638	6.1	6.9	7.7	8.4	4.2	5.3	...	...	...	...	...	...
Indonesia	930	1 157	9.2	11.3	...	14.6	...	8.0	29	71	./.	42	32	./.
Iran, Islamic Republic of	936	1 763	10.0	17.6	13.7	21.9	6.2	13.1	7	89	4	28	38	24
Iraq	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Israel	2 894	3 571	33.5	40.9	33.3	...	33.7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Japan	2 251	3 131	29.6	40.5	35.7	44.4	23.3	36.5	32	64	4	68	33	20
Jordan	...	...	21.7	...	20.0	...	23.5	...	21	74	5	65	43	27
Kazakhstan	3 210	2 859	40.1	33.3	...	29.2	...	37.5	44	55	0	58	53	...
Kuwait	1 011	1 750	12.5	19.3	9.1	14.6	15.8	24.0	28	71	2	47	68	49
Kyrgyzstan	1 310	1 088	14.3	11.9	...	11.3	...	12.5	...	...	...	...	...	...
Lao People's Dem. Rep.	...	260	...	2.8	...	3.9	...	1.7	59	41	...	28	34	–
Lebanon	3 276	2 712	28.9	27.0	29.6	27.2	28.2	26.8	1	99	./.	61	49	./.
Macau	1 996	1 701	25.4	27.8	36.7	27.8	17.6	27.8	19	59	22	51	52	40
Malaysia	680	1 048	7.3	11.7	7.8	...	6.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Maldives	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Mongolia	1 418	1 767	14.0	17.0	9.7	10.4	18.3	23.8	12	85	3	79	68	62
Myanmar	457	590	4.1	5.4	...	4.2	...	6.7	./.	96	4	./.	61	80
Nepal	499	485	5.2	4.8	8.0	...	2.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Oman	348	695	4.1	8.0	4.4	8.8	3.8	7.1	...	...	...	...	...	...
Pakistan	291	...	2.9	...	3.6	...	2.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Palestinian Auton. Territories	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	9	89	3	56	44	26
Philippines	2 817	2 958	28.2	29.0	23.8	25.2	32.6	32.7	♦./.	95	5	./.	56	70
Qatar	1 336	1 518	27.0	26.6	14.6	13.6	42.7	40.9	5	93	2	72	73	83
Republic of Korea	3 946	6 106	38.6	67.7	51.3	82.0	25.1	52.4	26	69	5	39	37	29
Saudi Arabia	960	1 455	11.6	16.3	12.2	17.4	10.9	15.3	15	82	3	28	52	36
Singapore	1 846	2 730	18.6	38.5	22.1	...	15.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sri Lanka	440	474	4.6	5.1	5.6	5.9	3.7	...	28	60	13	38	46	47
Syrian Arab Republic	1 789	1 559	18.2	15.7	21.8	18.2	14.5	13.1	15	83	2	37	39	34
Tajikistan	2 068	1 895	22.1	20.4	27.4	27.4	16.9	13.3	32	68	./.	43	28	./.
Thailand	...	2 252	...	22.1	...	...	...	...	23	73	4	...	...	...
Turkey	1 337	2 301	13.1	21.0	17.2	26.5	9.0	15.2	25	69	6	45	36	36
Turkmenistan	2 072	...	21.7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
United Arab Emirates	531	801	9.2	11.9	4.8	4.9	15.0	20.7	♦–	100	1	.	72	51
Uzbekistan	2 938	...	30.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Viet Nam	194	678	1.9	6.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Yemen	436	419	4.3	4.2	7.0	7.0	1.5	1.1	...	...	...	...	...	...
Europe														
Albania	671	1 087	6.9	12.0	6.5	10.1	7.4	14.0	...	...	...	...	...	...
Austria	2 670	2 988	35.2	48.3	37.4	47.8	32.8	48.8	6	86	8	69	46	38
Belarus	3 268	3 168	47.6	43.8	45.2	38.6	50.0	49.1	♦...	98	2	...	53	...

Country or territory	Number of students per 100,000 inhabitants		Gross enrolment ratio (%)						Percentage of students by ISCED level 1996			Percentage of female students in each ISCED level 1996		
			Total		Male		Female							
	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	Level 5	Level 6	Level 7	Level 5	Level 6	Level 7
Belgium	2 776	3 551	40.2	56.3	40.7	55.4	39.6	57.3	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bosnia and Herzegovina	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bulgaria	2 162	3 110	31.1	41.2	29.6	31.2	32.6	51.6	10	90	1	75	60	41
Croatia	1 601	1 911	23.9	27.9	...	26.8	...	29.1	#122	78	–	37	55	.
Czech Republic	1 147	2 009	16.0	23.5	17.6	23.8	14.3	23.3	13	82	5	68	46	30
Denmark	2 782	3 349	36.5	48.2	34.1	43.4	39.0	53.1	11	90	./.	48	55	./.
Estonia	1 748	2 965	26.0	41.8	25.1	38.1	27.0	45.7	31	61	8	54	53	53
Finland	3 324	4 418	48.9	74.1	45.9	68.3	52.1	80.0	17	75	8	63	51	46
France	2 995	3 541	39.6	51.0	36.6	45.0	42.8	57.4	...	...	...	...	...	...
Germany	2 581	2 603	35.2	47.2	40.3	49.9	29.9	44.4	#14	86	–	65	43	.
Greece	1 910	3 138	36.1	46.8	36.3	47.4	35.8	46.3	31	69	./.	...	...	.
Hungary	988	1 903	14.0	23.6	13.6	21.5	14.4	25.7	...	...	...	...	...	...
Iceland	2 051	2 918	24.9	37.5	20.9	30.4	29.0	44.8	16	81	3	59	58	59
Ireland	2 578	3 702	29.3	41.0	30.8	38.8	27.7	43.3	...	...	...	...	...	...
Italy	2 547	3 299	32.1	46.9	33.1	42.3	31.1	51.6	3	94	3	66	54	53
Latvia	1 712	2 248	25.0	33.3	21.9	27.0	28.3	39.6	–	87	14	.	60	58
Lithuania	2 475	2 251	33.8	31.4	29.8	25.3	38.1	37.8	30	59	11	66	57	53
Luxembourg	...	640	...	9.7	...	12.4	...	7.0	...	...	...	...	...	...
Malta	882	2 183	13.0	29.3	14.2	27.2	11.7	31.6	24	66	10	47	50	42
Monaco	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	.	.	.
Netherlands	3 203	3 018	39.8	47.3	43.5	48.2	36.1	46.3	./.	57	43	./.	49	44
Norway	3 360	4 239	42.3	62.0	38.8	53.2	46.0	71.2	29	71	./.	55	57	./.
Poland	1 429	1 865	21.7	24.7	18.7	21.0	25.0	28.5	...	...	...	...	...	...
Portugal	1 882	3 242	23.2	38.8	20.3	33.4	26.1	44.4	22	74	4	54	58	53
Republic of Moldova	2 401	2 143	35.5	26.5	...	23.8	...	29.2	36	64	1	...	...	...
Romania	831	1 819	9.7	22.5	10.0	20.8	9.3	24.3	14	86	./.	71	50	./.
Russian Federation	3 439	3 006	52.1	42.8	46.1	37.3	58.4	48.5	42	57	1	60	52	...
San Marino	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	.	.	.
Slovakia	...	1 897	...	22.1	...	21.6	...	22.6	4	92	4	78	50	40
Slovenia	1 750	2 657	24.5	36.1	21.4	31.1	27.7	41.3	#13	87	...	49	58	.
Spain	3 109	4 254	36.7	51.4	35.1	47.4	38.3	55.6	2	94	4	48	53	48
Sweden	2 250	3 116	32.0	50.3	28.9	43.5	35.3	57.4	./.	94	6	./.	57	38
Switzerland	2 012	2 072	25.7	32.6	32.5	39.6	18.4	25.2	42	48	9	32	43	33
The FYR of Macedonia	1 389	1 557	16.8	19.5	15.9	17.4	17.7	21.7	#10	90	–	46	55	.
Ukraine	3 183	2 996	46.6	41.7	45.9	...	47.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
United Kingdom	2 186	3 237	30.2	52.3	30.9	48.6	29.4	56.3	25	56	19	56	52	47
Yugoslavia	1 302	1 625	18.1	21.9	16.8	19.6	19.4	24.4	#18	82	–	49	55	.
Oceania														
Australia	2 872	5 682	35.5	79.8	32.8	76.9	38.2	82.9	39	48	13	45	56	52
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Fiji	757	...	8.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kiribati	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
New Zealand	3 318	4 511	39.7	62.6	37.8	52.8	41.7	72.6	27	60	13	60	57	51
Papua New Guinea	...	318	...	3.2	...	4.2	...	2.1	...	...	...	...	...	...
Samoa	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Solomon Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tonga	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tuvalu	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	.	.	.

Table 9
Tertiary education: students and graduates by broad field of study, 1996

Country or territory	Percentage of students (and graduates) by field of study					Percentage of female students in each field of study						Gender segregation index (%)
	Education	Humanities	Law and social sciences	Natural sciences, engin. & agric.	Medical sciences	All fields	Education	Humanities	Law and social sciences	Natural sciences, engin. & agric.	Medical sciences	
Africa												
Algeria	♦ 1 (1)	13 (16)	25 (25)	50 (52)	10 (6)	44	26	65	47	36	50	8
Angola	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Benin	29 (...)	49 (...)	./. (...)	18 (...)	4 (...)	19	21	20	./.	13	24	2
Botswana	♦ 11 (7)	13 (11)	44 (46)	27 (35)	1 (1)	47	49	56	60	24	91	15
Burkina Faso	7 (...)	31 (...)	35 (...)	19 (...)	9 (...)	22	14	32	22	8	24	7
Burundi	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cameroon	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cape Verde	– (–)	– (–)	– (–)	– (–)	– (–)	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Central African Republic	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Chad	♦ 4 (...)	49 (...)	30 (...)	14 (...)	3 (...)	12	5	15	13	6	–	3
Comoros	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Congo	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Côte d'Ivoire	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Djibouti	28 (...)	– (...)	72 (...)	– (...)	– (...)	47	61	.	42	.	.	8
Egypt	16 (24)	19 (16)	41 (33)	15 (15)	7 (10)	42	54	53	36	29	43	9
Equatorial Guinea	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Eritrea	... (16)	... (11)	... (32)	... (42)	... (–)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Ethiopia	25 (28)	3 (2)	32 (29)	36 (32)	6 (10)	20	23	35	27	12	17	6
Gabon	♦ 8 (...)	26 (...)	48 (...)	– (...)	19 (...)	38	22	33	36	.	59	8
Gambia	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Ghana	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guinea	4 (...)	39 (...)	./. (...)	42 (...)	14 (...)	11	9	14	./.	7	17	4
Guinea–Bissau	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kenya	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Lesotho	34 (37)	7 (3)	46 (49)	13 (12)	– (–)	54	71	65	48	31	.	13
Liberia	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Madagascar	3 (3)	11 (18)	54 (51)	20 (23)	12 (5)	45	36	66	46	30	47	6
Malawi	... (73)	... (0)	... (11)	... (12)	... (4)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mali	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mauritania	... (12)	... (23)	... (50)	... (16)	... (–)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mauritius	43 (...)	36 (...)	./. (...)	17 (...)	– (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Morocco	0 (0)	67 (62)	./. (./.)	29 (33)	3 (3)	41	31	46	./.	28	49	7
Mozambique	18 (37)	8 (8)	21 (10)	46 (36)	6 (9)	25	30	27	19	20	56	7
Namibia	26 (...)	12 (...)	14 (...)	4 (...)	19 (...)	61	58	52	43	35	83	11
Niger	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nigeria	♦ 15 (...)	11 (...)	22 (...)	41 (...)	11 (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Rwanda	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sao Tome and Principe	– (–)	– (–)	– (–)	– (–)	– (–)	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Senegal	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Seychelles	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sierra Leone	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Somalia	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Africa	21 (43)	12 (7)	44 (31)	18 (14)	4 (4)	49	64	61	46	29	61	10
Sudan	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Swaziland	21 (19)	9 (6)	35 (39)	22 (35)	7 (...)	52	55	57	60	12	85	17
Togo	1 (–)	41 (48)	39 (37)	11 (8)	7 (7)	17	28	20	17	7	21	3
Tunisia	2 (10)	24 (18)	32 (35)	27 (23)	8 (10)	45	42	61	44	32	55	10

Country or territory	Percentage of students (and graduates) by field of study					Percentage of female students in each field of study						Gender segregation index (%)
	Education	Humanities	Law and social sciences	Natural sciences, engin. & agric.	Medical sciences	All fields	Education	Humanities	Law and social sciences	Natural sciences, engin. & agric.	Medical sciences	
Uganda	35 (53)	6 (5)	36 (26)	15 (14)	2 (2)	33	29	38	40	17	31	8
United Rep. of Tanzania	14 (4)	42 (–)	./. (56)	39 (26)	3 (15)	16	18	20	./.	9	28	6
Zambia	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Zimbabwe	47 (...)	4 (...)	22 (...)	23 (...)	2 (...)	37	46	28	42	14	39	11
America, North												
Antigua and Barbuda	– (–)	– (–)	– (–)	– (–)	– (–)	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Bahamas	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Barbados	♦ 1 (...)	23 (...)	53 (...)	21 (...)	2 (...)	62	58	76	64	46	45	8
Belize	– (–)	– (–)	– (–)	– (–)	– (–)	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
British Virgin Islands	– (–)	– (–)	– (–)	– (–)	– (–)	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Canada	... (7)	... (12)	... (29)	... (28)	... (8)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Costa Rica	♦ 16 (...)	6 (...)	32 (...)	18 (...)	6 (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cuba	34 (32)	2 (1)	9 (7)	21 (26)	26 (24)	60	76	63	62	30	72	18
Dominica	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Dominican Republic	13 (17)	4 (5)	48 (50)	25 (17)	10 (12)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
El Salvador	0 (0)	27 (40)	41 (25)	./. (./.)	13 (12)	50	61	37	49	./.	65	8
Grenada	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guatemala	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Haiti	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Honduras	13 (...)	2 (...)	41 (...)	26 (...)	12 (...)	44	68	47	43	26	58	10
Jamaica	♦ 7 (...)	19 (...)	45 (...)	20 (...)	10 (...)	67	83	80	68	50	55	9
Mexico	14 (3)	2 (3)	41 (51)	31 (33)	8 (10)	48	64	58	54	28	58	12
Netherlands Antilles	– (–)	– (–)	– (–)	– (–)	– (–)	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Nicaragua	12 (9)	2 (2)	43 (47)	31 (26)	11 (17)	51	68	56	55	35	64	10
Panama	♦ 12 (22)	11 (6)	46 (35)	27 (27)	4 (10)	60	77	65	66	36	75	13
Saint Kitts and Nevis	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Saint Lucia	... (53)	... (37)	... (–)	... (5)	... (5)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Trinidad and Tobago	♦ 6 (...)	15 (...)	25 (...)	41 (...)	13 (...)	54	73	76	66	38	47	15
United States	... (9)	... (16)	... (36)	... (19)	... (13)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
America, South												
Argentina	♦ 2 (...)	11 (...)	42 (...)	30 (...)	14 (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bolivia	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Brazil	12 (...)	9 (...)	44 (...)	23 (...)	9 (...)	55	81	73	51	34	66	12
Chile	8 (12)	44 (47)	./. (./.)	43 (34)	6 (7)	46	78	54	./.	29	67	14
Colombia	14 (20)	3 (3)	43 (42)	31 (26)	9 (9)	52	67	53	56	34	70	11
Ecuador	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guyana	♦ 9 (28)	5 (2)	50 (27)	25 (33)	9 (5)	58	78	68	68	27	61	15
Paraguay	24 (...)	4 (...)	40 (...)	22 (...)	5 (...)	55	68	53	51	47	62	7
Peru	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Suriname	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (0)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uruguay	17 (36)	2 (0)	42 (30)	24 (17)	14 (12)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Venezuela	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Asia												
Afghanistan	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Armenia	25 (18)	12 (12)	17 (16)	33 (33)	11 (20)	55	80	77	41	37	66	20
Azerbaijan	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bahrain	... (23)	... (8)	... (27)	... (25)	... (17)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Table 9 (continued)

Country or territory	Percentage of students (and graduates) by field of study										Percentage of female students in each field of study						Gender segregation index (%)
	Education		Humanities		Law and social sciences		Natural sciences, engin. & agric.		Medical sciences		All fields	Education	Humanities	Law and social sciences	Natural sciences, engin. & agric.	Medical sciences	
Bangladesh	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bhutan	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(0)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Brunei Darussalam	♦ 62	(80)	1	(3)	19	(13)	6	(4)	–	(–)	59	74	56	53	36	.	18
Cambodia	26	(...)	2	(...)	29	(...)	23	(...)	20	(...)	16	21	24	12	11	19	4
China	♦ 16	(28)	6	(8)	9	(22)	53	(35)	9	(6)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Hong Kong SAR	...	(9)	...	(9)	...	(34)	...	(42)	...	(4)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cyprus	13	(16)	6	(6)	43	(48)	17	(17)	9	(4)	56	92	76	57	27	74	17
Dem. People's Rep. of Korea	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Georgia	11	(6)	14	(13)	16	(18)	48	(51)	10	(12)	53	74	77	47	40	66	14
India	4	(...)	70	(...)	./.	(...)	25	(...)	2	(...)	36	46	38	./.	30	35	6
Indonesia	17	(14)	6	(7)	46	(50)	28	(27)	2	(2)	35	44	42	37	24	49	6
Iran, Islamic Republic of	14	(14)	13	(9)	21	(14)	36	(34)	12	(29)	37	49	58	31	21	58	14
Iraq	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Israel	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Japan	8	(8)	56	(55)	./.	(./.)	23	(23)	8	(8)	44	71	49	./.	13	66	18
Jordan	12	(14)	18	(20)	32	(28)	27	(24)	11	(11)	47	65	64	38	36	54	12
Kazakhstan	16	(19)	12	(9)	15	(15)	42	(40)	10	(14)	55	68	75	44	39	77	16
Kuwait	31	(...)	8	(...)	34	(...)	23	(...)	4	(...)	62	74	70	60	43	72	10
Kyrgyzstan	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Lao People's Dem. Rep.	...	(28)	...	(7)	...	(13)	...	(38)	...	(11)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Lebanon	1	(1)	26	(23)	52	(52)	17	(19)	3	(6)	49	38	54	51	37	53	4
Macau	9	(12)	10	(16)	64	(45)	10	(8)	–	(–)	49	72	62	50	15	.	8
Malaysia	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Maldives	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mongolia	22	(31)	16	(15)	26	(19)	25	(18)	10	(17)	69	78	75	66	54	87	9
Myanmar	0	(–)	42	(61)	22	(9)	37	(30)	–	(–)	62	69	64	59	61	.	2
Nepal	10	(...)	74	(...)	./.	(...)	14	(...)	1	(...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Oman	39	(./.)	19	(51)	6	(16)	31	(26)	5	(6)	45	42	66	43	33	58	9
Pakistan	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Palestinian Auton. Territories	24	(26)	11	(30)	30	(16)	10	(20)	4	(7)	44	57	57	31	32	54	10
Philippines	...	(15)	...	(6)	...	(31)	...	(28)	...	(19)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Qatar	...	(41)	...	(35)	...	(./.)	...	(19)	...	(./.)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Republic of Korea	6	(8)	17	(18)	25	(28)	34	(38)	5	(6)	37	73	58	41	17	56	15
Saudi Arabia	36	(39)	19	(19)	23	(17)	18	(21)	3	(3)	48	62	37	43	44	37	10
Singapore	...	(7)	...	(33)	...	(./.)	...	(58)	...	(3)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sri Lanka	10	(6)	18	(29)	33	(28)	29	(29)	10	(7)	44	60	57	43	31	45	8
Syrian Arab Republic	2	(4)	55	(39)	./.	(./.)	31	(41)	12	(16)	39	53	43	./.	31	35	10
Tajikistan	38	(48)	2	(19)	5	(1)	23	(18)	14	(10)	33	39	21	21	13	67	14
Thailand	9	(7)	4	(7)	60	(56)	21	(18)	6	(11)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Turkey	10	(13)	5	(6)	53	(32)	22	(30)	10	(18)	38	42	47	37	29	64	6
Turkmenistan	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
United Arab Emirates	♦ 31	(47)	27	(15)	14	(13)	27	(23)	2	(2)	72	95	84	56	42	67	21
Uzbekistan	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Viet Nam	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	(...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Yemen	26	(...)	20	(...)	44	(...)	6	(...)	4	(...)	13	23	20	4	17	5	9
Europe																	
Albania	12	(6)	21	(25)	36	(25)	22	(33)	7	(11)	57	82	70	47	45	63	13
Austria	7	(17)	15	(13)	41	(32)	28	(28)	8	(11)	47	75	63	49	26	60	13
Belarus	♦ 17	(14)	22	(15)	22	(17)	33	(44)	4	(9)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Country or territory	Percentage of students (and graduates) by field of study					Percentage of female students in each field of study						Gender segregation index (%)
	Education	Humanities	Law and social sciences	Natural sciences, engin. & agric.	Medical sciences	All fields	Education	Humanities	Law and social sciences	Natural sciences, engin. & agric.	Medical sciences	
Belgium	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bosnia and Herzegovina	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bulgaria	14 (20)	8 (6)	39 (29)	25 (26)	7 (13)	61	80	72	66	46	70	12
Croatia	# 10 (9)	8 (6)	32 (31)	38 (37)	7 (13)	51	81	70	63	27	69	20
Czech Republic	17 (17)	8 (8)	26 (33)	34 (28)	10 (14)	48	70	58	54	25	68	16
Denmark	18 (13)	18 (9)	24 (29)	21 (28)	11 (16)	54	75	68	43	29	81	18
Estonia	8 (10)	12 (10)	36 (31)	32 (27)	7 (11)	53	85	70	60	26	84	18
Finland	9 (10)	14 (8)	24 (20)	37 (34)	16 (28)	53	76	70	59	24	83	22
France	4 (...)	15 (...)	40 (...)	25 (...)	11 (...)	55	73	75	60	31	63	14
Germany	# 6 (4)	16 (9)	31 (27)	31 (35)	11 (16)	46	71	61	44	23	65	15
Greece	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Hungary	21 (24)	12 (8)	26 (27)	32 (26)	7 (13)	52	80	65	51	28	60	16
Iceland	18 (26)	19 (17)	27 (23)	20 (23)	16 (11)	59	82	65	52	27	74	16
Ireland	3 (6)	18 (17)	27 (36)	30 (36)	5 (4)	52	69	67	57	34	64	11
Italy	3 (2)	15 (14)	42 (32)	28 (23)	9 (12)	54	89	78	55	35	57	11
Latvia	23 (28)	9 (11)	30 (24)	29 (28)	4 (6)	60	82	76	63	36	71	16
Lithuania	17 (17)	9 (9)	25 (25)	38 (34)	9 (13)	59	82	75	65	38	77	16
Luxembourg	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Malta	19 (23)	24 (17)	24 (37)	13 (12)	18 (11)	48	64	52	44	21	56	10
Monaco	– (–)	– (–)	– (–)	– (–)	– (–)	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Netherlands	12 (14)	8 (8)	48 (44)	20 (22)	10 (12)	48	67	60	50	19	70	12
Norway	17 (13)	12 (21)	30 (37)	18 (11)	11 (9)	56	75	63	53	29	79	13
Poland	... (17)	... (8)	... (26)	... (22)	... (25)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Portugal	12 (18)	8 (10)	41 (40)	31 (20)	6 (9)	57	79	70	60	37	72	11
Republic of Moldova	24 (10)	4 (39)	12 (./.)	44 (30)	11 (19)	53	81	48	50	37	77	18
Romania	1 (2)	9 (9)	40 (34)	32 (40)	14 (12)	53	88	65	58	34	74	13
Russian Federation	10 (12)	7 (6)	22 (22)	49 (45)	9 (13)	55	88	75	72	34	79	21
San Marino	– (–)	– (–)	– (–)	– (–)	– (–)	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Slovakia	17 (21)	8 (8)	23 (21)	43 (37)	9 (13)	50	74	57	55	33	69	15
Slovenia	11 (12)	8 (4)	43 (44)	29 (29)	6 (8)	56	80	71	63	30	76	16
Spain	8 (12)	10 (10)	42 (42)	31 (23)	7 (11)	53	75	64	57	33	70	12
Sweden	14 (22)	16 (6)	26 (23)	31 (28)	13 (21)	56	75	65	58	31	77	15
Switzerland	5 (...)	14 (...)	41 (...)	31 (...)	8 (...)	38	70	57	40	16	55	14
The FYR of Macedonia	# 7 (10)	11 (11)	32 (29)	38 (36)	10 (12)	54	86	71	60	36	70	15
Ukraine	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
United Kingdom	9 (12)	15 (17)	31 (33)	29 (28)	16 (10)	51	71	61	50	25	77	15
Yugoslavia	# 6 (10)	13 (12)	29 (23)	41 (43)	10 (12)	54	71	76	60	37	68	15
Oceania												
Australia	8 (15)	13 (14)	33 (32)	32 (23)	12 (14)	51	71	67	52	28	74	14
Cook Islands	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Fiji	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kiribati	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
New Zealand	13 (14)	21 (19)	33 (33)	21 (20)	8 (10)	57	82	62	56	33	78	11
Papua New Guinea	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Samoa	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Solomon Islands	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tonga	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tuvalu	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	... (...)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	– (–)	– (–)	– (–)	– (–)	– (–)	.	.	.	.	.	.	.

Table 10
Private enrolment and public expenditure on education

Country or territory	Private enrolment as percentage of total enrolment						Public expenditure on education						
	Pre-primary		Primary		Secondary general		As percentage of GNP		As percentage of government expenditure		Average annual growth rate (%)	Current expenditure as percentage of total	
	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990–96	1990	1996
Africa													
Algeria	–	–	–	–	–	–	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Angola	–	–	–	–	–	–	♦4.9	...	♦10.7	...	...	89.9	...
Benin	8	9	3	6	...	8	...	3.2	...	15.2	...	...	85.6
Botswana	...	...	5	4	75	78	6.9	10.3	17.0	21.8	10.1	71.3	74.8
Burkina Faso	29	35	9	8	39	...	2.7	3.6	...	11.1	5.1	...	82.7
Burundi	...	...	1	1	9	11	3.4	4.0	16.7	18.3	1.3	97.0	97.2
Cameroon	36	48	25	25	39	36	3.4	...	19.6	...	...	90.7	...
Cape Verde	...	...	–	–	–	–	4.0	...	19.9	...	...	98.6	...
Central African Republic	...	...	–	...	4	...	♦2.2	...	...	...	...	96.9	...
Chad	...	...	6	8	5	12	1.7	1.7	...	...	2.2	99.1	99.0
Comoros	...	...	–	9	–	37	♦3.9	♦4.2	♦24.3	♦21.1	1.0	...	...
Congo	...	...	–	2	–	1	6.0	6.1	14.4	14.7	–1.5	97.4	97.6
Côte d'Ivoire	67	49	10	11	24	35	7.7	5.0	35.6	24.0	–2.0	99.2	91.9
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	...	...	...	13	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Djibouti	100	100	9	8	17	14	3.6	...	11.1	...	...	...	...
Egypt	87	64	6	7	3	4	3.8	4.8	...	14.9	7.7	86.4	92.0
Equatorial Guinea	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Eritrea	98	94	31	12	...	10	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Ethiopia	100	100	13	7	7	7	3.4	4.0	9.4	13.7	8.5	82.4	67.9
Gabon	52	...	31	29	19	42	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Gambia	...	...	...	...	...	...	4.1	4.9	14.6	21.2	9.6	77.1	71.6
Ghana	...	...	7	...	...	...	3.3	4.2	24.3	19.9	8.1	86.7	97.2
Guinea	95	92	2	9	1	6	2.1	1.9	25.7	25.6	4.0	...	...
Guinea-Bissau	–	–	–	–	–	–	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kenya	...	...	...	...	11	...	7.1	6.5	17.0	16.7	1.7	90.4	93.4
Lesotho	...	...	100	100	...	...	3.7	8.4	12.2	...	17.2	82.1	75.5
Liberia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	–	–	–	–	–	–	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Madagascar	...	...	18	21	35	43	2.2	1.9	...	...	–2.1	90.8	...
Malawi	...	...	7	–	...	...	3.4	5.4	11.1	...	–3.9	75.3	82.3
Mali	...	...	16	19	...	...	...	2.2	...	...	...	...	97.7
Mauritania	...	...	1	0	3	4	♦4.9	♦5.1	♦13.9	♦16.2	4.1	85.6	73.7
Mauritius	...	82	24	24	81	79	3.6	4.6	11.8	17.4	9.4	93.0	78.5
Morocco	100	100	4	4	3	3	♦5.5	♦5.3	♦26.1	♦24.9	2.3	90.8	92.4
Mozambique	–	...	–	–	–	–	4.1	...	12.0	...	...	63.7	...
Namibia	...	...	...	4	...	4	7.5	9.3	23.1	25.6	5.9	97.9	93.0
Niger	22	23	3	4	7	13	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nigeria	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Rwanda	...	...	1	...	34	...	3.8	...	25.4	...	...	94.1	...
Sao Tome and Principe	...	...	–	...	–	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Senegal	58	65	9	10	22	23	4.1	3.7	26.9	...	0.5	99.4	98.8
Seychelles	1	3	1	3	–	3	8.1	7.9	14.8	24.1	3.1	100.0	79.9
Sierra Leone	100	100	...	...	...	...	0.9	...	...	...	...	95.5	...
Somalia	–	...	–	...	–	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Africa	3	8	1	1	1	2	6.5	8.0	...	23.9	4.1	89.0	94.9
Sudan	...	...	1	1	22	4	...	1.4	...	...	...	...	99.4
Swaziland	...	...	81	...	43	...	5.5	5.7	19.5	18.1	1.9	81.9	89.0
Togo	51	52	25	29	15	11	5.6	4.5	26.4	24.7	–4.3	93.0	92.9
Tunisia	63	...	1	1	13	9	6.2	6.7	13.5	17.4	5.4	87.8	85.8

Country or territory	Private enrolment as percentage of total enrolment						Public expenditure on education						
	Pre-primary		Primary		Secondary general		As percentage of GNP		As percentage of government expenditure		Average annual growth rate (%)	Current expenditure as percentage of total	
	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990–96	1990	1996
Uganda	...	...	...	9	...	...	♦1.5	2.6	♦11.5	21.4	17.2	91.8	95.5
United Rep. of Tanzania	...	...	0	0	55	51	3.4	...	11.4	...	...	87.9	...
Zambia	...	...	...	...	...	...	2.6	2.2	8.7	7.1	–3.4	87.0	92.6
Zimbabwe	...	...	88	88	71	71	8.0	...	...	...	...	...	...
America, North													
Antigua and Barbuda	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bahamas	...	57	...	25	...	23	4.3	...	17.8	13.2	...	89.2	92.6
Barbados	...	...	10	...	...	...	7.9	7.2	22.2	19.0	–1.8	81.0	...
Belize	...	85	...	...	47	...	4.8	5.0	18.5	19.5	5.1	94.4	96.0
British Virgin Islands	100	100	15	14	1	...	...	...	12.2	...	...	89.2	...
Canada	4	5	4	4	6	6	6.8	6.9	14.2	12.9	1.4	92.6	92.4
Costa Rica	11	10	5	5	10	11	4.6	5.4	20.8	22.8	7.1	96.9	...
Cuba	–	–	–	–	–	–	...	6.7	12.3	12.6	...	93.1	99.1
Dominica	100	...	4	...	4	...	5.5	...	10.6	...	...	91.0	...
Dominican Republic	...	41	...	16	...	33	1.4	2.0	8.9	13.4	10.9	...	87.9
El Salvador	37	25	15	13	61	...	2.0	2.3	16.6	14.1	9.7	...	...
Grenada	...	...	9	...	...	...	5.4	4.7	13.2	10.6	–0.9	...	...
Guatemala	31	32	16	17	...	...	♦1.4	♦1.7	♦11.8	♦15.8	8.5	...	94.7
Haiti	86	...	61	...	82	...	1.5	...	20.0	...	...	99.9	...
Honduras	18	21	5	...	...	...	4.1	3.6	...	16.5	0.9	97.7	98.1
Jamaica	84	...	5	...	...	...	5.4	7.5	12.8	12.9	8.3	86.7	91.4
Mexico	9	8	6	6	12	11	3.7	4.9	12.8	23.0	7.8	...	94.1
Netherlands Antilles	74	...	76	...	81	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nicaragua	24	22	13	16	19	32	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Panama	27	26	8	10	13	...	4.9	5.3	20.9	20.9	6.1	97.3	93.3
Saint Kitts and Nevis	71	...	16	...	3	...	3.2	3.8	...	8.8	5.4	95.2	92.5
Saint Lucia	100	100	2	2	9	...	...	9.8	...	22.2	...	...	65.9
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	100	...	3	...	35	...	6.3	...	13.8	...	...	75.3	...
Trinidad and Tobago	61	...	...	...	...	...	4.0	4.4	11.6	...	2.1	92.2	90.7
United States	38	35	10	12	10	10	5.2	5.4	12.3	14.4	2.2	90.5	...
America, South													
Argentina	...	29	...	20	...	...	3.4	3.5	...	12.6	6.1	...	91.8
Bolivia	10	...	10	...	...	...	...	4.9	...	11.1	...	...	99.0
Brazil	26	22	14	11	...	...	4.5	5.1	...	...	6.8	...	93.1
Chile	48	51	39	42	42	45	2.7	3.4	10.0	14.8	12.4	96.8	93.9
Colombia	52	51	15	19	39	...	♦2.5	♦4.1	♦16.0	♦19.0	13.5	89.8	72.3
Ecuador	...	38	...	18	...	...	3.1	3.5	17.2	13.0	7.5	92.4	91.3
Guyana	–	–	–	–	–	–	4.8	5.0	...	10.0	14.6	82.7	65.9
Paraguay	55	28	15	14	22	27	♦1.1	♦3.9	♦9.1	♦18.6	23.0	97.4	87.9
Peru	18	22	13	12	15	16	2.3	2.9	...	19.2	13.6	...	88.4
Suriname	...	...	...	...	...	...	8.3	...	...	...	...	99.6	...
Uruguay	30	26	16	16	17	16	3.1	3.3	15.9	15.5	4.1	91.8	91.1
Venezuela	15	19	14	18	29	...	3.1	5.2	12.0	22.4	7.5	...	96.6
Asia													
Afghanistan	–	–	–	–	–	–	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Armenia	–	...	–	...	–	...	7.3	2.0	20.5	10.3	–28.5	...	93.6
Azerbaijan	–	...	–	...	–	...	7.0	3.3	23.5	21.3	–29.5	...	91.2
Bahrain	100	100	13	17	10	15	5.0	4.2	14.6	12.8	2.6	94.3	94.8

Table 10 (continued)

Country or territory	Private enrolment as percentage of total enrolment						Public expenditure on education						
	Pre-primary		Primary		Secondary general		As percentage of GNP		As percentage of government expenditure		Average annual growth rate (%)	Current expenditure as percentage of total	
	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990–96	1990	1996
Bangladesh	...	...	15	...	90	...	♦1.5	♦2.2	♦10.3	♦...	10.1	79.1	58.5
Bhutan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	4.1	...	7.0	...	...	57.5
Brunei Darussalam	57	69	24	33	13	12	2.5	...	...	...	...	90.4	...
Cambodia	...	7	...	–	...	–	...	2.9	...	...	...	...	63.5
China	–	–	–	–	–	–	2.3	2.3	12.8	...	12.4	93.2	87.5
Hong Kong SAR	100	100	9	10	...	12	2.8	2.9	17.4	...	5.6	...	95.1
Cyprus	68	66	5	4	14	11	3.4	4.5	11.3	13.2	...	94.9	91.5
Dem. People's Rep. of Korea	–	–	–	–	–	–	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Georgia	–	–	–	–	–	–	...	5.2	...	6.9	...	...	82.8
India	...	...	...	...	...	...	3.9	3.3	12.2	11.6	2.6	98.7	99.0
Indonesia	100	99	18	17	48	42	♦1.0	...	...	...	...	69.0	...
Iran, Islamic Republic of	–	19	0	3	0	3	4.1	4.0	22.4	17.8	5.1	82.5	82.9
Iraq	–	–	–	–	–	–	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Israel	...	...	...	...	...	...	6.5	7.6	11.3	...	9.1	92.2	91.4
Japan	78	80	1	1	15	16	3.6	3.6	10.4	9.9	1.9	...	...
Jordan	99	100	23	25	7	9	8.9	7.9	17.1	19.8	6.4	70.7	80.8
Kazakhstan	–	–	...	0	...	–	3.2	4.7	17.6	...	–4.1	...	98.0
Kuwait	9	24	25	33	22	27	3.5	4.8	...	13.5	5.5	...	...
Kyrgyzstan	...	...	...	0	...	0	8.3	5.3	22.5	23.5	–15.4	88.5	95.9
Lao People's Dem. Rep.	–	15	1	2	–	1	2.5	2.5	...	10.3	8.9	75.8	84.7
Lebanon	83	83	68	71	58	60	♦2.1	♦2.5	♦12.5	♦8.2	8.1	98.8	...
Macau	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	10.7	...	...	...	...
Malaysia	60	94	0	1	4	3	5.5	5.2	18.3	15.4	6.6	77.3	81.2
Maldives	...	100	...	51	...	...	6.3	6.4	10.0	10.5	2.0	...	76.4
Mongolia	–	–	–	–	–	–	12.9	6.4	17.6	15.9	–12.1	...	...
Myanmar	–	–	–	–	–	–	...	♦1.2	...	♦14.4	...	...	78.0
Nepal	...	...	5	6	...	...	2.0	3.1	8.5	13.5	11.6	...	65.5
Oman	100	100	2	4	1	1	3.5	4.5	11.1	16.7	11.5	92.0	89.7
Pakistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	2.7	3.0	7.4	8.1	7.4	80.9	80.4
Palestinian Auton. Territories	100	100	...	6	...	7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Philippines	58	60	7	7	36	29	2.9	3.2	10.1	17.6	4.8	92.4	86.4
Qatar	100	100	23	35	13	19	3.4	3.4	...	...	...	97.3	91.8
Republic of Korea	69	79	1	2	41	38	3.5	3.7	...	17.5	6.9	89.2	...
Saudi Arabia	79	75	4	6	3	5	6.0	5.1	17.8	17.0	–0.7	94.4	93.4
Singapore	72	...	24	27	28	33	3.0	3.0	18.2	23.4	6.8	87.3	76.0
Sri Lanka	100	100	1	2	2	2	2.7	3.4	8.1	8.9	7.4	81.5	82.9
Syrian Arab Republic	61	91	4	4	6	6	4.3	4.2	17.3	13.6	6.4	...	...
Tajikistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	9.7	2.2	24.7	11.5	–36.1	91.8	94.8
Thailand	24	26	10	13	10	6	3.6	4.8	20.0	...	12.5	83.6	75.2
Turkey	6	...	1	...	4	3	...	2.2	...	...	...	...	...
Turkmenistan	–	...	–	...	–	...	4.3	...	21.0	...	...	...	...
United Arab Emirates	64	65	32	42	21	29	1.7	1.8	14.6	16.3	...	95.4	92.3
Uzbekistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	9.5	7.7	20.4	21.1	–7.9	79.8	96.5
Viet Nam	–	–	–	–	–	10	2.1	2.9	7.5	...	17.7	90.3	93.4
Yemen	–	–	–	–	–	–	...	6.3	...	...	...	...	89.9
Europe													
Albania	–	–	–	–	–	–	5.8	3.1	...	...	–8.6	...	90.8
Austria	26	25	4	4	8	8	5.4	5.4	7.6	10.4	2.0	92.4	91.2
Belarus	–	–	–	–	–	–	4.9	5.9	...	17.8	–6.0	84.0	91.1

Country or territory	Private enrolment as percentage of total enrolment						Public expenditure on education						
	Pre-primary		Primary		Secondary general		As percentage of GNP		As percentage of government expenditure		Average annual growth rate (%)	Current expenditure as percentage of total	
	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990	1996	1990–96	1990	1996
Belgium	57	57	56	55	...	69	♦5.0	5.6	...	10.4	4.1	98.8	99.1
Bosnia and Herzegovina	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bulgaria	–	0	–	0	–	0	5.6	3.2	...	7.0	–11.3	92.6	95.5
Croatia	–	5	–	0	...	0	6.0	5.3	...	...	–4.3	...	...
Czech Republic	–	2	–	1	...	3	4.7	5.1	...	...	4.0	91.1	86.4
Denmark	9	3	10	11	16	15	7.1	8.1	11.8	...	5.2	93.1	94.1
Estonia	–	0	...	1	...	1	6.1	7.3	31.3	22.3	3.5	91.7	87.3
Finland	...	6	1	1	4	5	5.7	7.5	11.9	12.2	4.2	93.0	93.4
France	12	12	15	15	21	20	5.4	6.0	...	10.9	2.9	93.1	92.3
Germany	...	54	...	2	6	7	...	4.8	...	9.6	...	...	90.8
Greece	5	3	7	6	7	5	2.5	3.1	...	...	5.8	94.1	...
Hungary	0	2	–	3	–	5	6.1	4.6	7.8	...	–5.2	90.4	92.0
Iceland	...	6	...	2	...	3	5.6	5.4	...	13.6	0.1	73.9	87.6
Ireland	2	2	2	1	–	0	5.6	6.0	10.2	...	6.8	95.0	95.0
Italy	29	28	7	7	7	5	...	4.9	...	9.1	...	...	95.3
Latvia	–	0	...	1	...	1	3.8	6.3	10.8	14.1	–1.8	91.1	96.6
Lithuania	–	0	...	0	...	0	4.6	5.5	13.8	22.8	–7.5	93.9	95.1
Luxembourg	...	...	1	...	–	...	4.0	4.0	16.0	...	2.2	82.1	93.4
Malta	38	37	29	35	29	30	4.0	5.1	8.3	10.8	8.6	94.4	91.9
Monaco	33	26	34	33	29	30	...	...	5.3	6.3	...	91.1	92.5
Netherlands	69	68	69	69	73	79	6.0	5.1	...	9.8	–0.6	95.1	96.0
Norway	36	34	1	1	5	5	7.3	7.4	14.6	15.8	5.5	86.3	92.1
Poland	0	...	0	1	2	...	5.4	7.5	14.6	24.8	8.4	92.9	...
Portugal	64	...	7	...	7	...	5.1	5.8	...	...	5.8	93.7	92.8
Republic of Moldova	–	17	–	0	...	...	5.6	10.6	17.2	28.1	–6.2	78.9	96.7
Romania	–	0	–	–	–	0	2.8	3.6	7.3	10.5	1.6	98.4	92.5
Russian Federation	–	...	–	...	–	0	3.5	3.5	...	...	–9.0	...	...
San Marino	–	–	–	...	–	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Slovakia	–	0	...	4	–	5	5.1	5.0	...	...	–2.8	...	92.9
Slovenia	–	1	...	0	–	1	4.8	5.7	16.1	12.6	5.8	91.9	93.4
Spain	39	32	35	34	32	27	4.4	5.0	9.4	11.0	3.7	88.7	91.9
Sweden	...	10	1	2	1	2	7.7	8.3	13.8	12.2	1.1	91.8	...
Switzerland	5	7	2	3	6	8	4.9	5.4	18.7	15.4	1.5	88.8	90.5
The FYR of Macedonia	–	–	–	–	–	–	5.3	5.1	...	20.0	–1.6	97.7	95.8
Ukraine	–	–	–	...	–	–	5.0	7.3	19.7	...	–9.7	80.2	87.5
United Kingdom	6	...	5	5	9	8	4.9	5.3	...	11.6	3.1	94.9	...
Yugoslavia	–	–	–	–	–	–	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Oceania													
Australia	26	...	25	26	32	34	5.3	5.5	14.8	13.5	3.9	92.4	95.6
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12.4	...	...	99.9	...
Fiji	100	...	96	...	87	...	♦4.7	...	...	...	...	99.1	...
Kiribati	100	...	–	–	78	77	5.4	11.4	18.3	...	10.8	...	...
New Zealand	0	20	3	2	5	5	6.5	7.3	...	...	4.2	95.5	93.7
Papua New Guinea	100	41	2	2	4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Samoa	100	100	12	14	...	43	4.2	...	10.7	...	...	94.0	...
Solomon Islands	...	...	12	11	...	...	3.8	...	7.9	...	...	...	...
Tonga	...	...	7	...	81	...	4.7	...	17.3	...	...	...	...
Tuvalu	...	...	...	2	...	...	...	...	16.2	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	...	...	22	...	7	...	4.4	4.8	19.2	...	0.4	...	...

Table 11
Public current expenditure on education

Country or territory	Teachers' emoluments as percentage of total current expenditure	Percentage distribution of current expenditure by level						Current expenditure per pupil as a percentage of GNP per capita					
		1990			1996			1990			1996		
	1996	Pre-prim. + prim.	Sec.	Tert.	Pre-prim. + prim.	Sec.	Tert.	Pre-prim. + prim.	Sec.	Tert.	Pre-prim. + prim.	Sec.	Tert.
Africa													
Algeria	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Angola	...	96.3	./.	3.7	...	...	...	29	./.	231	...	...	...
Benin	♦ 78.6	...	...	...	59.1	21.7	18.8	...	...	...	12	23	243
Botswana	...	31.1	48.8	12.2	...	...	...	8	46	169	...	...	...
Burkina Faso	52.7	41.7	25.8	32.1	56.6	25.1	18.3	19	62	1 245	20	42	533
Burundi	...	46.8	29.1	22.0	42.7	36.7	17.1	13	119	1 114	20	143	936
Cameroon	...	70.5	./.	29.5	86.8	./.	13.2	10	./.	312	11	./.	86
Cape Verde	...	54.7	17.5	2.7	...	...	...	9	20	-	...	...	...
Central African Republic	...	52.7	14.6	21.5	53.2	16.5	24.0	10	18	352	8	17	311
Chad	64.4	47.1	20.9	8.2	43.5	24.2	9.0	8	26	215	6	24	248
Comoros	70.3	42.4	28.2	17.3	36.6	35.1	17.2	9	43	1 696	9	42	1 253
Congo	♦ 83.7	...	...	...	50.4	11.6	28.0	...	...	...	15	8	230
Côte d'Ivoire	♦ 72.4	49.7	35.6	14.6	45.2	36.2	18.6	32	75	278	17	41	133
Dem. Rep. of the Congo	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Djibouti	...	58.0	21.7	11.5	...	...	...	32	40	-	...	...	...
Egypt	♦ 81.8	64.0	./.	36.0	66.7	./.	33.3	9	./.	82	12	./.	68
Equatorial Guinea	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Eritrea	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Ethiopia	...	53.9	28.1	12.1	46.2	23.7	15.9	28	43	478	25	59	847
Gabon	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Gambia	♦ 49.1	41.6	21.2	17.8	48.9	31.6	12.9	12	31	...	13	38	292
Ghana	...	29.2	34.3	11.0	...	...	...	5	17	250	...	...	...
Guinea	...	32.5	28.3	25.0	35.1	29.6	26.1	12	37	618	8	32	483
Guinea-Bissau	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kenya	...	50.3	18.8	21.6	...	...	...	12	43	954	...	...	...
Lesotho	57.6	51.0	27.4	18.9	41.2	29.2	28.7	13	48	475	14	54	780
Liberia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Madagascar	...	36.0	26.1	26.8	30.0	33.4	21.1	5	18	176	4	28	219
Malawi	...	44.7	13.1	20.2	58.8	8.9	20.5	8	52	999	9	27	1 580
Mali	♦ 57.1	...	...	...	45.9	21.6	17.7	...	...	...	14	30	392
Mauritania	♦ 72.1	33.3	37.7	24.9	39.4	35.3	21.2	18	92	428	11	57	208
Mauritius	...	37.7	36.4	16.6	31.0	36.3	24.7	8	16	166	8	15	141
Morocco	78.0	34.8	48.9	16.2	34.6	48.8	16.5	13	49	76	11	44	68
Mozambique	...	49.8	15.7	9.9	...	...	...	15	36	998	...	...	...
Namibia	...	42.1	29.1	8.5	58.0	28.9	13.1	15	49	253	21	36	120
Niger	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nigeria	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Rwanda	...	67.7	14.1	16.2	...	...	...	16	54	1 192	...	...	...
Sao Tome and Principe	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Senegal	♦ 59.9	43.9	25.7	24.0	34.2	42.5	23.2	18	42	380	11	64	304
Seychelles	♦ 61.5	28.2	40.7	9.5	27.0	38.7	16.2	9	52	-	10	20	-
Sierra Leone	...	21.2	31.6	34.8	...	...	...	2	10	230			
Somalia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Africa	74.4	75.6	./.	21.5	43.5	29.5	14.3	15	./.	96	15	22	54
Sudan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Swaziland	♦ 71.7	31.2	24.5	26.0	35.8	27.1	26.6	6	20	273	7	22	215
Togo	74.2	30.4	25.8	29.0	45.9	26.9	24.7	8	38	594	9	26	329
Tunisia	77.0	39.8	36.4	18.5	42.5	37.2	18.5	12	29	120	15	21	79

Country or territory	Teachers' emoluments as percentage of total current expenditure	Percentage distribution of current expenditure by level						Current expenditure per pupil as a percentage of GNP per capita					
		1990			1996			1990			1996		
	1996	Pre-prim. + prim.	Sec.	Tert.	Pre-prim. + prim.	Sec.	Tert.	Pre-prim. + prim.	Sec.	Tert.	Pre-prim. + prim.	Sec.	Tert.
Uganda	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
United Rep. of Tanzania	...	41.6	32.1	17.1	...	...	...	8	130	1 915	...	...	...
Zambia	...	42.9	20.2	18.4	41.5	18.4	23.2	6	20	235	5	11	192
Zimbabwe	...	54.7	27.6	13.5	51.7	26.4	17.3	20	34	195	18	32	211
America, North													
Antigua and Barbuda	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bahamas	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Barbados	...	37.5	37.6	19.2	...	...	...	20	26	47	...	...	...
Belize	...	61.0	20.2	8.1	62.8	25.8	6.9	10	22	300	11	25	315
British Virgin Islands	...	35.5	35.3	14.8	...	...	...	10	22	...	...	...	...
Canada	56.2	62.2	./.	28.6	64.7	./.	35.3	23	./.	29	24	./.	40
Costa Rica	♦ 90.9	38.2	21.6	36.1	40.2	24.3	28.3	10	21	61	13	25	50
Cuba	♦ 56.7	25.7	39.0	14.4	31.9	33.0	14.9	16	25	39	18	33	88
Dominica	...	59.5	27.1	2.5	...	...	...	14	17	45	...	...	...
Dominican Republic	♦ 91.6	49.4	14.8	13.7	49.5	12.5	13.0	2	4	6	4	5	10
El Salvador	...	...	...	...	63.5	6.5	7.2	...	...	...	7	6	8
Grenada	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guatemala	62.8	...	...	...	63.0	12.1	15.2	...	...	...	6	5	29
Haiti	...	53.1	19.0	9.1	...	...	...	7	10	126	...	...	...
Honduras	67.8	49.1	17.2	18.2	52.5	21.5	16.6	10	18	82	10	20	54
Jamaica	64.1	37.4	33.2	21.1	31.3	37.4	22.4	9	15	145	10	23	162
Mexico	♦ 89.7	...	...	...	50.3	32.5	17.2	...	...	...	12	18	47
Netherlands Antilles	...	43.0	46.9	4.6	...	...	...	10	22	–	...	...	...
Nicaragua	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	13	8	...
Panama	...	37.0	23.3	21.3	29.8	19.2	24.5	11	14	46	9	12	40
Saint Kitts and Nevis	70.6	34.7	45.4	12.2	38.1	42.5	11.4	5	13	39	6	13	37
Saint Lucia	...	48.2	23.3	12.8	44.9	24.4	12.5	9	20	135	10	20	115
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	...	64.1	31.7	–	...	...	...	13	15	–	...	...	...
Trinidad and Tobago	♦ 66.7	42.5	36.8	11.9	40.5	33.1	13.3	9	17	73	10	16	73
United States	49.4	38.9	37.0	24.1	38.7	36.1	25.2	16	23	21	17	24	25
America, South													
Argentina	67.8	50.5	26.1	17.6	45.7	34.8	19.5	9	12	18	8	15	18
Bolivia	♦ 74.3	...	...	...	50.7	9.8	27.7	...	...	...	10	14	57
Brazil	♦ 84.5	...	...	...	53.5	20.3	26.2	...	...	...	10	30	98
Chile	...	56.4	15.3	21.6	60.4	18.9	16.4	9	8	29	11	12	21
Colombia	80.8	39.3	30.9	20.7	40.5	31.5	19.2	7	11	35	9	12	37
Ecuador	...	34.4	34.2	18.3	38.4	36.0	21.3	5	13	26	6	17	26
Guyana	...	...	...	...	71.3	./.	7.7	...	...	...	10	./.	28
Paraguay	...	43.9	22.6	25.8	50.0	18.1	19.7	3	7	37	10	12	82
Peru	40.1	...	...	...	35.2	21.2	16.0	...	...	...	5	7	15
Suriname	...	60.5	14.5	8.8	...	...	...	26	14	65	...	...	...
Uruguay	41.5	37.5	30.3	22.6	32.6	29.0	19.6	8	10	28	8	11	24
Venezuela	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Asia													
Afghanistan	...	87.6	./.	12.4	...	...	...	28	./.	133	...	...	...
Armenia	...	...	...	...	15.8	63.0	13.2	...	...	...	3	11	24
Azerbaijan	♦ 65.0	13.1	66.1	10.4	14.6	63.9	7.5	...	...	...	4	18	15
Bahrain	62.7	30.4	45.8	...	27.9	45.1	...	9	23	...	8	19	...

Table 11 (continued)

Country or territory	Teachers' emoluments as percentage of total current expenditure	Percentage distribution of current expenditure by level						Current expenditure per pupil as a percentage of GNP per capita					
		1990			1996			1990			1996		
	1996	Pre-prim. + prim.	Sec.	Tert.	Pre-prim. + prim.	Sec.	Tert.	Pre-prim. + prim.	Sec.	Tert.	Pre-prim. + prim.	Sec.	Tert.
Bangladesh	...	45.6	42.2	8.7	44.8	43.8	7.9	4	15	26	5	16	17
Bhutan	...	...	...	...	44.0	35.6	20.4	...	...	...	30	103	...
Brunei Darussalam	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cambodia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
China	...	32.7	34.4	18.6	37.4	32.2	15.6	5	14	101	6	12	67
Hong Kong SAR	...	26.6	38.8	30.8	21.9	35.0	37.1	6	13	59	6	13	54
Cyprus	80.2	38.5	50.3	3.8	36.7	50.8	6.5	10	25	13	12	26	22
Dem. People's Rep. of Korea	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Georgia	♦ 52.6	...	...	...	22.0	45.1	18.5	...	...	...	14	23	25
India	...	38.9	27.0	14.9	39.5	26.5	13.7	13	16	99	11	18	100
Indonesia	♦ 84.0	...	...	...	73.5	./.	24.4	...	...	...	...	...	...
Iran, Islamic Republic of	...	33.2	39.2	13.6	29.0	33.9	22.9	7	15	49	6	8	45
Iraq	...	55.8	23.6	20.6	...	...	...	14	17	75	...	...	...
Israel	♦ 74.7	43.0	31.3	16.2	42.3	31.2	18.2	11	28	34	17	22	37
Japan	♦ 79.3	40.4	43.1	10.2	39.3	41.8	12.1	17	19	15	17	19	14
Jordan	70.4	62.4	./.	35.1	64.5	./.	33.0	17	./.	126	19	./.	111
Kazakhstan	♦ 45.0	...	...	...	10.4	61.1	13.4	...	...	...	4	24	21
Kuwait	...	67.0	./.	16.0	68.5	./.	31.5	16	./.	...	14	./.	87
Kyrgyzstan	♦ 45.6	8.5	57.9	10.0	6.6	68.0	14.1	5	29	56	3	30	67
Lao People's Dem. Rep.	75.0	42.2	43.5	3.9	54.9	26.4	7.9	5	26	53	7	14	63
Lebanon	...	...	...	...	68.9	./.	16.2	...	...	...	6	./.	...
Macau	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Malaysia	♦ 72.7	34.3	34.4	19.9	37.3	35.5	20.2	9	18	123	10	17	85
Maldives	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mongolia	...	13.9	48.8	14.5	19.9	56.0	14.3	15	46	132	11	46	52
Myanmar	♦ 56.8	...	...	...	47.7	40.3	11.7	...	...	...	3	9	19
Nepal	...	48.2	15.7	23.3	49.3	20.9	17.9	6	8	92	10	13	115
Oman	♦ 84.4	54.1	37.0	7.4	42.1	51.1	5.6	12	21	68	...	...	...
Pakistan	...	45.4	28.1	16.6	47.7	29.6	13.2	10	17	123	9	15	94
Palestinian Auton. Territories	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Philippines	♦ 84.9	...	...	...	54.7	23.5	17.8	...	...	...	9	9	14
Qatar	♦ 79.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Republic of Korea	♦ 77.0	44.4	34.1	7.4	45.3	36.6	8.0	11	10	6	17	13	6
Saudi Arabia	♦ 84.6	78.8	./.	21.2	82.2	./.	17.8	25	./.	126	19	./.	58
Singapore	...	29.6	36.5	29.3	25.7	34.6	34.8	8	13	42	7	12	31
Sri Lanka	...	84.3	./.	13.4	74.8	./.	9.3	6	./.	59	9	./.	54
Syrian Arab Republic	...	38.5	28.2	21.3	41.9	29.8	25.9	8	16	51	8	17	62
Tajikistan	♦ 60.6	6.9	57.0	9.1	14.9	71.2	7.1	5	32	39	3	12	...
Thailand	61.6	56.2	21.6	14.6	50.4	20.0	16.4	11	16	24	14	11	26
Turkey	♦ 85.9	...	...	...	43.3	22.0	34.7	...	...	...	9	6	36
Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
United Arab Emirates	♦ 74.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Viet Nam	65.3	...	...	...	43.0	26.0	22.0	...	...	...	7	9	89
Yemen	♦ 79.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Europe													
Albania	♦ 75.2	...	...	...	63.9	20.6	10.3	...	...	...	9	20	30
Austria	46.8	23.7	46.6	19.1	28.1	49.0	21.2	16	24	36	19	25	35
Belarus	♦ 57.8	73.8	./.	14.4	72.5	./.	11.1	15	./.	18	20	./.	19

Country or territory	Teachers' emoluments as percentage of total current expenditure	Percentage distribution of current expenditure by level						Current expenditure per pupil as a percentage of GNP per capita					
		1990			1996			1990			1996		
	1996	Pre-prim. + prim.	Sec.	Tert.	Pre-prim. + prim.	Sec.	Tert.	Pre-prim. + prim.	Sec.	Tert.	Pre-prim. + prim.	Sec.	Tert.
Belgium	76.9	23.3	42.9	16.5	29.9	45.5	21.5	10	27	29	14	25	32
Bosnia and Herzegovina	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bulgaria	♦ 66.3	70.7	./.	13.9	73.8	./.	18.0	19	./.	34	13	./.	18
Croatia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Czech Republic	39.8	79.2	./.	13.0	31.3	50.2	15.8	17	./.	49	19	./.	35
Denmark	50.1	24.2	43.2	18.4	33.6	39.3	22.0	22	32	42	24	36	50
Estonia	♦ 65.9	18.7	55.8	15.9	18.5	50.7	17.9	9	39	54	10	42	38
Finland	52.3	27.9	39.4	23.9	33.0	36.2	28.9	17	27	42	24	27	46
France	♦ 77.2	27.3	40.7	13.8	31.4	49.5	17.9	12	21	23	16	27	28
Germany	♦ 83.9	...	...	...	72.2	./.	22.5	...	...	...	18	./.	38
Greece	♦ 87.1	34.1	45.1	19.5	35.3	38.0	25.0	8	13	16	15	15	22
Hungary	♦ 70.8	79.3	./.	15.2	36.8	46.3	15.5	22	./.	85	18	./.	33
Iceland	♦ 73.8	85.1	./.	14.9	35.9	41.9	17.7	13	./.	30	13	./.	29
Ireland	72.1	37.8	40.1	20.4	32.2	41.5	23.8	13	22	42	14	22	36
Italy	68.0	29.7	50.0	14.5	32.0	49.2	15.1	19	28	23	19	29	21
Latvia	40.5	11.2	56.3	11.6	12.1	58.9	12.2	5	20	23	9	37	33
Lithuania	♦ 69.0	17.8	51.5	21.0	15.1	50.9	18.3	11	27	52	9	26	42
Luxembourg	♦ 96.0	44.4	41.9	3.3	51.9	43.4	4.7	18	23	32	21	23	27
Malta	...	25.1	44.7	14.6	22.6	32.0	10.9	7	18	62	9	16	34
Monaco	♦ 68.0	18.1	52.1	–	17.2	44.9	–	...	...	...	...	...	...
Netherlands	♦ 77.7	21.5	37.7	32.1	30.9	39.8	29.3	13	23	56	14	21	47
Norway	♦ 77.7	39.5	24.7	15.2	38.7	23.0	27.9	23	18	29	23	19	45
Poland	...	42.8	17.5	22.0	52.2	20.2	14.6	14	19	82	18	17	44
Portugal	♦ 88.7	39.6	37.5	15.5	34.2	41.6	16.4	14	19	34	17	24	27
Republic of Moldova	♦ 71.1	...	...	...	24.5	52.9	13.3	...	...	...	24	53	64
Romania	♦ 66.8	52.1	22.1	9.6	42.7	23.8	16.0	17	5	32	17	9	32
Russian Federation	...	...	...	...	23.2	57.4	19.3	...	...	...	9	22	23
San Marino	...	51.7	32.1	6.7	48.6	32.5	13.6	...	...	...	...	...	...
Slovakia	37.9	38.6	18.5	15.0	40.5	28.0	12.7	20	8	64	20	10	31
Slovenia	62.2	43.3	37.0	17.0	29.9	48.4	16.9	22	15	38	20	24	36
Spain	♦ 83.8	29.3	45.0	15.4	33.3	47.9	16.6	12	14	19	16	23	18
Sweden	♦ 57.9	67.3	./.	13.2	34.1	38.7	27.2	28	./.	41	29	./.	72
Switzerland	67.1	75.0	./.	19.7	30.6	48.1	19.3	20	./.	43	23	./.	46
The FYR of Macedonia	♦ 83.6	56.5	23.5	17.1	54.4	23.6	22.0	19	32	65	18	27	69
Ukraine	...	69.9	./.	15.1	73.5	./.	10.7	16	./.	19	27	./.	23
United Kingdom	44.9	29.7	43.8	19.6	32.3	44.0	23.7	15	27	42	17	20	40
Yugoslavia	♦ 56.2	69.8	./.	18.6	65.5	./.	23.6	...	...	...	...	...	...
Oceania													
Australia	53.1	59.6	./.	32.0	30.6	38.9	30.5	16	./.	55	14	17	30
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...	61.0	38.2	0.9	...	...	...	...	...	...
Fiji	...	50.5	37.0	9.0	...	...	...	11	24	84	...	...	...
Kiribati	♦ 55.1	50.5	28.7	7.9	...	...	...	11	36	36	...	...	...
New Zealand	...	30.5	25.3	37.4	28.7	40.3	29.1	15	16	70	15	24	46
Papua New Guinea	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Samoa	...	52.6	25.2	–	...	...	...	9	15	–	...	...	...
Solomon Islands	...	56.5	29.8	13.7	...	...	...	12	60	–	...	...	...
Tonga	...	38.8	24.2	7.3	...	...	...	10	8	45	...	...	...
Tuvalu	...	35.9	59.0	–	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	68.3	59.8	26.6	3.4	57.9	33.0	6.4	14	47	–	14	49	–

IV. UNESCO reports, publications and periodicals concerning education, 1997–99

THIS APPENDIX is in three parts: 1. Reports of UNESCO meetings concerning education; 2. UNESCO publications on education; and 3. UNESCO periodicals relating to education. The period covered by this listing is June 1997 to mid-1999. Reports, publications and periodicals are listed alphabetically by title.

For each title, the English version of the publication is given. When a title is not published in English, it is presented in its original language of publication. Some titles are published in other languages as well as in English. An indication of the different language versions is given in parentheses: for example (F, S) indicates that the title is also published in French and in Spanish. The abbreviations for the different languages are as follows: Ar: Arabic; Ch: Chinese; E: English; F: French; G: German; Port: Portuguese; R: Russian, S: Spanish.

Reports of UNESCO meetings

Aporte de la enseñanza formal a la prevención del VIH/SIDA en América Latina y el Caribe. Seminario-Taller, Santiago, Chile, 1-5 Septiembre 1997. Informe Final. By A. Monchus and C. Saban, Santiago, UNESCO, 1998. 83 pp.

APPREB. Report of the Regional Consultation for Asia-Pacific Co-operative Programme in Reading Promotion and Book Development. Tokyo, Japan, 20-21 November 1997. Tokyo, UNESCO/ACCU, 1999. 73 pp.

Asia-Pacific Regional Consultation on Adult Education. Final Report. Jomtien, Thailand, 16-18 September 1996. Bangkok, UNESCO/PROAP/APPEAL/ Department of Non-Formal Education, Ministry of Education, 1999. 85 pp.

Conocimiento matemático en la educación de jóvenes y adultos. Jornadas de reflexión y capacitación. Río de Janeiro, Brazil 1995. Santiago, UNESCO, 1997. 192 pp.

Early Childhood Care and Education as a Structural Approach to Integrating Children and Families at Risk. A Challenge for Policy Makers. Reports of the European Policy Conference on Early Childhood Education. Amsterdam, Netherlands, 23-24 April 1998. By J. Bennett. UNESCO/Averröes Foundation, 1998. 109 pp.

Educating for a Sustainable Future. A Transdisciplinary Vision for Concerted Action. International Conference. Thessaloniki, Greece, 8-12 December 1997. Paris, UNESCO/Government of Greece, 1997. 42 pp. (F, S) (Environment and Society: Education and Public Awareness for Sustainability.)

Environmental Issues and Environmental Education in the Mekong Region. Proceedings of a Regional Seminar on Environmental Education. Bangkok, UNESCO/PROAP, 1997. 129 pp.

First Meeting of the Intergovernmental Regional Committee on Education in Asia and the Pacific. Bangkok, Thailand, 24-26 June 1996. Final Report. Bangkok, UNESCO, 1997. 58 pp.

Indicadores educativos comparados en el Mercosur. Santiago, Chile, 13-15 octubre 1997. Santiago, UNESCO/PREAL/MINEDUC Chile, 1998. 87 pp.

International Consultation on Early Childhood Education and Special Educational Needs, Paris, 1-4 September 1997. Final Report. Paris, UNESCO, 1998. 62 pp. (F)

Organizing Knowledge for Environmentally and Socially Sustainable Development. Edited by I. Serageldin, T. Husain, J. Martin-Brown, G. Lopez-Ospina and J. Damlamian. Proceedings of a Concurrent Meeting of the Fifth Annual World Bank Conference on Environmentally and Socially Sustainable Development. Washington, D.C., United States, 9–10 October 1997. Washington, D.C., UNESCO/World Bank, 1998. 92 pp.

Regional Workshop on Preventive Against HIV/AIDS for Women's Grassroots Organizations in Africa. Final Report. Abidjan, Côte d'Ivoire, 7-11 September 1998. Paris, UNESCO/UNAIDS/UNDP, 53 pp.

Second International Congress on Technical and Vocational Education. Lifelong Learning and Training: a Bridge to the Future. Seoul, Republic of Korea, 26-30 April 1998. Final Report. Paris, UNESCO, 1999. 134 pp. (F)

Secondary Education and Youth at the Crossroads. Report of the Fourth UNESCO-ACEID International Conference. Bangkok, Thailand, 10-13 November 1998, Bangkok, UNESCO, ACEID, 1999. 262 pp.

Seventh Conference of Ministers of Education of African Member States (MINEDAF VII). Durban, South Africa, 20-24 April 1998. Final Report. Paris, UNESCO, 1998. 86 pp. (F)

Sixteenth Regional Workshop on the Preparation of Literacy Follow-up Materials. Ubol Ratchathani, Thailand, 16-25 November 1998 . UNESCO/ACCU.

World Conference on Higher Education. Higher Education in the Twenty-First Century: Vision and Action. Paris, France, 5-9 October 1998 , *Final Report.* Paris, UNESCO, 1999. 135 pp. (Ar, Ch, F, R, S)

Publications

Adult Learning and the Challenges of the 21st Century. Fifth International Conference on Adult Education (CONFINTEA). Hamburg, UNESCO-UIE, 1999. 29 booklets.
ISBN 92-820-1089-9.

Adult Learning and the Future of Work. By M. Singh. Hamburg, UNESCO-UIE, 1999. 236 pp.
ISBN 92-820-1090-1.

Africa and the Democratic Challenge. An Essay on Adult Education for Democracy and the Culture of Peace. By M.-L. Hazoumê. Hamburg, UNESCO-UIE, 1999. 77 pp.
ISBN 92-820-1092-9.

Alfabetización: construir el futuro. By D. A. Wagner. Paris, UNESCO/Oficina internacional de educación/Instituto internacional de alfabetización, 1998. 171 pp.
ISBN 92-3-302785-6.

All Human Beings . . . Manual for Human Rights Education. Paris, UNESCO, 1998. 173 pp. (The Teacher's Library.) (F)
ISBN 92-3-103512-6.

Alphabétisation 1919-1999. Mais . . . que sont devenues nos campagnes? By A. Verhaagen. Hamburg, UNESCO-UIE, 1999. 223 pp.
ISBN 92-820-2080-0.

Alphabétisation durable, défi au non-développement! Le cas de l'Afrique subsaharienne. By A. Verhaagen. Hamburg, UNESCO-UIE, 1999. 340 pp.
ISBN 92-820-2079-7.

Au risque d'innover. Education de base en Afrique occidentale. By J.-P. Vélis. Paris, Éditions UNESCO, 1999. 141 pp.
ISBN 92-3-203603-7.

Challenges of Education for All in Asia and the Pacific and the APPEAL Response. Compiled by T. M. Sakya and G. Rex Meyer. Bangkok, UNESCO/PROAP, 1997. 176 pp.
ISBN 974-680-016-7.

Changing International Aid to Education. Global Patterns and National Contexts. By K. King and L. Buchert. Paris, UNESCO Publishing/NORRAG, 1999. 326 pp. (Education on the Move.)
ISBN 92-3-103514-2.

Consenso para el cambio en la educación superior. Ed. L. Yarzábal. Caracas, UNESCO/IESALC, 1999. 302 pp.
ISBN 92-9143-047-1.

La culture scientifique et technologique dans l'éducation non formelle. By C. Escot. Paris, UNESCO, 1999. 126 pp. (Educational Studies and Documents, 66.)
ISBN 92-3-203496-4.

The Development of Technical and Vocational Education in Africa. Dakar, UNESCO/BREDA, 1997. 220 pp.
ISBN 92-9091-054-2.

La educación ambiental: bases éticas, conceptuales y metodológicas. By M. Novo. Madrid, UNESCO/Editorial Universitas, S. A., 1998. 290 pp.
ISBN 92-3-303556-5.

La educación superior en el umbral del siglo XXI. By C. Tünnermann Bernheim. Caracas, UNESCO/IESALC, 1998. 239 pp.
ISBN 92-9143-035-8.

Education Documentation, Research and Decision-Making: National Case Studies. Ed. W. Rokicka. Paris, UNESCO-IBE, 1999. 348 pp.
ISBN 92-3-103557-6.

Education for the Twenty-first Century. Issues and Prospects. Contributions to the Work of the International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century, chaired by Jacques Delors. Paris, UNESCO Publishing, 1998. 352 pp. (Education on the Move.) (F)
ISBN 92-3-103447-2.

The Education of Nomadic Populations in Africa. Dakar, UNESCO/BREDA, 1997. 107 pp. (F)
ISBN 92-9091-059-3.

Education Reform in the South in the 1990s. By L. Buchert. Paris, UNESCO, 1998. 415 pp. (Education on the Move.)
ISBN 92-3-103471-5.

Elementos para construir la educación superior

del futuro. By B. López Galo. Caracas, UNESCO/CRESALC, 1997. 73 pp.
ISBN 92-9143-025-0.

La escuela global. La educación y la comunicación a lo largo de la historia de la UNESCO. By A. Monclús and C. Sabán. Mexico City, Fondo de Cultura Económica/UNESCO, 1997. 374 pp.
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