



GLOBAL EDUCATION MONITORING REPORT

2016

Peace:

BUILDING SUSTAINABLE PEACE AND
GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP THROUGH EDUCATION



GLOBAL EDUCATION MONITORING REPORT SUMMARY

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This publication is an extract from the 2016 *Global Education Monitoring Report* (GEM Report). It contains two chapters from the full GEM Report – one on peace, political participation and access to justice and the other on education for global citizenship and sustainable development — as well as a section from the GEM Report Policy Paper 28, *Textbooks pave the way to sustainable development*. The full 2016 GEM Report also includes chapters on Planet: environmental sustainability; Prosperity: sustainable and inclusive economies; People: inclusive social development; Place: inclusive and sustainable cities; Partnerships: enabling conditions to achieve SDG 4 and other SDGs; and numerous chapters on monitoring education in the new 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.

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The full references can be downloaded at the following link:
<http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0024/002457/245752e.pdf>

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The cover photo is of children looking through a destroyed classroom window at Yerwa Primary School, Maiduguri, Borno state, damaged by Boko Haram during attacks in 2010 and 2013. The school, established in 1915, was the first primary school in northeast Nigeria.

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Foreword

In May 2015, the World Education Forum in Incheon (Republic of Korea), brought together 1,600 participants from 160 countries with a single goal in mind: how to ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and lifelong learning for all by 2030?

The Incheon Declaration for Education 2030 has been instrumental to shape the Sustainable Development Goal on Education to “Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all”.

It entrusts UNESCO with the leadership, coordination and monitoring of the Education 2030 agenda. It also calls upon the Global Education Monitoring (GEM) Report to provide independent monitoring and reporting of the Sustainable Development Goal on education (SDG 4), and on education in the other SDGs, for the next fifteen years.

The ultimate goal of this agenda is to leave no one behind. This calls for robust data and sound monitoring. The 2016 edition of the GEM Report provides valuable insight for governments and policy makers to monitor and accelerate progress towards SDG 4, building on the indicators and targets we have, with equity and inclusion as measures of overall success.

This Report makes three messages starkly clear.

Firstly, the urgent need for new approaches. On current trends only 70% of children in low income countries will complete primary school in 2030, a goal that should have been achieved in 2015. We need the political will, the policies, the innovation and the resources to buck this trend.

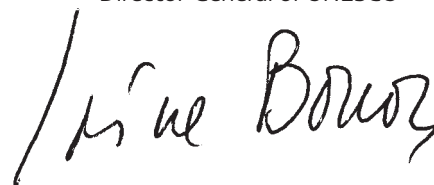
Secondly, if we are serious about SDG 4, we must act with a sense of heightened urgency, and with long-term commitment. Failure to do so will not only adversely affect education but will hamper progress towards each and every development goal: poverty reduction, hunger eradication, improved health, gender equality and women’s empowerment, sustainable production and consumption, resilient cities, and more equal and inclusive societies.

Lastly, we must fundamentally change the way we think about education and its role in human well-being and global development. Now, more than ever, education has a responsibility to foster the right type of skills, attitudes and behavior that will lead to sustainable and inclusive growth.

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development calls on us to develop holistic and integrated responses to the many social, economic and environmental challenges we face. This means reaching out beyond traditional boundaries and creating effective, cross-sectoral partnerships.

A sustainable future for all is about human dignity, social inclusion and environmental protection. It is a future where economic growth does not exacerbate inequalities but builds prosperity for all; where urban areas and labour markets are designed to empower everyone and economic activities, communal and corporate, are green-oriented. Sustainable development is a belief that human development cannot happen without a healthy planet. Embarking upon the new SDG agenda requires all of us to reflect upon the ultimate purpose of learning throughout life. Because, if done right, education has the power like none else to nurture empowered, reflective, engaged and skilled citizens who can chart the way towards a safer, greener and fairer planet for all. This new report provides relevant evidence to enrich these discussions and craft the policies needed to make it a reality for all.

Irina Bokova
Director-General of UNESCO



Foreword

The 2016 Global Education Monitoring Report (GEM Report) is both masterful and disquieting. This is a big report: comprehensive, in-depth and perspicacious. It is also an unnerving report. It establishes that education is at the heart of sustainable development and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), yet it also makes clear just how far away we are from achieving the SDGs. This report should set off alarm bells around the world and lead to a historic scale-up of actions to achieve SDG 4.

The GEM Report provides an authoritative account of how education is the most vital input for every dimension of sustainable development. Better education leads to greater prosperity, improved agriculture, better health outcomes, less violence, more gender equality, higher social capital and an improved natural environment. Education is key to helping people around the world understand why sustainable development is such a vital concept for our common future. Education gives us the key tools – economic, social, technological, even ethical – to take on the SDGs and to achieve them. These facts are spelled out in exquisite and unusual detail throughout the report. There is a wealth of information to be mined in the tables, graphs and texts.

Yet the report also emphasizes the remarkable gaps between where the world stands today on education and where it has promised to arrive as of 2030. The gaps in educational attainment between rich and poor, within and between countries, are simply appalling. In many poor countries, poor children face nearly insurmountable obstacles under current conditions. They lack books at home; have no opportunity for pre-primary school; and enter facilities without electricity, water, hygiene, qualified teachers, textbooks and the other appurtenances of a basic education, much less a quality education. The implications are staggering. While SDG 4 calls for universal completion of upper secondary education by 2030, the current completion rate in low-income countries is a meagre 14% (Table 10.3 of the full report).

The GEM Report undertakes an important exercise to determine how many countries will reach the 2030 target on the current trajectory, or even on a path that matches the fastest improving country in the region. The answer is sobering: we need unprecedented progress, starting almost immediately, in order to have a shot at success with SDG 4.

Cynics might say, 'We told you, SDG 4 is simply unachievable', and suggest that we accept that 'reality'. Yet as the report hammers home in countless ways, such complacency is reckless and immoral. If we leave the current young generation without adequate schooling, we doom them and the world to future poverty, environmental ills, and even social violence and instability for decades to come. There can be no excuse for complacency. The message of this report is that we need to get our act together to accelerate educational attainment in an unprecedented manner.

One of the keys for acceleration is financing. Here again, the report makes for sobering reading. Development aid for education today is lower than it was in 2009 (Figure 20.7 of the full report). This is staggeringly short-sighted of the rich countries. Do these donor countries really believe that they are 'saving money' by underinvesting in aid for education in the world's low-income countries? After reading this report, the leaders and citizens in the high income world will be deeply aware that investing in education is fundamental for global well-being, and that the current level of aid, at around US\$5 billion per year for primary education – just US\$5 per person per year in the rich countries! – is a tragically small investment for the world's future sustainable development and peace.

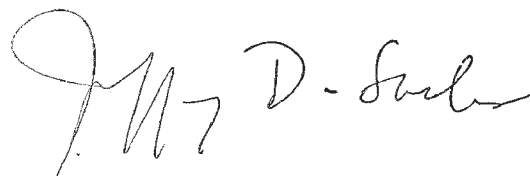
The 2016 GEM Report provides a plethora of insights, recommendations and standards for moving forward. It offers invaluable suggestions on how to monitor and measure progress on SDG 4. It demonstrates by example the feasibility of far more refined measures of education inputs, quality and achievement than the often crude measures of enrolment and completion that we rely on today. Using big data, better survey tools, facility monitoring and information technology, we can get far more nuanced measures of the education process and outcomes at all levels.

Fifteen years ago the world finally recognized the enormity of the AIDS epidemic and other health emergencies and took concrete steps to scale up public health interventions in the context of the Millennium Development Goals. Thus were born major initiatives such as the Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria, the Global Alliance for Vaccines and Immunisation (now Gavi, the Vaccine Alliance) and many other examples. These efforts led to a dramatic upturn in public health interventions and funding. While it did not achieve all that was possible (mainly because the 2008 financial crisis ended the upswing in public health funding) it did lead to many breakthroughs whose effects continue to be felt today.

The 2016 GEM Report should be read as a similar call to action for education as the core of the SDGs. My own view, often repeated in the past couple of years, is the urgency of a Global Fund for Education that builds on the positive lessons of the Global Fund for AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria. The financing constraint lies at the very heart of the education challenge, as this report makes vividly clear through every bit of cross-national and household-based data.

This compelling document calls on us to respond to the opportunity, urgency and declared global goal embodied in SDG 4: universal education of good quality for all and opportunities for learning throughout life. I urge people everywhere to study this report carefully and take its essential messages to heart. Most importantly, let us act on them at every level, from the local community to the global community.

Jeffrey D. Sachs
Special Adviser to the UN Secretary-General on the
Sustainable Development Goals

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'J. Sachs', written in a cursive style.

Introduction

EDUCATION WITHIN SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development unites global development goals in one framework. The fourth global goal on education (SDG4) succeeds the Millennium Development Goal and Education for All priorities for education. At the World Education Forum in Incheon, Republic of Korea, in May 2015, representatives of the international education community signed the Incheon Declaration, embracing the proposed SDG 4 as the single universal education goal, which commits countries to '[e]nsure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all'. SDG 4 and its 10 targets advance a model where learning, in all its shapes and forms, has the power to influence people's choices to create more just, peaceful, inclusive and sustainable societies. To provide a clear blueprint for implementing SDG4, the international education community adopted the Education 2030 Framework for Action in Paris in November 2015 (UNESCO, 2015a).

Education within the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development is founded on principles drawn from a rich history of international instruments and agreements. These principles state that education is both a fundamental human right and an enabling right, i.e. it enables other human rights; that it is a public good and a shared societal endeavour, which implies an inclusive process of public policy formulation and implementation; and that gender equality is inextricably linked to the right to education for all (UNESCO, 2015a). These principles are inspired by a humanistic vision of education and development based on human rights and dignity, justice and shared responsibility.

EDUCATION IS INTERLINKED WITH OTHER SDGS

The SDGs, targets and means of implementation constitute a universal, indivisible and interlinked framework. Each of the 17 goals has a set of specific targets. In each set, at least one target involves learning, training, educating or at the very least raising awareness of core sustainable development issues. Education has long been recognized as a critical catalyst for addressing environmental and sustainability issues and ensuring human well-being. (Table 0.1)

WHAT KIND OF EDUCATION IS NECESSARY?

It is taken for granted that education of good quality can help develop citizens who are capable and mindful, which in turn improves their livelihoods and those of others around them. But the Incheon Declaration makes clear that certain knowledge, skills and values promote sustainable development more than others. Not all education brings the same benefits to everyone. Time, place, situation and context matter (Harber, 2014).

Some scholars suggest that education systems that focus on preparing young people for a lifetime of work and consumption to serve mainly economic ends have adverse effects (Nussbaum, 2010; Orr, 1994). They argue that without critical reflection on the strengths, weaknesses and ultimate purpose

TABLE 0.1:
How education is typically linked with other Sustainable Development Goals

Goal 1	Education is critical to lifting people out of poverty.	Goal 10	Where equally accessible, education makes a proven difference to social and economic inequality.
Goal 2	Education plays a key role in helping people move towards more sustainable farming methods, and in understanding nutrition.	Goal 11	Education can give people the skills to participate in shaping and maintaining more sustainable cities, and to achieve resilience in disaster situations.
Goal 3	Education can make a critical difference to a range of health issues, including early mortality, reproductive health, spread of disease, healthy lifestyles and well-being.	Goal 12	Education can make a critical difference to production patterns (e.g. with regard to the circular economy) and to consumer understanding of more sustainably produced goods and prevention of waste.
Goal 5	Education for women and girls is particularly important to achieve basic literacy, improve participative skills and abilities, and improve life chances.	Goal 13	Education is key to mass understanding of the impact of climate change and to adaptation and mitigation, particularly at the local level.
Goal 6	Education and training increase skills and the capacity to use natural resources more sustainably and can promote hygiene.	Goal 14	Education is important in developing awareness of the marine environment and building proactive consensus regarding wise and sustainable use.
Goal 7	Educational programmes, particularly non-formal and informal, can promote better energy conservation and uptake of renewable energy sources.	Goal 15	Education and training increase skills and capacity to underpin sustainable livelihoods and to conserve natural resources and biodiversity, particularly in threatened environments.
Goal 8	There is a direct link among such areas as economic vitality, entrepreneurship, job market skills and levels of education.	Goal 16	Social learning is vital to facilitate and ensure participative, inclusive and just societies, as well as social coherence.
Goal 9	Education is necessary to develop the skills required to build more resilient infrastructure and more sustainable industrialization.	Goal 17	Lifelong learning builds capacity to understand and promote sustainable development policies and practices.

Source: ICSU and ISSC (2015).

of learning, education systems risk becoming an extension of an unsustainable globalizing economy. This concern is powerfully expressed by John Evans, General Secretary of the Trade Union Advisory Committee to the OECD (2015): 'There are no jobs on a dead planet.'

Education and lifelong learning can support the SDGs with at least two approaches. The first tends to focus on literacy acquisition and retention or on specific knowledge to generate behavioural change, showing that education can facilitate changes in values, world views and behaviour at the level of the individual, the community and society as a whole. This works particularly well when agreement exists on common values and the best and most desirable behaviours – for example, the idea that reducing food waste and energy consumption is important for sustainability and that people can reduce food waste and conserve energy at home.

The second approach focuses on the development of agency, competencies and participation, showing that education can facilitate reflective or critical learning, knowledge and skills acquisition, and greater agency to address complex sustainability issues – for example, how to create a sustainable school or a carbon neutral city. This is particularly important where uncertainty exists over what needs to be done or when context-specific solutions need to be identified through collaborative and iterative processes. Both education approaches are complementary for engendering critical learning and sustainability outcomes.

The transformation needed for a cleaner and greener planet requires integrative, innovative and creative thinking, cultivated jointly by schools, universities, governments, civil society organizations and companies. This collaboration calls for an education that goes beyond the simple transfer of knowledge and desirable behaviours by focusing on multiple perspectives – economic, environmental, ethical and sociocultural – and by developing empowered, critical, mindful and competent citizens. Such education can contribute to the realization of new forms of citizenship, entrepreneurship and governance that centre on the current and future well-being of people and the planet.

READER'S GUIDE TO THE REPORT

In the Incheon Declaration, the international education community affirmed the mandate of the Global Education Monitoring Report (GEM Report) as an independent, authoritative report, hosted and published by UNESCO, to serve as 'the mechanism for monitoring and reporting on ... SDG 4 and on education in the other SDGs, within the mechanism to be established to monitor and review the implementation of the proposed SDGs' (UNESCO, 2015b). Relying on 15 years of monitoring experience as the EFA Global Monitoring Report, the renamed GEM Report will continue to provide reliable, rigorous analysis of global progress in education through systematic and evidence based reporting.

The 2016 GEM Report, the first of a new 15-year series, shows that education will not deliver its full potential to catapult the world forward unless rates of improvement dramatically shift, and education systems consider sustainable development in the way services are delivered. This **Peace: Building sustainable peace and global citizenship through education** publication is a select extract from the full 2016 Global Education Monitoring (GEM) Report: *Education for people and planet: Creating sustainable futures for all*. It contains two chapters from that full Report, along with the associated policy recommendations and a short section of a recent GEM Report Policy Paper *Textbooks pave the way to sustainable development*.

PEACE

CONFLICT DESTROYS EDUCATION. SCHOOLS, STUDENTS AND TEACHERS ARE BEING ATTACKED AND DISPLACED.



BUT CONFLICT MAKES EDUCATION EVEN MORE IMPORTANT.



SCHOOLS CAN BE SAFE PLACES FOR CHILDREN AND FAMILIES WHO ARE FORCIBLY DISPLACED FROM THEIR HOMES.



WHEN WE'RE EDUCATED, WE'RE MORE LIKELY TO VOTE, AND PROTEST PEACEFULLY, RATHER THAN WITH GUNS.



AND IF WE CAN'T READ DOCUMENTS AND UNDERSTAND OUR LEGAL RIGHTS, HOW ARE WE MEANT TO NAVIGATE THE JUSTICE SYSTEM?



THE RIGHT SORT OF EDUCATION CAN PREVENT CONFLICTS, EVEN IF IT'S NOT TALKED ABOUT IN OFFICIAL PEACE AGREEMENTS.



Peace: political participation, peace and access to justice

We are determined to foster peaceful, just and inclusive societies which are free from fear and violence. There can be no sustainable development without peace and no peace without sustainable development.

– *The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*

-
- 1 Education makes people more likely to participate in political processes constructively and non-violently.**
 - a. Education and communication campaigns can teach people how to participate in politics and access political information.
 - b. The right type of education and teaching promotes the transition to more participatory political systems.
 - c. Democratic regimes tend to result in more and better quality education.

 - 2 Better education is clearly linked to more women in political leadership.**
 - a. Gender equality in politics is far from being achieved.
 - b. Women with more education possess more skills to take up leadership roles.
 - c. When there are more women in politics, gender gaps in education shrink.

 - 3 An education that is provided equally, with inclusive teaching and learning materials, is a powerful preventive tool and antidote for conflict.**

 - 4 Conflict is taking an increasingly large toll on education systems.**
 - a. Children, teachers and schools are frequently under attack.
 - b. Forcibly displaced people, especially children and youth, are in dire need of access to education.
 - c. Other forms of violence, including school-based bullying and sexual violence, are of concern.

 - 5 Education should be better recognized in peacebuilding agendas for its role in helping with conflict resolution.**

 - 6 Education can reduce crime and violence against children and youth.**

 - 7 Educational programmes help marginalized people access justice and legal protection.**

Education and literacy contribute to more participatory politics 3

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Violence can be prevented and stable peace is more likely in societies where institutions are democratic and representative – of women as well as minorities, of the poorest as well as the most affluent. Marginalized groups may resort to conflict and violence if there are no peaceful alternatives for resolving their grievances. It is projected that by 2030 up to 62% of people living in extreme poverty will be in countries at risk of high levels of violence (OECD, 2015).

Education has a key role in contributing to the political participation and inclusion vital to ensure social cohesion, and to prevent and mitigate tensions in societies that are – as described in the statement above from the preamble to the 2030 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) – ‘peaceful, just and inclusive’ and ‘free from fear and violence’.

Sustainable peace also requires a well-functioning justice system that offers citizens, regardless of social status, a more attractive alternative to violence to resolve personal and political disputes. If people feel they have no access to justice to address their legal needs and to assert and protect their rights, they are more likely to resort to violent means, undermining the establishment and consolidation of peace.

This chapter is divided into three sections. It starts by documenting links between education and politics, showing that education offers transformative possibilities for participation, inclusion, advocacy and democracy. It then examines the multifaceted relationship between education and conflict and

“ Education is a key ingredient for acquiring political knowledge

violence, especially in contexts where education is lacking, unequal or biased. It shows that education can contribute to conflict, but can

also reduce or eliminate it. The chapter also shows how education can play a crucial role in peacebuilding and help address the alarming consequences of its neglect. It examines education and violence unrelated to conflict and war. The final section provides evidence of how education initiatives, in particular driven by civil society organizations, can help marginalized populations gain access to justice.

EDUCATION AND LITERACY CONTRIBUTE TO MORE PARTICIPATORY POLITICS

Political inclusion is about facilitating participation throughout the political cycle, not just at elections. Active participation in political processes enables people to understand and engage with the underlying causes of social problems at the local and global levels. It also makes the electorate and polity more representative of society, holds governments more effectively to account and helps enforce constitutionally guaranteed rights. Education is a key ingredient for acquiring political knowledge, though opportunities to learn are determined by the availability of information, free from restrictions or censorship.

EDUCATION MATTERS IN INCREASING POLITICAL KNOWLEDGE

Political participation requires knowledge and understanding. Educated people are more likely to know facts related to the key players and workings of their political system. In the county of Busia in the former Western Province of Kenya, a scholarship programme targeting girls from politically marginalized ethnic groups led to their increased participation in secondary schooling and boosted their political knowledge. Girls who benefited from the programme were 14% more likely to read newspapers that reported extensively on national politics. Political knowledge also went up – for instance, those who received scholarships were much more likely to be able to name the president and the health minister of Uganda (Friedman et al., 2011).

In countries where the predominant administrative language is spoken by a minority of the population, understanding this language gives individuals access to a wider range of political knowledge. In Mali, secondary or tertiary education attainment was the factor with the greatest effect on respondents' ability to name the heads of the assembly and of the majority party (Bleck, 2015).

Beyond formal schooling, civic education can instil specific political knowledge. In the Democratic Republic of the Congo, the Voter Opinion and Involvement through Civic Education programme, implemented in 2010/11, increased participation in the political decentralization process mandated by a 2007 law. Adult literacy was low, so a key strategy was to organize community education sessions using simple drawings and other images, resulting in significant gains in knowledge – by a full three correct answers out of the six questions asked about decentralization. The greatest impact was among the participants who had the least information before the programme began (Finkel and Rojo-Mendoza, 2013).

EDUCATION HELPS SHAPE ELECTORAL PARTICIPATION

Voting is generally considered one of the less demanding forms of political participation, and can provide equal opportunities for all to participate. But individuals need knowledge and skills to register to vote, understand the stakes and take an interest in the outcomes of an election.

In many North American and Western European democracies, formal education has been shown to have

an impact on the probability that an individual will vote.¹ In the United States, for instance, studies showed that students receiving more educational interventions, such as being taught in smaller classes, getting extra mentoring and taking part in pre-school activities, participated in elections at higher rates (Sondheimer and Green, 2010).

In some developing countries, providing citizens with specific information affected voter turnout. In Mozambique, right before the 2009 elections, a voter education campaign was conducted with support and collaboration by a newspaper and a consortium of eight non-government organizations (NGOs). Three interventions provided information to voters and called for electoral participation – an SMS-based information campaign conveying neutral information about the elections, an SMS hotline receiving and disseminating information about electoral misconduct, and a free newspaper focusing on civic education. The three together increased official voter turnout by close to five percentage points (Aker et al., 2013).

In several young democracies, women are less likely to vote than men and, when they do vote, are more likely to follow the preferences of household males. In Pakistan, just before the 2008 national elections, a non-partisan, door-to-door voter awareness campaign provided information to women on the importance of voting and the secrecy of the ballot. Women who received this information were found to be 12 percentage points more likely to vote than those who did not, and significantly more likely to choose a candidate independently (Giné and Mansuri, 2011).

Yet, whether better-educated citizens decide to use their capabilities or deliberately disengage may depend on the political context. When electoral participation does not provide genuine input into a political process – because opposition parties are harassed, for example,

“ In Pakistan, a voter-awareness campaign before the 2008 elections made women 12 percentage points more likely to vote

or judicial institutions are biased – voters can express displeasure by withdrawing from politics. In Zimbabwe, the 2002 and 2005 elections were marked by severe repression of the opposition; better-educated individuals deliberately chose to reduce their electoral participation, possibly believing that voting

would legitimize the regime in power. This negative effect of education on electoral participation dissipated following 2008's relatively more competitive election, which initiated a power-sharing arrangement. Better-educated people re-engaged with politics when political conditions allowed them to reflect their political preferences more meaningfully (Croke et al., 2015).

Voter education campaigns can respond to electoral misconduct

In newly democratic low income countries, elections sometimes increase the propensity for civil conflict. Kenya, Nigeria and Zimbabwe provide examples of election cycles marked by thousands of deaths. Politicians may secure votes by stirring up greed, rivalry and fear. Well-designed voter education campaigns can reduce such behaviour. In Nigeria, an anti-violence campaign, conducted in the run-up to the national and state elections in 2007, involved town meetings, popular theatre and door-to-door distribution of materials. It reduced intimidation, voter turnout was nearly 10% higher where the campaign was implemented, and independent journalists reported a decrease in the intensity of violence (Collier and Vicente, 2014).

In New Delhi slums, in India, during the run-up to the 2008 state legislature elections, door-to-door distribution of newspapers provided information about the performance and qualifications of the incumbent and the two other candidates. The campaign not only increased the average voter turnout by 4% but also decreased by almost 20% the use of vote-buying as an electoral strategy (Banerjee et al., 2011).

EDUCATION CAN HELP PEOPLE MAKE THEIR VOICES HEARD

While voting is a pivotal form of political participation, elections are not the only type of political or civic participation in which citizens can exercise regular control and influence on government actors and hold them accountable. A wide array of political activities can convey more precise demands and generate more pressure than a single vote. Better education can help people be more critically minded and politically engaged in such activities. It can also increase representation by marginalized groups, such as women (**Box 1.1**).

BOX 1.1

Better education and women's involvement in national and local decision-making bodies are closely linked

Recent years have seen a rising tide of women's political representation. For example, more women than ever before are being elected to national assemblies, including in Argentina, Portugal and Rwanda. The global average has been climbing and in 2014 was close to 22% – far from equality but an improvement over 14% in 2000. The adoption of affirmative action measures – such as quotas on party electoral lists or reserved seats – has been critical in facilitating women's entry into national assemblies.

Yet, in local governance, women remain under-represented. According to one estimate, just 16% of mayors of capital cities across the world were women in 2015. In executive positions in governments, too, women continue to be very much in a minority and confined mainly to gender-stereotyped portfolios.

Structural barriers to women's involvement and advancement in formal representative politics include their relative lack of material resources to support their move into politics; their additional work burden, which denies them the time necessary to engage in politics; the prevalence of masculine models of political life and elected government bodies; and cultural values such as those barring women from the public sphere.

But girls' education helps give women the skills they need to take on leadership roles in public life – on community councils, in national office and on international bodies. In many countries, such as Sierra Leone, women who consider entering politics often feel disadvantaged by a lack of education and of the experience of campaigning and public speaking. A study drawing on the life histories of women leaders at various levels of government in eight countries, including Brazil, Egypt and Ghana, found that those with higher educational levels held office in higher tiers of government.

Greater representation of women in politics and public office can also reduce gender disparities in education and provide positive role models for other women, increasing their educational aspirations and achievements, and thereby improving female educational attainment levels. Across the 16 biggest states in India, a 10% increase in the number of women involved in district politics would lead to an increase of nearly 6% in primary school completion, with a larger impact on girls' education. Similarly, in villages assigned a female leader for two election cycles, the gender gap in career aspirations shrank by 25% in parents and 32% in adolescents.

Sources: Beaman et al. (2012); Burchi (2013); Castillejo (2009); Domingo et al. (2015); Monteiro (2012); Powley (2005); Tadros (2014); UCLG (2015); UN Women (2011, 2015).

One direct form of political participation is contacting a public representative to request information or express an opinion. Across 102 countries, adults with a tertiary education were 60% more likely to request information from the government than those with a primary education or less – and 84% more likely in developing countries (World Justice Project, 2015). In Côte d'Ivoire and Ghana, higher levels of formal education were associated with a greater likelihood of contacting an elected official (MacLean, 2011).

Better-educated people are also more likely to make their voices heard by participating in political and community meetings and processes. An analysis drawing on recent data from over 27,000 respondents in 20 emerging sub-Saharan African democracies found that people with primary schooling were three percentage points more likely to attend community meetings than those with no education. For people with secondary or post-secondary education, the impact was about twice that (Isaksson, 2014). In Benin, adults who had attended the first elementary schools established by the French were 32% more likely to be party members and 34% more likely to campaign for parties, and made up the majority of the few people who stood for election to political office (Wantchekon et al., 2015).

Schools are not the only locus for political socialization. Civil society plays an important role in educating adults and increasing their political participation, especially at the local level. In rural Senegal, a study of 1,484 voting-age individuals found that beneficiaries of NGO-run, non-formal education programmes were more likely to contact a political official or influential person to obtain help resolving community and personal problems. Furthermore, such programmes increased political participation even more than formal education did, a finding partly attributed to their being conducted in local languages (Kuenzi, 2006, 2011).

Well-designed civic education programmes can increase political participation

In many countries, youth involvement in political processes is low. Across 38 countries taking part in the 2009 International Civic and Citizenship Education Study (ICCS), only a small minority of 14-year-old students reported participating in organizations such as party youth groups, unions, environmental groups and human rights organizations (Schulz et al., 2010).

Students who attend schools that provide well-designed civics education are more likely to be actively involved in politics. Most teachers from the European countries participating in the 1999 International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) Civic Education Study agreed that teaching civic education could make a difference for students' political and civic development: the percentages agreeing ranged from 53% in the Czech Republic and 65% in Cyprus to over 80% elsewhere (Torney-Purta, 2002). Moreover, civic education can have long-lasting effects. A study drawing on data from eight European countries, including Denmark, Poland and Slovenia, showed that some civic skills and political values acquired in school were retained into adulthood (Hooghe and Wilkenfeld, 2008).

“ Student-centred activities such as mock elections and discussion boards result in more political participation ”

In many countries, citizenship education is part of the compulsory curriculum, whether delivered in discrete lessons, integrated into other disciplines or taught in a cross-curricular approach

(Eurydice, 2012). Yet, the impact of civic education critically depends on how programmes are designed, the kinds of teaching methods employed and the quality of facilitators or trainers. In the United States, the Student Voices in the Campaign curriculum educated high school students on national and local elections during the 2002/03 school year. The curriculum included student-centred activities such as mock elections, meetings with those campaigning for local political office, letter-writing, and online polls and discussion boards. A follow-up evaluation with students after the 2004 elections found the curriculum led to increased and sustained interest in formal types of political engagement such as volunteering for a campaign (Pasek et al., 2008; Syvertsen et al., 2009).

In the Dominican Republic, Poland and South Africa, adults who were exposed to civic education programmes conducted by NGOs were significantly more active in local politics, for example attending municipal meetings or participating in community problem-solving activities. The impact was greater when individuals received more frequent exposure to civic education; when messages were taught through active and participatory methods;

and when individuals had sufficient prior political resources to act on messages received through training (Finkel, 2002, 2003).

EDUCATION CAN CHANNEL DISCONTENT INTO NON-VIOLENT CIVIL MOVEMENTS

From the Occupy movement to the Arab Spring and mass protests on the streets of Brazil and Turkey, people around the world are increasingly using unarmed tactics to challenge oppressive, corrupt and unfair political and economic systems. Education makes it more likely that discontented citizens will channel their concerns through non-violent civil movements, such as protests, boycotts, strikes, rallies, political demonstrations and social non-cooperation and resistance. In China, citizens with a college degree not only agreed on the need to improve democracy, but supported various types of political participation, such as mass demonstrations and political rallies, and resisted the official government petitioning system (Wang et al., 2015).

Such non-violent actions take place outside traditional political channels, making them distinct from other non-violent political processes such as lobbying,

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Studies from 106 states show that groups with higher education are less likely to engage in violent protests

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electioneering and legislating. For those who fail to get what they need from the political system through the electoral system or by direct communication or negotiations, non-violent civil actions offer the potential for issues to be heard and possibly addressed. Using data on

238 ethnic groups in 106 states from 1945 to 2000, a study found that ethnic groups with higher levels of educational attainment were more likely to engage in non-violent protests than those with lower levels of education (Shaykhutdinov, 2011).

Not all non-violent actions succeed, but such activities are effective means of achieving significant social and political change. An analysis of 323 non-violent and violent resistance campaigns for regime change, anti-occupation and secession from 1900 to 2006 showed that non-violent resistance was nearly twice as effective as violent resistance in removing incumbent governments from power. Moreover, countries where

authoritarian regimes fall to non-violent uprisings are much more likely to transition to democracy and experience civil peace than if regimes fall to armed uprisings (Chenoweth and Stephan, 2011). Non-violent action was a central component of 50 out of 67 democratic transitions from 1973 to 2005 (Johnstad, 2010; Karatnycky and Ackerman, 2005).

In some countries, protest has arisen from higher educated individuals lacking suitable jobs. In the years leading up to the Arab Spring, the expansion of schooling in the Arab world increased the pool of individuals who had completed primary school and attained some secondary schooling (and beyond) but had not seen that education rewarded in the labour market. According to one study drawing on the World Values Survey from 2005–2007, in many countries in the Middle East marked by the Arab Spring, more educated individuals were more likely to engage in demonstrations, boycotts and strikes; the link between education and political protest was stronger among individuals who had poor outcomes in the labour market (Campante and Chor, 2012).

INVESTMENTS IN EDUCATION AND DEMOCRACY CAN BE MUTUALLY SUPPORTIVE

Broad and equitable access to good quality education plays an important role in sustaining democratic practices and institutions. Higher literacy levels, induced by the expansion of mass primary schooling, accounted for half the regime transitions towards higher levels of democracy over 1870–2000 (Murtin and Wacziarg, 2014). The likelihood of a country establishing and maintaining a democratic regime is higher the more educated its population. Oligarchic societies that started with a more equal distribution of education would be expected to democratize sooner (Bourguignon and Verdier, 2000). A study of 104 countries over 1965–2000 found that, even after controlling for country-specific effects, a more equal distribution of education was the main determinant for the transition to democracy (Castelló-Climent, 2008).

In many countries, greater access to tertiary education has played a critical role in promoting the transition to democracy and sustaining democratic regimes. University students were a driving force behind the popular protests that brought down many authoritarian regimes in sub-Saharan Africa in the early 1990s (Bratton and Walle, 1997). A study on Benin, Ghana, Kenya and Senegal showed that elected representatives with

tertiary education formed the core of cross-party coalitions that initiated recent reforms (Barkan et al., 2004).

Just as equal education opportunities for all can facilitate democratic regimes, democratic governance tends to result in more and better education. The success of the Universal Primary Education programme in Uganda was heavily influenced by Uganda's return to mult candidate – if not multiparty – political competition in 1996. It increased the incentive for the government to successfully implement the programme because of perceptions that the government's performance would be judged accordingly. Ugandan voters indeed evaluated their president's overall performance highly, and the Universal Primary Education programme was one of the major reasons (Stasavage, 2005).

HOW TEACHING IS DONE MATTERS FOR THE POLITICAL OUTCOMES OF EDUCATION

An open learning environment that supports discussion of controversial political and social issues, and allows students to hear and express differing opinions, has been shown to lead to better political outcomes (Davies, 2009). Through interactions with peers, teachers and political leaders, students gain knowledge about the political process, engage in careful reasoning about policy issues and practise how to argue and debate. Similarly, active and participatory teaching methods, such as role playing, dramatizations and group decision-making, have a greater effect on individual political orientation than more traditional rote learning does (Harber and Mncube, 2012).

Drawing on data from 35 countries participating in the 2009 ICCS, a recent study showed that openness in classroom discussions, with students having the opportunity to discuss and give their opinion on political and social issues, was positively associated with individuals' future intention to participate in civic and political engagement (Quintelier and Hooghe, 2013). In Israel and Italy, an open and democratic classroom climate has been shown to help students become civically and politically involved by fostering citizenship self-efficacy (Ichilov, 2007; Manganelli et al., 2015). More specifically, an open classroom climate can foster political participation by students from disadvantaged socio-economic backgrounds, as a study in the United States showed (Campbell, 2008).

In South Africa, since the early 1990s, Street Law's Democracy for All programme has provided civic education in grades 11 and 12, including participatory activities such as case studies, role playing and mock trials. Students exposed to this programme at least weekly were found far more likely to correctly identify names of key South African political leaders and possess basic knowledge of the constitutional structure than students who received civics instruction less often or not at all (Finkel and Ernst, 2005).

In Guatemala, the Nueva Escuela Unitaria model's active participatory learning approach in rural and indigenous schools included self-instructional workbooks and teacher guides, an integrated active pedagogy, the development of pedagogical materials, and extensive community involvement. First and second graders attending these schools showed significantly more democratic behaviours (including turn-taking, expressing opinions, assisting others and leading) than their counterparts in traditional schools (De Baessa et al., 2002; Mogollón and Solano, 2011).

Implementing learner-centred pedagogy is not without challenges

The implementation of learner-centred pedagogy in classrooms can admittedly be difficult, especially in contexts with few textbooks and teaching materials, large class sizes and inappropriate furniture (Schweisfurth, 2011). It can also be challenging because pedagogy ultimately relates to power relations within classrooms and beyond (Altinyelken, 2015). In Ethiopia and Namibia, the basic tenets of student-centred pedagogy sometimes conflicted with local understandings of authority structures, obedience and teacher-student relationships (O'Sullivan, 2004; Serbessa, 2006). In some East Asian countries, teacher-dominated pedagogy prevails; it is considered more compatible with societies that value high stakes testing and show deference to teachers (Nguyen et al., 2006).

The external political environment can also shape the internal characteristics of classrooms. Interviews with teachers and school management in Ankara, Turkey, found that the authoritarian nature of political and social environments, combined with increasing limitations on freedom of speech, gave children a strong message that dissenting voices were not welcome and, worse, not tolerated (Altinyelken, 2015).

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EDUCATION AND CONFLICT IS MULTIFACETED

It is estimated that well over 100,000 people were killed in armed conflict in 2014 – the highest annual fatality count in 20 years. There were important regional variations. The Middle East was the most violence-prone region, with developments in Iraq and the Syrian Arab Republic mainly responsible for driving up the death toll (Melander, 2015). The underlying causes of armed conflict are multiple and complex; lack of good quality education is seldom, if ever, the primary precipitating factor. But under certain conditions, it can exacerbate the wider grievances, social tensions and inequalities that drive societies towards armed conflict.

TOO LITTLE EDUCATION OR UNEQUAL EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES CAN MAKE SOCIETIES MORE PRONE TO CONFLICT

When large numbers of young people are denied access to a good quality education, the resulting poverty, unemployment and hopelessness can act as recruiting agents for armed militia. An analysis of 120 countries over 30 years found that countries with large numbers of young men were less likely to experience violent conflict if their populations had higher levels of education (Barakat and Urdal, 2009). In Sierra Leone, young people who had no education were nine times as likely to join rebel groups as those with at least secondary education (Humphreys and Weinstein, 2008).

Yet, more education is not automatically a panacea for the threat posed by the combination of mass unemployment and a high proportion of youth to adults. As was noted above, when education levels rise but labour markets are stagnant, the result can be a rapid increase in the number of better-educated unemployed young people resentful over their lack of prospects.

In Uttar Pradesh state, India, the disillusionment of educated youth (usually young men) who were unable to secure jobs was seen as undermining social cohesion and political stability (Jeffrey et al., 2007). In Peru, large-scale qualitative research identified dissatisfaction with public education, corruption in the education sector and a lack of mobility associated with education (particularly outside the capital) as key causes for the growth of armed factions, as these grievances were used to recruit

both students and teachers (Comisión de la Verdad y Reconciliación de Peru, 2003).

“ An analysis of 120 countries over 30 years found that conflict was less likely when education inequality is lower ”

Inequality in education, interacting with wider disparity, heightens the risk of conflict. A recent study drawing on data from 100 countries over 50 years found that countries with higher levels of inequality in schooling due to ethnic and religious differences

were much more likely to experience conflict (FHI 360 Education Policy and Data Center, 2015). Across 22 countries in sub-Saharan Africa, sub-national regions with very low average education had a 50% probability of experiencing the onset of conflict within 21 years, while the corresponding interval for regions with very high average education was 346 years (Østby et al., 2009).

A striking body of evidence suggests that people willing to use violence to pursue political ends are more likely to come from higher educated sections of society. Drawing on public opinion polls, a study found that, among Palestinians in Gaza and the West Bank in the 1980s, higher levels of education did not necessarily decrease support for violent attacks. In Lebanon, Hezbollah combatants who were killed during paramilitary operations had more education than non-combatants of the same age group and regional background (Krueger and Maleckova, 2003).

CONTENT AND PEDAGOGY CAN MAKE SOCIETIES MORE OR LESS PRONE TO VIOLENT CONFLICT

Why does access to formal education not always keep people from participating in violence, particularly in the context of violent extremism? Part of the answer lies not in the amount of education but in what and how students are taught. When sites of learning are used not to nurture minds, by teaching learners to think critically, but to inculcate prejudice, intolerance and a distorted view of history, they can become breeding grounds for violence.

In many countries, curricula and learning materials have been shown to reinforce stereotypes and exacerbate political and social grievances. In Rwanda,

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35% of out-of-school children live in conflict-affected countries

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a review of major education policies and programmes implemented between 1962 and 1994 argued that the content of education reflected and amplified ethnic inequality in society and contributed to categorizing, collectivizing and stigmatizing Hutu and Tutsi into exclusive groups (King, 2014). In India and Pakistan, textbooks and curricula have perpetuated images of the rival nation to suit their adversarial relationship and political goals (Lall, 2008).

Disputes over curricular contents have sometimes directly spilled over into violent conflict. In 2000, when overtly Sunni textbooks were introduced in Pakistan’s Federally Administered Northern Areas, the local Shia population began to agitate for equal representation in textbook discussions of Islam. The conflict became acute in 2004–2005 as violent confrontations took place between Shia and Sunni communities, with the resulting curfews closing down schools for almost a year (Ali, 2008).

Language in education policies can be a source of wider grievances. In multi-ethnic countries, the imposition of a single dominant language as the language of instruction in schools, while sometimes a necessity, has been a frequent source of grievance linked to wider issues of social and cultural inequality (UNESCO, 2016). By one estimate, over half the countries affected by armed conflict were highly diverse linguistically, making decisions over the language of instruction a potentially divisive political issue (Pinnock, 2009).

Violent conflict has often followed group-based inequality exacerbated by language policies in education. In Nepal, the imposition of Nepali as the language of instruction fed into broader grievances among non-Nepali-speaking groups that drove the civil war (Murshed and Gates, 2005). Guatemala’s imposition of Spanish in schools was seen by indigenous people as part of a broader pattern of social discrimination. Armed groups representing indigenous people demanded bilingual and intercultural education during negotiations on a peace agreement, leading to a constitutional commitment (Marques and Bannon, 2003).

ARMED CONFLICT PLACES A HEAVY BURDEN ON EDUCATION SYSTEMS

Armed conflict is one of the greatest obstacles to progress in education. In conflict-affected countries, almost 21.5 million children of primary school age and almost 15 million adolescents of lower secondary school age are out of school. Over the last decade, the problem of out-of-school children has been increasingly concentrated in conflict-affected countries, where the proportion increased from 29% in 1999 to 35% in 2014. This trend is especially marked in Northern Africa and Western Asia where the share increased from 63% to 91% (UNESCO, 2016). Recent estimates indicated that surging conflict and political upheaval across the Middle East and North Africa prevent more than 13 million children from going to school (UNICEF, 2015).

The experience of the Syrian Arab Republic provides a stark example of how conflict can reverse achievements in education. According to data from the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS), by 2001 the country had achieved universal primary enrolment and relatively high secondary enrolment. Yet, as the civil war spread, the primary net enrolment ratio, which was still at 98.9% in 2009, declined to under 71% in 2013, with the number of primary school-age children out of school increasing from 21,000 to 563,000.

Armed conflict also interrupts progress in education. Two decades of conflict in Afghanistan up to 2001 resulted in a loss of 5.5 years on the total average years of national schooling; Burundi’s civil war cost the country over 3 years (UIS, 2010). Similarly, the 1992–1998 civil conflict in Tajikistan resulted in a decrease in school attainment for girls. Girls exposed to conflict were 12% less likely to complete compulsory schooling than older cohorts who completed their schooling before the conflict (Shemyakina, 2011).

In addition, armed conflict exacerbates inequality. Conflict-affected areas are often marked by extreme disadvantage in education, with the poor typically faring worst.² Young adults in the Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao in the Philippines are four times more likely than the national average to have fewer than four

years of education – and six times more likely for poor males (Figure 1.1).

When Guatemala’s civil war started in 1965, indigenous people averaged three years fewer in school than the average. By the start of the 1991 peace talks, indigenous people in areas not affected by the conflict had gained 3.1 years in education while for those in conflict-affected areas, the education gap with the rest of the indigenous population had increased from 0.4 to 1.7 years (UIS, 2010).

CHILDREN, TEACHERS AND SCHOOLS ARE INCREASINGLY ON THE FRONT LINE OF CONFLICT

Children, teachers and schools are on the front line of conflict and many have been deliberately targeted. State and non-state actors alike often blur the line between combatants and civilians. In the majority of countries with armed conflicts – including at least 26 between 2005 and 2015 – government armed forces and non-state armed groups have used schools and other education institutions for military purposes. In addition to risking students’ and teachers’ lives and safety, the military use of education institutions impinges upon access to education, decreases the quality of education and compromises efforts to create safe learning spaces (Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack, 2015).

Deliberate destruction of education facilities is a long-standing practice in armed conflicts (UNESCO, 2011). Most of Timor-Leste’s education infrastructure was

destroyed in the 1998–1999 war, and 95% of schools required rehabilitation. In Iraq, 85% of schools were damaged or destroyed by fighting during the conflict of 2003–2004 (Buckland, 2005). Between 2009 and 2015, attacks in north-eastern Nigeria destroyed more than 910 schools and forced at least 1,500 to close. By early 2016, an estimated 952,029 school-age children had fled the violence (HRW, 2016). By 2016, the Syrian Arab Republic had lost more than one-quarter of its schools – more than 6,000 damaged by the violence, forced to close, or used for fighting or sheltering hundreds of displaced families (UNICEF, 2016).

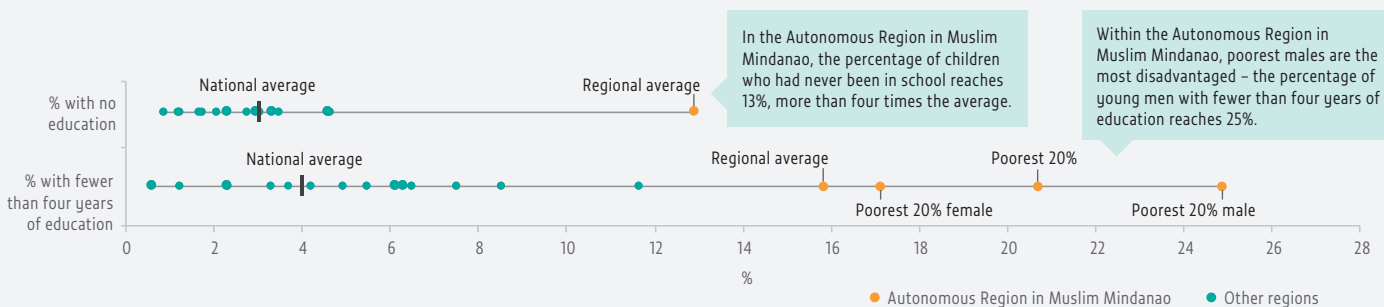
Teachers are at risk. During the Rwandan genocide, more than two-thirds of the teaching force in primary and secondary schools was killed or fled (Buckland, 2005). In Colombia, 140 teachers were killed over 2009–2013, around 1,100 received death threats and 305 were forced to leave their homes because their lives were at risk (Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack, 2015). As of 2015, in Nigeria, where Boko Haram has targeted education workers and students, at least 611 teachers had been deliberately killed and 19,000 forced to flee since 2009 (HRW, 2016).

The forced recruitment of children into armed forces, often through abduction, is widespread. It is an immense barrier to education, not just because child soldiers receive no formal education, but also because abductions and trauma have far wider effects on the children themselves and their home communities. Reliable and recent data on the global number of child soldiers are not available.

FIGURE 1.1:

In the Philippines, children and youth in a conflict-affected region are left behind

Percentage of children who had never been to school and of 20- to 24-year-olds with fewer than four years of education, conflict-affected region and other regions, 2013



Source: GEM Report team analysis (2016) based on 2013 data from Demographic and Health Survey.

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Refugee children and adolescents are five times more likely to be out of school than others

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Refugees are a huge challenge for education systems

Almost 60 million people were in forced displacement in 2015, the highest number since 1945 (UNHCR, 2015). They include internally displaced people (IDPs), asylum seekers and refugees, a small percentage of whom are resettled. Moreover, people are spending longer and longer time in displacement and refuge, compromising prospects of durable solutions and reinforcing the urgency of a sustainable, comprehensive response by the international community.

Data remain limited for many refugee situations, but the most recent data from the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees estimate that, worldwide, 50% of primary school-age refugee children are out of school and 75% of adolescent refugees at secondary level are out

of school. Refugee children and adolescents are five times more likely to be out of school than their non-refugee peers. However, this average obscures significant differences across countries. Primary enrolment rates among the displaced are 80% in Egypt and Yemen but 40% at refugee sites in Pakistan. Enrolment rates are substantially lower at the secondary level: only 4% of 12- to 17-year-old refugees were enrolled in school in Kenya and Pakistan (Figure 1.2).

The provision and quality of education in some refugee settings are limited, with shortages of qualified teachers proficient in an appropriate language, pupil/teacher ratios as high as 70:1 and high proportions of unqualified teachers. Official learning validation and certification, which are important for the effective education of refugee children, are often ignored (UNESCO and UNHCR, 2016).

EDUCATION CAN HELP BUILD SOCIETIES AFTER CONFLICT

Segregation is a common legacy of conflict. Institutional environments play an important role in reintegrating post-conflict communities and can address differences between ethnic and religious groups (Alexander and Christia, 2011). On the other hand, where schools maintain the status quo, they can predispose young people towards segregation and engrain discriminatory attitudes, leading them to believe intolerance is socially acceptable (Ramirez-Barat and Duthie, 2015).

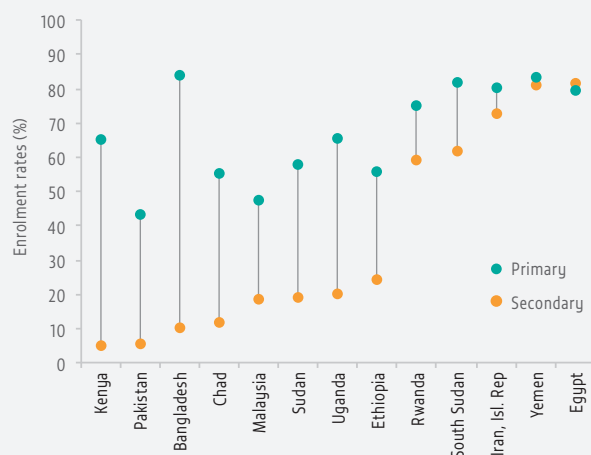
Integrated schools have been found to positively influence minority group identity, prevailing attitudes towards inclusion and exclusion, and a sense of forgiveness, with the potential to heal division and promote less sectarian perspectives (McGlynn, 2004). Members of communities educated together may develop more tolerance (Hansson et al., 2013).

In Bosnia and Herzegovina, schools have been segregated along linguistic and ethnic lines since the end of the war in 1996. In some cases, students from different ethnic groups attend the same school but are

FIGURE 1.2:

Education conditions for refugee children vary widely

Primary and secondary enrolment rates, selected refugee sites in selected countries, 2014



Source: GEM Report team analysis (2016) based on 2014 UNHCR data.

physically separated, are taught in different languages and follow specific ethnic curricula. An interim measure meant to facilitate the return of refugees immediately after the war became an entrenched practice that impedes younger generations' learning to live together (Ramirez-Barat and Duthie, 2015).

In Northern Ireland in 2013, 15 years after the Belfast Agreement, 93% of children and youth attended schools segregated by religion. A bottom-up movement for integrated cross-community schools began in the late 1970s, largely because of a campaigning group of parents known as All Children Together. As of 2008, 61 integrated schools had been created, where children from both communities are brought together daily to interact in the classroom and during extracurricular activities. The schools include training programmes to prepare teachers for cross-community settings, as well as a curriculum that includes opportunities to discuss potentially contentious aspects of the country's cultural traditions and sectarian conflict (Aiken, 2013).

In Israel, there are six Arab-Jewish bilingual schools, where mixed classrooms are a central aspect, reflecting the schools' commitment to strengthening group identity while encouraging tolerance and respect for pluralism (Bekerman, 2016). These schools have had some success in mediating conflicting national narratives, creating opportunities to talk about the conflict and recognizing ethnic, religious and other differences (Bekerman, 2012).

Curricular content can help or harm inter-group relations after conflict. Developing curricula about the recent past is difficult and may be contested. In Bosnia and Herzegovina three parallel education systems, each with distinct historical narratives, were created; in Rwanda the teaching of history was postponed for 10 years following the genocide (Freedman et al., 2008; Jones, 2012). In Guatemala, Peru and South Africa, while history education teaches about recent conflicts, it does not engage substantively with the causes of conflict and past injustices. Conflict is presented as exceptional, an aberration overcome by what is believed to be the present's democracy, active citizenship and a culture of peace (Paulson, 2015).

Education's contribution to peacebuilding also depends on the sensitivity of reforms and programmes to the legacies of past injustice. Transitional justice promotes accountability and the redressing of major violations

of human rights. It is increasingly recognized as a fundamental part of peacebuilding efforts, helping to strengthen the rule of law, address grievances among affected communities and prevent the recurrence of violations. Adding a dimension of transitional justice to the reconstruction of education after conflict is challenging, yet measures can be designed to establish links with and catalyse change in education (Ramirez-Barat and Duthie, 2015).

The success of any curricular reform or innovation in learning materials depends on the availability of motivated, engaged and trained teachers. Teaching in ways that encourage critical thinking and embrace complexity is difficult, all the more so in conflict-ridden countries, such as Bosnia and Herzegovina and Rwanda, where teachers may be reluctant or ill-prepared to discuss contentious issues, fear engaging with political issues or have been socialized to accept one-sided

“ To ensure the best results from peace education, we need to train teachers how to discuss contentious history

narratives. In Lebanon, teachers chose to avoid contentious historical issues in lessons, partly because their training had failed to equip them with skills to manage, contain or solve classroom conflicts (van Ommering, 2015). In Guatemala, teachers believed it

was important to teach about the civil war but often felt unprepared to facilitate discussions for lack of appropriate training and learning materials (Bellino, 2014).

In Kenya, a review of peace education programmes in refugee camps and nationwide highlighted challenges for teachers in embracing learner-centred pedagogy such as participatory and interactive approaches. For example, classroom observations in Dadaab and Kakuma refugee camps showed that most teachers had poor questioning skills (Mendenhall and Chopra, 2016; Obura, 2002).

Peace education can offer a response to direct violence and help prevent further violence

In many countries, thousands of children are being taught by educators using peace education curricula involving methods and learning processes that include inquiry, critical thinking, and dialogue towards greater equity and social justice. The scope of peace education

has expanded in recent years to become more inclusive of areas such as human rights education, citizenship education, multicultural education, environmental education and social justice education (Bajaj, 2008; Bajaj and Hantzopoulos, 2016).

Although well-designed peace education interventions are rarely subjected to rigorous scrutiny, studies show they can reduce student aggression, bullying and participation in violent conflict, and increase the chances that students will work to prevent conflict (Barakat et al., 2008; Barakat et al., 2013; Davies, 2005).

Many NGOs have contributed to peace education. In Gujarat state, India, the NGO Navsarjan focuses on the rights of Dalits (formerly called 'untouchables'), who make up around 16% of India's population (HRW, 2014). To address widespread caste discrimination in schools and the high dropout rate of Dalit students, Navsarjan set up several schools that specially cater to Dalit children living in the surrounding communities. Classes and assemblies reiterate messages about caste equality to eradicate the notion that Dalit children are less worthy than their higher caste peers. Students are also encouraged to critically analyse their society and become active in their communities by spreading awareness, joining campaigns for equality and fighting for justice (Bajaj, 2012, 2014).

EDUCATION NEEDS MORE EMPHASIS ON INTERNATIONAL PEACEBUILDING AGENDAS

Building sustainable peace is a major challenge. A 2009 study estimated that 40% of all conflicts reignited within the first decade of peace, highlighting the need for concerted international effort focused not just on ending conflict but on post-conflict peacebuilding (World Bank, 2009). Despite growing evidence of the role of education in peacebuilding, international actors have prioritized security issues - such as spending in military and security personnel - as in Lebanon, Nepal and Sierra Leone (Novelli et al., 2015). Of 37 publicly available full peace agreements signed between 1989 and 2005, 11 do not mention education at all. Even in those that do, education is addressed with great variation (Dupuy, 2008). Moreover, education stakeholders often lack skills and knowledge to integrate peacebuilding measures into education programmes or sector plans, or to lobby for education's role in peacebuilding frameworks (Novelli et al., 2015).

VIOLENCE IS A CHALLENGE FOR ALL, NOT ONLY FOR CONFLICT-AFFECTED COUNTRIES

The costs of interpersonal violence are far higher than those of armed conflict. The death toll of disputes between individuals, including domestic and family violence, is estimated at nine times that of war and other such conflict (Hoeffler and Fearon, 2014). Could education make a difference? Policies designed to increase educational attainment can significantly reduce crime rates. In Italy, more than 75% of convicted persons

“ In Sweden, each additional year of schooling decreased the likelihood of a conviction for a violent crime by 10%

had not completed high school in 2001, while United Kingdom incarceration rates among men aged 21 to 25 were more than eight times higher for those with no qualifications than for those with some qualification (Buonanno and Leonida, 2006; Machin et al., 2011). In

Sweden, each additional year of schooling decreased the likelihood of a conviction for a violent crime by 10%, for property crime by 14% and for other crimes by almost 6% (Hjalmarsson et al., 2015).

Education can be used to reduce violence against children

A prominent share of violence against children occurs within their own households. Around 6 in 10 children between the ages of 2 and 14 are regularly subjected to physical punishment by their caregivers (UNICEF, 2014). Action from the education sector can make a difference. For instance, parental and family-based skill-building initiatives on child protection and early childhood development can lead to behavioural change. In Liberia, the Parents Make the Difference programme involved a ten week parenting intervention including training in positive parenting and non-violent behaviour. When asked later about the last time their child misbehaved, only 9% of those who had participated reported beating their child, compared with 45% of those who had not. Participants replaced harsh punishment with non-violent discipline strategies using newly acquired knowledge and skills (Sim et al., 2014).

Around 120 million girls under the age of 20 have been subjected to forced sexual acts, including intercourse, at some point in their lives (UNICEF, 2014). A Ugandan programme provided life skills to build knowledge

and reduce risky behaviour, combined with vocational training to enable girls who had been forced into sexual acts to establish small enterprises. The programme reduced the incidence of girls who unwillingly had sex during the previous year by 83%, an impact largely attributed to life skills sessions and to discussion on negotiation, rape, legal rights and preventive measures (Bandiera et al., 2014).

All kinds of violence against children affect schooling, leading to lower educational attainment and poor employment prospects. Across 18 sub-Saharan African countries, gender-based violence – as measured by intimate partner violence, early marriage and female genital mutilation – had a negative impact on girls' schooling. In Comoros, Mozambique and Sierra Leone, the probability of attending school is, respectively, 42%, 25% and 15% lower for girls whose mothers justified intimate partner violence than for those whose mothers did not (Koissy-Kpein, 2015) – thus showing a cross-generational impact.

Schools are exposed to many forms of violence

To help sustain peaceful societies, schools must offer children a non-violent environment providing appropriate skills and practices for school and home.

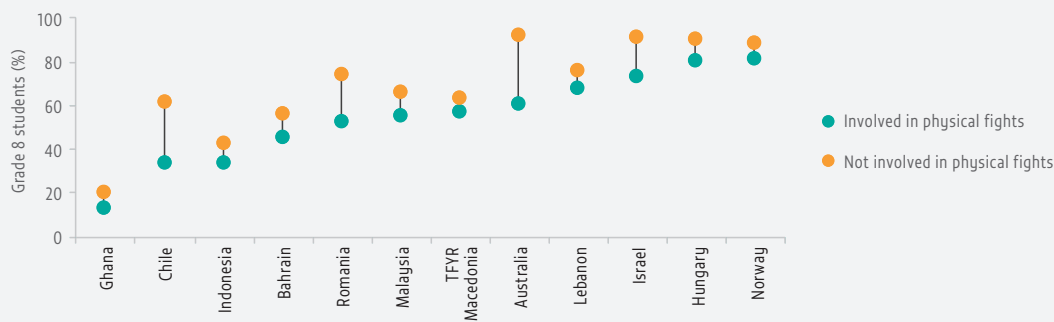
Recent estimates from Plan International, based on the numbers of those affected by verbal bullying, a common form of violence in school, indicate that 246 million children suffer school-related violence every year (Greene et al., 2013). This violence and abuse can seriously harm children's health, well-being and ability to learn to their full potential, reducing school participation, learning levels and completion rates. In Brazil, Ghana and the United States, bullying has been shown to increase absenteeism (Abramovay and Rua, 2005; Dunne et al., 2006; Kosciw et al., 2013).

A study drawing on data from the 2011 Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) from 48 countries showed that grade 4 students who reported being bullied weekly at school scored 32 points lower in mathematics than those who reported they had almost never been bullied (Mullis et al., 2012). New analysis of the same data shows that in many countries students in grade 8 who had reported being involved in physical fights in school scored lower in mathematics than those who had not. In Australia and Chile, the learning gap between students who were involved in physical fights in school and those who were not was almost 30 percentage points (Figure 1.3).

FIGURE 1.3:

Violence in school affects students' ability to achieve minimal numeracy skills

Percentage of grade 8 students scoring above the low international benchmark in mathematics, by their involvement in physical fights in school, selected countries, 2011 TIMSS



Source: GEM Report team analysis (2016) based on 2011 TIMSS data.

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Lack of knowledge and education severely hampers citizens' ability to interact with the justice system

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EDUCATION CAN PLAY A KEY ROLE IN BUILDING A FUNCTIONING JUSTICE SYSTEM

A functioning justice system that upholds the rule of law is considered critical for sustaining peaceful societies. Lack of knowledge and education, however, severely hampers citizens' ability to interact with the justice system. In 2011, according to court user survey results in the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, only 32% of individuals with primary education were 'well or partially informed' about the judicial system and its reforms, compared with 77% of those with higher education (World Bank, 2011). In Bangkok, many female victims of violence were unaware of the laws and legal procedures in place to protect them from, or redress, gender-based violence. Thus, even when financial resources were not a problem, they did not seek legal protection or justice (International Commission of Jurists, 2012).

CIVIL SOCIETY IS INCREASINGLY FILLING THE WIDE GAP IN LEGAL EDUCATION PROVISION

Increased awareness and understanding of legal rights can address many daily problems faced by the most marginalized populations. One promising mechanism is community-based education programmes, typically designed to advocate for the poor and enhance the legal empowerment of marginalized groups.

In Bangladesh, the Human Rights and Legal Aid Services (HRLS) programme of BRAC had provided rights-based legal education to over 3.8 million people as of 2013. The HRLS model is based on legal education, legal aid and community mobilization. Women learn about their legal rights through legal education classes that aim to empower them with a basic understanding of their rights and the laws, the first step in seeking justice. The programme also uses street theatre, a popular community outreach tool,

to promote behavioural change and create community acceptance of access to property rights for the poor (Kolisetty, 2014).

In Sierra Leone, over half of all people behind bars have not been convicted of any crime but are awaiting trial. Timap for Justice, an NGO, recruits and hires local community members, who receive basic legal training as paralegals. As a result of Timap's intervention, paralegals have succeeded in getting inappropriate charges dropped in 28% of cases, and secured bail for an additional 55% of suspects (Open Society Justice Initiative, 2015).

BUILDING THE CAPACITY OF JUDICIAL AND LAW ENFORCEMENT OFFICERS IS CRITICAL

Insufficient training and capacity-building for judicial and law enforcement officers hinders the carrying out of justice and can result in delays, flawed or insufficient evidence-gathering, lack of enforcement, and abuse. Many countries have critical shortages of trained police, legal and forensic staff. Only one doctor in Timor-Leste has reportedly been trained to collect evidence in sexual violence cases. Sierra Leone has just 100 trained lawyers, 90 of whom are based in the capital, Freetown, serving a population of more than 5 million (UN Women, 2011). In Rajasthan state, India, lack of skills has been identified as a barrier to effective policing. Training police officers in behavioural skills has had significant positive effects on the quality of police work and public satisfaction. In police stations where all staff were trained, victim satisfaction increased by 30%, while fear of the police was reduced by 17% (Banerjee et al., 2012).

Capacity problems are especially marked in post-conflict settings or in the aftermath of crises, when levels of violence are exceptionally high. In Haiti, the national police went from being the least to the most trusted institution of the state over five years through a

training programme established by the United Nations Stabilization Mission in Haiti. The mission provided a seven month initial recruit training programme, rather than the typical two to three weeks often seen in post-conflict environments, alongside other specialized training programmes. When Haitian citizens were asked in 2009 whether they had seen a change in police work over the past year, 72% reported a positive change, and 83% reported that the security situation in the country was either a lot or at least a little better than in the previous year (UNDPKO, 2010).

CONCLUSION

What makes a peaceful and non-violent society? How can development be made sustainable in conditions of violent conflict and insecurity? The answers are complex, yet education's role, though multifaceted, is crucial, whether it involves encouraging people, particularly the young, to vote, or supports participation in political processes and becoming politically active. What students are taught and how teaching is conducted are cornerstones of the relationship between education, conflict and peacebuilding. Peace and non-violence are not promoted simply by the virtue of children and youth attending school, but by teachers enabling students to acquire useful skills when confronted with circumstances that may lead to conflict or violence.

Education reflects social tensions, including conflict-related ideologies and stereotypes, so the relationship between education, peace and conflict deserves far more attention to enable the promotion of positive contributions to peacebuilding, access to justice and protection from violence, whether large-scale or intimate.

POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

In order to foster peaceful, just and inclusive societies that are free from fear and violence:

- Expand the emphasis on global citizenship and peace education in curricula.
- Invest in civic education programmes that contribute to a functioning justice system, including participation and access for marginalized communities.
- Promote learning emphasizing the values of tolerance and peace education to help build less violent and more constructive societies.
- Teach in children's mother languages. Countries with high proportions of minorities should consider training teachers in methods for teaching second language learners, in both initial teacher training and professional development.
- For refugees and internally displaced persons, implement policies that expand the pool of qualified teachers proficient in their languages, and address the issue of official validation and certification of learning by refugees. Refugees who were teachers in their home countries could be an important resource.
- Incorporate education into official foreign policy, transitional justice efforts and the peacebuilding agenda when trying to prevent and recover from conflict situations.
- Ensure curricula and learning materials are not biased or prejudiced against ethnic and minority groups. Engender resilience in students and communities in post-conflict societies through curricula, teacher training, transitional justice programmes and supporting integrated schools.
- Fund civil society organizations and other institutions that provide legal and political education in communities.

ENDNOTES

1. The institutional contexts in which voting decisions are made also matter. In countries where voter registration is undertaken by local authorities and is compulsory (e.g. the United Kingdom), the impact of education on voting behaviour can be largely muted (Milligan et al., 2004).
2. Intra-country comparisons should be treated with caution. It cannot automatically be assumed that conflict is the main source of educational disparity. Inequality associated with wider social, economic and political factors in conflict zones also influences opportunities for education.

In Cairo, the Recycling School, created with the support of UNESCO, gives children from the Zabbaleen community basic education, as well as health recommendations and practical training to turn recycling into a true profession.

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GEM Report

KEY MESSAGES

Target 4.7 is closely aligned with the vision of the 2030 SDG agenda. But the proposed ways of measuring progress towards it do not reflect its full ambition.

Curricula are the main way countries promote knowledge and skills on sustainable development and global citizenship to students. Most countries report that human rights education is included in their curricula and education standards. Comprehensive sexuality education, however, is not widely included.

Three-quarters of countries had some emphasis on sustainable development in their curricula over 2005–2015, but far fewer referred to terms related to global citizenship. Only 15% of countries included key terms related to gender equality.

Textbooks are a valuable source of information about national commitment to sustainable development. Close to 50% of secondary school textbooks mentioned human rights over 2000–2013, compared with around 5% over 1890–1913. A regular monitoring mechanism on textbooks is needed.

Teachers need to be trained to teach sustainable development and global citizenship, yet more than two-thirds of European countries do not include these topics in teacher training. The share of countries completely integrating sustainable development in teacher education rose from 2% in 2005 to 8% in 2013.

Monitoring knowledge and skills relevant to target 4.7 is not easy. Few assessments examine understanding of history, politics, geography, science and their interdependence. An assessment of grade 8 students in 38 countries showed that only two-thirds were familiar with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

Initiatives to monitor this target must address the tension between national values and commitment to a global agenda. Equally important is the need to evaluate knowledge and skills about sustainable development among adults as well as children and adolescents.

CHAPTER 2



TARGET 4.7

Sustainable development and global citizenship

By 2030, ensure that all learners acquire the knowledge and skills needed to promote sustainable development, including, among others, through education for sustainable development and sustainable lifestyles, human rights, gender equality, promotion of a culture of peace and non-violence, global citizenship and appreciation of cultural diversity and of culture's contribution to sustainable development

GLOBAL INDICATOR 4.7.1 – Extent to which (i) global citizenship education and (ii) education for sustainable development, including gender equality and human rights, are mainstreamed at all levels in (a) national education policies, (b) curricula, (c) teacher education and (d) student assessment

THEMATIC INDICATOR 26 – Percentage of students by age group (or education level) showing adequate understanding of issues relating to global citizenship and sustainability

THEMATIC INDICATOR 27 – Percentage of 15-year-old students showing proficiency in knowledge of environmental science and geoscience

THEMATIC INDICATOR 28 – Percentage of schools that provide life skills-based HIV and sexuality education

THEMATIC INDICATOR 29 – Extent to which the framework on the World Programme on Human Rights Education is implemented nationally (as per UNGA Resolution 59/113)

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Target 4.7 introduces education for global citizenship and sustainable development, and several related topics, explicitly linking education to other Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and capturing the transformative aspirations of the new global development agenda. More than any other education target, it touches on the social, humanistic and moral purposes of education, and their impact on policies, curricular contents and teacher preparation. It also acknowledges the important role of culture and the cultural dimensions of education.

The Inter-agency and Expert Group on SDG Indicators proposed a broad global indicator to capture the wide scope of target 4.7: ‘the extent to which global citizenship education and education for sustainable development are mainstreamed in national education policies, curricula content, teacher education and student assessment’. This measure embraces indicators relating to inputs and processes, but sidesteps the target’s aspirational intent of ensuring that all learners, young and old, acquire knowledge and skills aligned with the transformative 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.

This chapter focuses on the proposed global indicator and examines how global citizenship and sustainable development are included in system-wide interventions, curricular materials such as national curriculum frameworks and textbooks, and teacher education programmes. It addresses themes underpinning target 4.7, including human rights, gender equality, climate change, sustainable livelihoods, sexual and reproductive

rights, health and well-being, and responsible and engaged citizenship.

Target 4.7 is closely aligned with a lifelong learning framework, and does not specify the education levels or age groups to which its themes apply. Yet, the proposed global and thematic indicators mainly focus on children

“ Data gaps for monitoring national and global progress towards target 4.7 outside the formal education system are particularly wide ”

and adolescents in formal education. None of the proposed thematic indicators explicitly capture adult learners in non-formal and informal education settings. Data gaps for monitoring national and global progress towards target 4.7 outside the formal education system are particularly wide. Hence, this chapter discusses

recent initiatives to collect data more closely aligned with the concepts in target 4.7. Given the fluidity of country initiatives to address the many issues involved, it is important to use existing data sources to provide initial benchmarks for national and regional authorities.

Identifying indicators to monitor knowledge and skills that are needed to promote sustainable development – and that have meaning across a wide spectrum of socio-economic levels, political systems and cultural contexts – remains arduous (Fricke et al., 2015). This chapter

examines several initiatives that could be used to monitor acquisition of relevant knowledge and skills.

Individuals may acquire knowledge, understanding and skills but lack the disposition to use them. While target 4.7 does not explicitly say as much, the development of the right attitudes is an important dimension of global citizenship education (GCED) and education for sustainable development (ESD). This chapter thus briefly reviews several approaches to monitoring adolescents, youth and adult attitudes, and highlights challenges in establishing a global monitoring mechanism.

INTERNATIONAL STANDARD-SETTING INSTRUMENTS

Almost all the concepts mentioned in target 4.7 that promote sustainable development are found in international frameworks and conventions, notably the International Recommendation concerning Education for International Understanding, Co-operation and Peace and Education relating to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms, adopted by member states at UNESCO's 18th session in 1974. This recommendation lays out a normative framework for countries on issues related to peace and human rights in the goals, policies, contents and teacher training materials of national education systems (Arora et al., 1994; Savolainen, 2010; UNESCO, 2008).

Although compliance is voluntary, UNESCO has monitored member states' implementation on five occasions since 1974 (UNESCO, 2013). These monitoring exercises aimed to track the extent to which human rights materials and principles had been incorporated into the legal, administrative, educational and teaching tools that guide everyday practices in education (Prada, 2011). Response rates were low, however, though they increased from 18% of countries in 2009 to 28% in 2013 (UNESCO, 2009; 2013).

“ The percentage of countries that responded to monitoring exercises of human rights in education, legal and administrative systems rose from 18% in 2009 to 28% in 2013

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The adoption of the SDGs highlighted strong alignment between the 1974 recommendation and target 4.7 concepts. As a result, the significance of effective monitoring of country implementation of the recommendation became clearer. In 2016, UNESCO initiated a sixth consultation, asking member states to assess implementation of the recommendation over 2013–2016. The terms are relevant to the monitoring of target 4.7. Member states are asked to report whether the following topics are included in their curricula and, if so, at which levels of education and in which subjects: peace and non-violence, human rights and fundamental freedoms, cultural diversity and tolerance, and human survival and well-being. Additional questions monitor the inclusion of these topics in textbooks, teacher education, student assessments/examinations, and programmes outside the school system, including non-formal education, informal education, adult education and media-based education (UNESCO, 2016e). To increase response rates, the 2016 questionnaire includes many more multiple choice questions than before.

Nevertheless, as past low response rates showed, many national ministries are limited in the capacity to respond to such surveys and the resources to prepare high quality national reports. Gathering the information to be included is hampered by the need to coordinate responses across relevant ministries and departments (Yusuf, 2007). It is difficult to assure the objectivity and validity of self-reported information, which can lower its monitoring value. Therefore, more systematic and rigorous approaches to monitoring country progress towards target 4.7 are needed to supplement country reports.

CURRICULA

Curricula are the main way in which knowledge and skills to promote sustainable development and global citizenship are typically conveyed to students. This section reviews mechanisms to monitor the adoption of topics relevant to sustainable development and global citizenship into official curricula. It then discusses a comparative approach for monitoring curricula at the global level.

HUMAN RIGHTS EDUCATION

One thematic indicator proposes measuring the extent of national implementation of the framework on the World Programme on Human Rights Education, in which the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for

Human Rights (OHCHR), in cooperation with UNESCO, has developed programmes and curricula to teach human rights. This indicator captures elements of target 4.7 as regards human rights, fundamental freedoms and tolerance, among others.

The first phase of the World Programme for Human Rights Education, 2005–2009, focused on integrating human rights education in primary and secondary schools. An evaluation in 2010 analysed implementation of this aspect, relying primarily on responses to an OHCHR questionnaire distributed to 192 member states (UNIACC, 2010).

Most countries, including Australia, Barbados, Chile, Côte d'Ivoire, Indonesia, Namibia and Zambia, reported human rights education as being integrated into national curriculum and educational standards. A few countries teach human rights as a stand-alone subject

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Most countries report human rights education as being integrated into national curriculum and educational standards

but many integrate it as a cross-cutting issue, most often in subjects such as citizenship, civic education and social studies, but also in disciplines such as law, religion, life skills, ethical and moral education, and environment (UNIACC, 2010).

”
The second phase of the programme, 2010–2014, focused on human rights in higher education and for teachers and educators, civil servants, law enforcement officials and military personnel.¹ Responses from 28 countries showed that the topic was most often addressed as a core curricular element in university undergraduate and graduate faculties or departments of law, political science, social science and/or international relations, as well as in general humanities and socio-economic courses (OHCHR, 2015).

At the global level, in addition to this programme, the Universal Periodic Review process and the work of Special Rapporteurs help in monitoring human rights education, but response rates are low and responses insufficiently systematic for a clear global picture.

To ensure that governments meet their obligations to report to the international community, review and monitoring activities initiated by local actors are very important. HRE 2020, a civil society coalition to support

and strengthen compliance with international human rights education commitments, recently provided an indicator framework to systematically document national commitments to carry out a comprehensive and coordinated effort for human rights education and training (HRE 2020, 2015).

Other monitoring efforts have been undertaken on specific elements tied to universal human rights frameworks, such as education about the Holocaust (Box 2.1).

BOX 2.1

Monitoring Holocaust education in curricular content

Education about the Holocaust is expected to provide learners with knowledge and skills to help them become responsible and active global citizens who think critically, value human dignity and respect, reject prejudice that leads to violence and genocide, and contribute to a more peaceful, tolerant, inclusive and secure world.

Analyses of textbooks worldwide show that Holocaust education is increasingly taught in the context of universal human rights frameworks rather than as an isolated European historical event, thereby reflecting growing expectations about the humanistic and universal significance of learning about the Holocaust.

A recent study by UNESCO and the Georg Eckert Institute for International Textbook Research analysed Holocaust education in 272 national secondary-level curricula in 135 countries. It showed the Holocaust was part of the curriculum in about half of the countries, with varying contexts and terminologies. National curricula tend to 'domesticate' Holocaust history by explaining it in relation to local histories of mass atrocities. The Holocaust is most frequently mentioned in history in the context of the Second World War, but also in relation to human rights and human rights violations. In a comparatively high proportion of curricula in countries in Europe and Northern America, the Holocaust is a compulsory topic.

One-quarter of curricula contain no references to the Holocaust. Yet, while they do not prescribe specific content, they discuss the purpose of the subject and methods to be used in its teaching. About one-third of the curricula do not mention the Holocaust explicitly but refer to its context. For example, in Zimbabwe the curriculum refers to injustices practised by Nazis and atrocities against minorities, and that of the Democratic Republic of the Congo discusses the harmful effects of Nazism.

Sources: Bromley, (2013); Bromley and Russell, (2010); UNESCO (2014c); Carrier et al. (2015).

COMPREHENSIVE SEXUALITY EDUCATION

One proposed thematic indicator for tracking progress towards target 4.7 is the percentage of schools providing life skills-based education on HIV and on sexuality.

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Out of 28 countries in Asia and the Pacific, 22 included comprehensive sexuality education in secondary school curricula; 12 did at the primary level

Comprehensive sexuality education is one of the most pressing and universal priorities for the health, well-being and development of young people. Recent evidence indicates that such education not only plays an important role in preventing negative

sexual and reproductive health outcomes, but also offers a platform to discuss gender issues and human rights, and promote respectful, non-violent relationships (UN Trust Fund and Instituto Promundo, 2012; UNFPA, 2007).

Sexual health, gender equality and human rights are interrelated. The 1994 International Conference on Population and Development's Programme of Action and other international agreements, such as the Ottawa Charter for Health Promotion, reflect this relationship and make clear that sexuality education must integrate these domains (Haberland and Rogow, 2015). The proposed thematic indicator thus responds to five elements of target 4.7: human rights, gender equality, culture of peace, non-violence, and knowledge and skills to promote sustainable development and lifestyles (e.g. by helping reduce early pregnancy and family size and instill values and skills for responsible parenthood).

Several multicountry reviews of comprehensive sexuality education have been conducted. A review of 335 national laws, policies, strategies, curricula and training materials in 28 countries in Asia and the Pacific showed considerable variation in addressing sexual and reproductive health issues. Some countries, including Cambodia, Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand and Viet Nam, integrated comprehensive sexuality education across primary and secondary education, while there was no or very limited integration in Brunei Darussalam, the Islamic Republic of Iran and Pakistan. Comprehensive sexuality education was included in secondary school curricula in 22 of the 28 countries; 12 did so at the primary level. Information on curriculum integration at tertiary level was scarce (UNESCO, 2012c).

Providing comprehensive sexuality education mainly at the secondary level misses the many adolescents in much of the world who are not in secondary school. It is thus important to track the extent to which children and adolescents benefit from such content in non-formal education. In 17 of the 28 countries, sexuality issues were included in non-formal education, targeting out-of-school youth and others, though the scope and nature of these activities were unclear (UNESCO, 2012c).

In 10 countries of sub-Saharan Africa, an in-depth review of curricula found that most included at least some information on gender, but the messages were sometimes contradictory and reinforced gender inequality. Gender-based and intimate-partner violence were sometimes overlooked, including in South Africa, which has one of the world's highest rates of sexual violence. The inclusion of human rights varied but mostly did not address sexual rights. None of the curricula addressed sexual diversity. The issue of child marriage was omitted or poorly addressed in many of the countries where it is highly prevalent, including Kenya, Lesotho and Malawi (UNESCO and UNFPA, 2012).

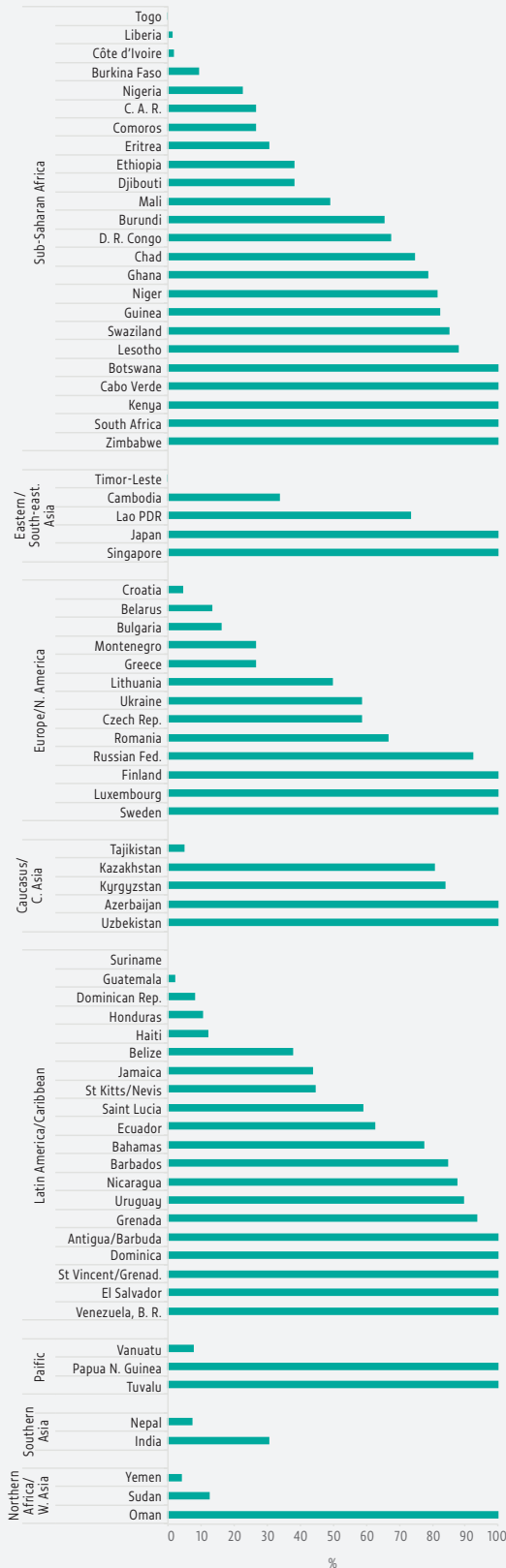
The Sexuality Education Review and Assessment Tool provides a framework for assessing the scope, content and delivery of comprehensive sexuality education. Used to assess national sexual education programmes in 13 countries of sub-Saharan Africa, it showed that less than half met global standards for required content across all age groups. The weakest content was related to the coverage of gender and social norms (Herat et al., 2014; UNFPA, 2015b).

In Latin America and the Caribbean, the International Planned Parenthood Federation used a standardized questionnaire to collect data from 19 countries' health and education ministries. Only half of the countries reported comprehensive sexuality education curricula that adequately included lessons on topics including gender equality, sexuality, HIV and AIDS, violence prevention and interpersonal relationships (Hunt et al., 2014).

Where sexuality education has been integrated into curricula, its implementation can vary substantially. The Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS) Inter-Agency Task Team on Education has developed 15 core indicators on the education response to HIV. One relates to the percentage of schools that provided life skills-based HIV and sexuality education in the previous academic year at either primary or secondary level. Until 2011, this indicator was gathered through the United Nations General Assembly Special

FIGURE 2.1:**In 32 countries, fewer than half of schools provide life skills-based HIV education**

Percentage of schools that provided life skills-based HIV education at either the primary or secondary level in the previous academic year, selected countries, 2009-2010



Source: UNAIDS (2011).

Session country reporting system (Clarke and Aggleton, 2012). However, there were no standard guidelines for what constituted life skills-based education in response to HIV, and the information was self-reported, making its quality difficult to establish.

Despite such drawbacks, the indicators suggested how life skills-based HIV education was being carried out (**Figure 2.1**). In 2009, in sub-Saharan Africa, it had been provided in Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, Liberia and Togo in less than 10% of schools in the past academic year, compared with over 85% in some countries including Botswana, Swaziland and Zimbabwe (UNAIDS, 2011).

The inclusion of this indicator in education management information systems and school-based surveys has been field-tested in some countries, including the United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia, and will allow for better future monitoring (UNESCO, 2015h).

TOWARDS A GLOBAL MECHANISM TO MONITOR CURRICULUM CONTENT

These brief reviews of mechanisms that monitor the integration of human rights and comprehensive sexuality education into curricula show scope for improvement, particularly the need to include additional concepts and improve country coverage in monitoring.

Analysis for this Report reviewed over 110 national curriculum framework documents for primary and secondary education in 78 countries² for 2005–2015, focusing on five topics in target 4.7: human rights; gender equality; peace, non-violence and human security; sustainable development; and global citizenship/interconnectedness. The documents were coded using a standard protocol with a set number of key terms on each topic (IBE, 2016a).

This analysis highlights which topics and themes countries emphasize in their curricula. Elements pertaining to human rights are the most prevalent. Among the 78 countries, key terms such as rights (88%) and democracy (79%) were the most common. There was also some emphasis on sustainable development issues in about three-quarters of the countries, though key terms such as social and economic sustainability were present in less than one-third of the curricula.

Countries make less reference in curricula to key terms related to global citizenship, with only about 10% including concepts such as 'global inequality' and 'global thinking', and half mentioning globalization, multiculturalism and interculturalism. Gender equality

is also less prevalent: less than 15% of the countries integrate key terms such as gender empowerment, gender parity or gender-sensitive, while half mention gender equality (Figure 2.2).

In Latin America and the Caribbean, key terms related to sustainable development are common in Guatemala and Nicaragua, but much less so in Argentina, Belize, Dominica and Haiti. In sub-Saharan Africa, almost all key words related to sustainable development are found in Mauritius, but none in the United Republic of Tanzania and 10% in the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Niger. Terms related to global citizenship are much less prevalent. In Europe and Northern America, none are found in the United Kingdom, and only 30% were included in Croatia, France and Hungary (Figure 2.3).

The limited availability of curricular data poses a challenge for monitoring the intended content of education. While data for this new analysis cover many more countries than any other previous study, much less than half of the world's countries were included.

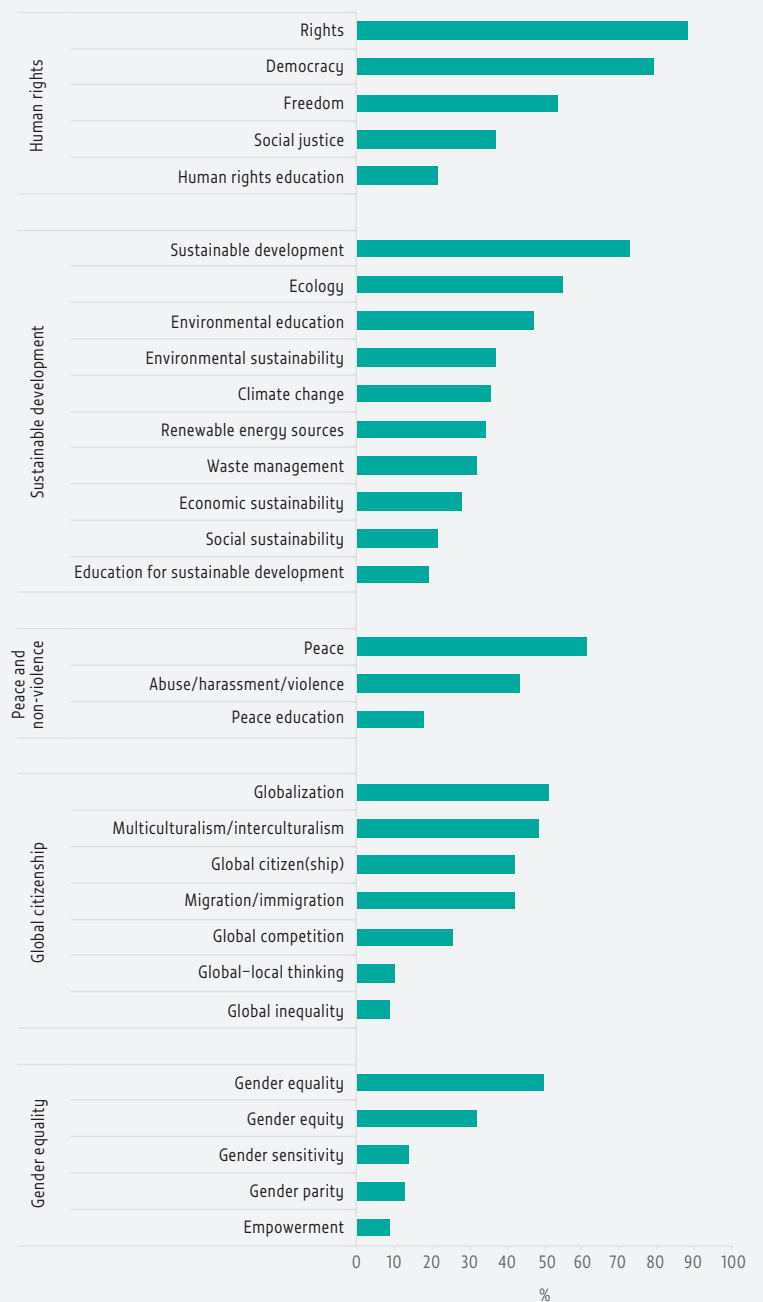
Further research into subject curricula would aid in understanding progress on target 4.7. Systematic lists of national curriculum frameworks and related materials are needed, which would require close collaboration between national education ministries and a leading international coordinating body such as the UNESCO International Bureau of Education (IBE). As national curricula are usually updated every five to seven years, on average, such global monitoring could be carried out in a similar time-frame (IBE, 2016a).

Whole-school approach

Education for global citizenship and sustainable development is not necessarily an additional subject to the curriculum. It is best adopted in a whole-school approach, with these themes explicitly expressed in school-wide priorities and school ethos, involving everyone from learners to the wider community. Whole-school approaches require more participatory and democratic decision-making that engages all stakeholders, including community members, school management, principals, teachers, parents and students (Bourn et al., 2016; UNESCO, 2015f).

The 2016 International Civic and Citizenship Education Study (ICCS) includes items that reflect components of the whole-school approach. Principals are asked about initiatives to create environments in which sustainable development principles are respected and students experience them by, for example, saving energy, reducing and separating waste, purchasing environment-friendly

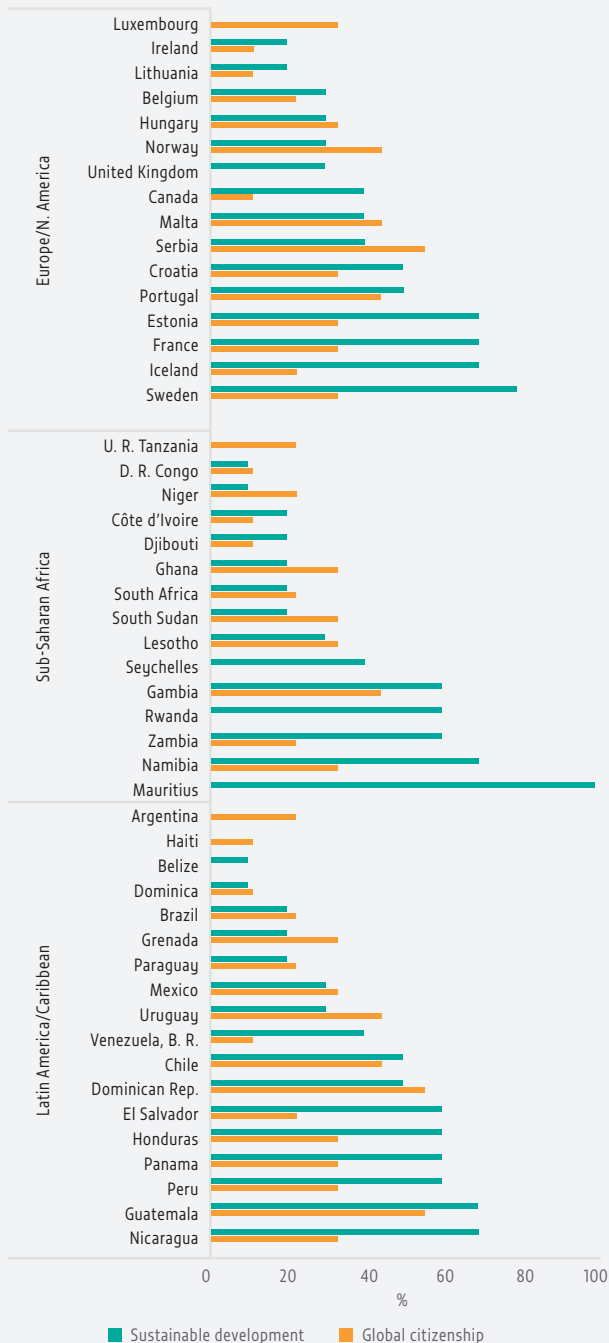
FIGURE 2.2:
Human rights is the most prevalent concept in national curricula
Percentage of countries including each of the key terms in their national curriculum frameworks, 2005–2015



Note: The analysis is based on a sample of 78 countries.
 Source: IBE (2016a).

FIGURE 2.3:**Prevalence of key terms relating to global citizenship and sustainable development varies across countries**

Percentage of key terms related to sustainable development and global citizenship in national curriculum frameworks, selected countries, 2005–2015



Source: IBE (2016a).

items and, more generally, having environment-friendly behaviour encouraged. Teachers are asked about their involvement in initiatives and programmes related to environmental sustainability (Schulz et al., 2016). Evaluating implementation of this approach will be challenging, as data will mainly draw on self-reporting and address only some aspects.

Some progress has been made in evaluating participation and decision-making. The 2012 Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) asked principals the proportion of parents participating in activities including school governance. The results showed less than 5% involved in countries such as Belgium, the Netherlands, New Zealand and the United Kingdom and over 50% in Colombia, Indonesia and Kazakhstan (OECD, 2013b).

International standard-setting instruments are also used to monitor democratic school governance. In 2010, 50 countries adopted the Council of Europe Charter on Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education. In 2012, the first monitoring of its implementation involved responses from 40 of the 50 countries, with over 90% reporting that they promoted democratic governance through student participation and parental involvement in decision-making. A follow-up questionnaire will be sent to governments in 2017 (Kerr, 2012).

TEXTBOOKS

Textbooks are a valuable source of information about national commitment to sustainable development. They tend to reflect classroom reality more closely (in terms of both contents and pedagogy) than official curricular policy statements (Torney-Porta et al., 2001). Recent advances in textbook content analysis are promising for gauging curricular content, especially if applied to large samples of textbooks from many countries.

An analysis of over 500 secondary education history, social science and geography textbooks, spanning 1970 to 2008, found that specific mentions of international events increased from 30% in the early 1970s to over 40% in 2005. While almost none of the textbooks mentioned globalization in 1970, nearly 40% did in 2005 (Buckner and Russell, 2013). Between 1975-1994 and 1995-2010, depictions of children as victims of mistreatment more than tripled, and descriptions of discrimination against women more than doubled (Terra and Bromley, 2012).



Close to 50% of secondary school textbooks mention human rights over 2000–2013, compared with around 5% over 1890–1913



In the Republic of Korea, a study documented the rapid rise of global citizenship education by describing trends in civic education textbooks, based on the average number of mentions of major national and global themes by page. National citizenship topics and themes remain core elements but emphasis on them has weakened over time, while global citizenship topics and themes have increased, especially in the 1990s and 2000s. In addition, textbook content and presentation have become more ‘progressive’ and increasingly learner centred, encouraging students to become self-directed, empowered individuals in a global society (Moon and Koo, 2011).

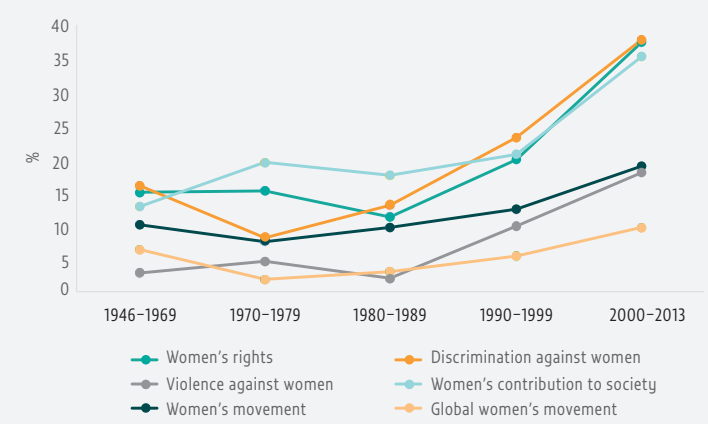
Analysis for this Report took a similar approach. Three data sets on secondary school textbooks in history, civics, social studies and geography were compiled. The vast majority of textbooks were drawn from the most extensive collection of textbooks from around the world, at the Georg Eckert Institute for International Textbook Research in Germany. Textbooks were coded using standardized protocols developed after much piloting and intercoder reliability testing (Bromley et al., 2016).

Analysis showed close to 50% of the textbooks mentioning human rights over 2000–2013, compared with around 5% over 1890–1913. The proportion of textbooks mentioning international human rights documents rose from 12% in the 1950s to 28% in the 2000s. The proportion mentioning women’s rights has increased since 1980 (Figure 2.4), but with considerable regional variation, from just above 10% in Northern Africa and Western Asia to 40% in Europe and Northern America and in sub-Saharan Africa (Bromley et al., 2016).

Five indicators were used to measure the extent to which textbooks explicitly emphasized environmental issues, including if environmental protection or damage was discussed in at least one paragraph, if this issue was linked to rights, and if it was discussed as a global issue. Coverage of issues related to environmental protection or damage has increased: in the 1950s, just under 5% of textbooks discussed the issue in at least one paragraph, while 50% did in 2000–2011 (Figure 2.5).

FIGURE 2.4:

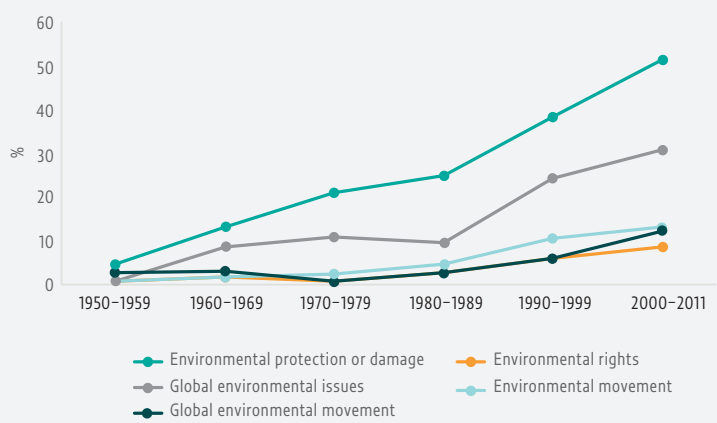
Some progress has been achieved in the extent to which textbooks include gender equality
Percentage of textbooks that include an explicit statement on women’s rights



Notes: Sample sizes for each period: 54 textbooks over 1950–1959, 88 over 1960–1969, 108 over 1970–1979, 103 over 1980–1989, 131 over 1990–1999 and 219 over 2000–2011 and 2000–2013. The latest data sets on women’s rights and discrimination are for 2000–2013; for the other statements, the data sets are for 2000–2011. Source: Bromley et al. (2016).

FIGURE 2.5:

Environment is a theme of growing importance in textbooks
Percentage of textbooks that include an explicit statement on environment



Note: Sample sizes for each period: 54 textbooks over 1950–1959, 88 over 1960–1969, 108 over 1970–1979, 103 over 1980–1989, 131 over 1990–1999 and 219 over 2000–2011. Source: Bromley et al. (2016).

TEXTBOOKS CAN STOKE OR PREVENT CONFLICT AND VIOLENCE

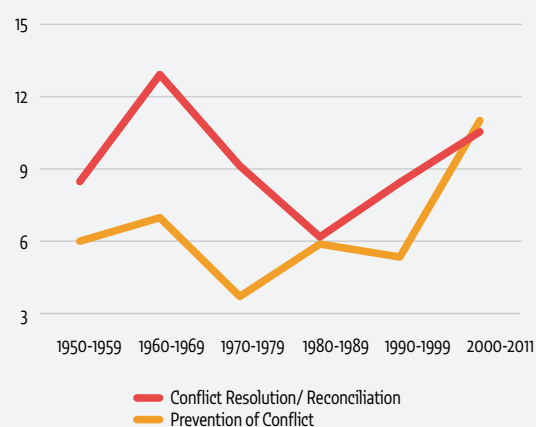
History textbooks can highlight social, cultural and ethnic diversity, and promote mutual respect and tolerance. By including explicit and implicit messages of peace, inclusion and reconciliation, the historical narrative chosen can cross-societal divides and help promote peace and non-violence. On the other hand, inaccurate and imbalanced textbooks can contribute to disrespect, conflict and violence by promoting narrow nationalism, political and religious bias, physical force and militarization, and propaganda (Greaney, 2006).

If education is to contribute to the development of peaceful societies, textbooks should provide a platform to discuss conflict prevention, as well as resolution and reconciliation. Despite an upward trend since the 1980-1989 period, only 10% of textbooks include an explicit statement on conflict prevention or conflict resolution and reconciliation mechanisms (at the individual, national or international levels) – including, for example, textbooks in Lebanon and Peru (Figure 2.6). The proportion of textbooks referring to conflict resolution and reconciliation mechanisms is highest in Latin America and the Caribbean, and in sub-Saharan Africa, standing at around 15% (Bromley et al., 2016).

FIGURE 2.6:

Few textbooks provide opportunities to discuss ways preventing and resolving conflicts

Percentage of textbooks that include an explicit statement on conflict prevention and resolution/reconciliation



Notes: Sample sizes for each period: 54 textbooks over 1950-1959, 88 over 1960-1969, 108 over 1970-1979, 103 over 1980-1989, 131 over 1990-1999 and 219 between 2000-2011.
Source: Bromley et al., (2016).

BREEDING INTOLERANCE AND PREJUDICE THROUGH TEXTBOOKS

Textbooks that glorify war and military heroes, exclude pluralistic perspectives, or undermine other peoples or ethnicities, contribute to an environment in which teaching peace, non-violence and reconciliation becomes difficult. Textbooks and curricula have played a major role in exacerbating social tensions and violent conflicts. In pre-genocide Rwanda, for instance, Hutu-dominated governments used textbooks to spread a version of history designed to generate prejudice against Tutsis, who were portrayed as outsiders who had conquered the country, imposed feudal role and oppressed the Hutu peasantry (King, 2014).

In Pakistan, textbooks have been criticized for normalizing militarism and war, and including biases and historical errors and distortions, thus promoting intolerance and bigotry (Afzal, 2015). Pakistani language and social studies textbooks from 1995 to 2010 contain many narratives about military battles from early Islamic history and wars between Pakistan and India. Prominent Pakistanis, with the exception of military heroes and leaders of the nationalist movement, are excluded (Naseem, 2014).

Pakistani textbooks published after the country's 2006 curriculum reform continue to emphasize wars with India while largely ignoring peace initiatives (Nayyar, 2013; Peace and Education Foundation, 2016). Moreover, textbooks perpetuate a narrative of conflict and historic grievances between Muslims and Hindus, rather than discussing the potential for conflict resolution and reconciliation (Peace and Education Foundation, 2016). Indian history textbooks from 2002, for their part, put the blame on Pakistan, and contain clear bias against Muslim elements of the history of the region (Joshi, 2010).

In Afghanistan, textbooks with violent, aggressive and militarist content were developed from 1986 to 1992 and continued to be used for several more years. They were highly politicized, promoting social division and violence. For instance, they used examples of counting bullets and bombs to teach mathematics and extremist references to teach literacy (Spink, 2005; Woo and Simmons, 2008). Since 2001, Afghan textbooks have emphasized peace, but new books have been of poor quality and much politically divisive text remains (Burde, 2015; Spink, 2005; Vanner et al., 2016).

Some textbooks fail to recognize the existence of others. Textbooks from Israel and Palestine present history and the current situation from unilateral perspectives that provide many more negative than positive descriptions of the other, and offer little information about everyday religious, cultural and social life. In 74 Israeli and 94 Palestinian textbooks, the vast majority of maps omit the existence of the other entity. Of 83 maps in Palestinian books, 58% had no borders within the area, no reference to Israel and referred to the entire area as Palestine. Similarly, 76% of 258 maps in Israeli textbooks did not indicate any borders between Israeli and Palestinian areas, although borders were indicated between Israel and neighbouring countries, and the label Palestine did not appear anywhere on the maps (Adwan et al., 2014).

In many countries in Europe and North America, the collective memory narrated in some world history textbooks has established a picture of Islam and Arab societies that is riddled with violence and conflict, which risks promoting stereotypical images of Muslim communities and intolerance towards them. In 72 world history secondary school textbooks from 16 countries, 50% to 75% of all coverage of Islam and Arab societies is related to conflict, nationalism, extremism or terrorism, representing these societies as violent and unstable. There are positive references to Islamic contributions to civilization through art, science and architecture, but the overwhelming representations of Islam and Arab society are negative (Wiseman, 2014).

PROGRESS TOWARDS PROMOTING PEACE

Some countries have made an effort to remove contentious content from textbooks, and to promote peaceful coexistence and social cohesion. One such example comes from Cyprus. In 2003, the Turkish Cypriot side adopted a new approach to history teaching, with the aim of developing a culture of peace. History textbooks published in 2004 and revised in 2005 focus on the shared experiences and histories of both sides of the island. Even the front cover of the 2004 books shows unification, representing the map of Cyprus with no dividing line. Phrases such as ‘motherland Turkey’ were replaced with phrases such as ‘our island’. History is no longer presented as a story of conflict. Instead emphasis is placed on examples of coexistence and cooperation, with a shift towards a shared social, cultural and economic history (Figure 2.7) (Papadakis, 2008).

FIGURE 2.7:
In Cyprus, a new history textbook illustrates the shared experiences of both sides



Source: Papadakis (2008).

Similarly, in the United States, textbooks’ coverage of the Viet Nam War has increasingly focused on soldiers’ suffering rather than glorifying the war. In 102 history textbooks published between 1970 and 2009, the proportion of items negatively portraying the Viet Nam War rose from 15% to a third. In the 1960s and 1970s, textbooks included photos showing helicopters over Vietnamese terrain with unharmed soldiers and no

other people present. Beginning in the 1980s, textbooks started to include numerous photos of wounded and crying soldiers, mourning soldiers and family members; and disabled veterans. Despite these changes, the violence done by Americans to Vietnamese still remains largely invisible (Lachman and Mitchell, 2014).

In Sri Lanka, textbooks long fostered enmity between ethnic groups. Sinhalese textbooks portrayed Sinhala kings as heroes defeating the Tamils, who were depicted as invaders. Sinhalese Buddhists were presented as the only true Sri Lankans (Cardozo, 2008). Six history textbooks spanning grades 7 to 11 published in 2007-2008 no longer include strong explicit stereotypes of Tamils but largely brush over Tamils' story, culture and religion by providing a Sinhalese-centric history of the country. The textbooks present role models that are almost exclusively Sinhalese, such as the kings Vijabahu I and Parakramabahu or prominent Sinhalese politicians. The absence of Tamil or Muslim role models offers pupils from minority communities few figures with whom to identify. Textbooks also fail to recognize alternative interpretations of historical events and to encourage students to engage critically with the past (Gaul, 2014). Sri Lanka has made some encouraging progress in textbooks, however. After decades of conflict and civil war between its two largest ethnic communities, Sri Lanka has initiated several reforms to include conflict resolution and reconciliation mechanisms in its textbooks (**Figure 2.8**) (Vanner et al., 2016).

This analysis shows it is possible to develop valid and reliable measures using textbooks. A regular monitoring mechanism should be established to provide globally comparable data on textbook contents across countries and systems and over time (Bromley et al., 2016).

Data collection needs to take into account subject and grade. There will be trade-offs between breadth and depth. Instead of analysing all textbooks in each subject and grade, the focus should be on the social sciences – civics, social studies, history – and natural sciences, where the relevant topics are taught most explicitly. One approach would be to cover textbooks at the end of primary, lower secondary and upper secondary education. As textbooks rarely change dramatically from year to year, gathering data every five years would be sufficient. It would also be possible to examine past trends.

FIGURE 2.8:
In Sri Lanka, a civic education textbook for grade 10 discusses advantages of peaceful conflict resolution



Source: Sri Lanka National Institute of Education (2014).

Ensuring that questions are valid across countries with different languages and cultures will be a challenge, but asking multiple questions on each theme would reduce errors associated with any single question. Questions need to be factual to minimize interpretation by coders. For instance, asking whether textbooks 'discuss human rights' would lead to responses varying with the coder's understanding of this concept. But asking whether textbooks explicitly use the exact phrase 'human rights' would provide more consistent responses.

Cooperation between governments and international organizations is necessary for a global monitoring system to work. National governments should give researchers open access to curricular content and information on how textbooks are developed and approved. An international coordinating body such as the IBE will be critical to the success of local data collection efforts.

TEACHER EDUCATION

The mainstreaming of sustainable development and global citizenship knowledge and skills in national curricula and textbooks is a prerequisite to monitoring country efforts to meet target 4.7. But it is not enough. Teachers who are prepared to teach in areas related to sustainable development and global citizenship are needed. Are global citizenship, human rights, sustainable development and comprehensive sexuality education included in teacher education? The content of teacher training programmes is seldom readily available, but some information, mostly regional, has been collected.

In teacher training programmes in 10 countries in Asia and the Pacific, information is very limited on how teachers are trained in areas related to global citizenship, including empathy, understanding discrimination, cultural sensitivity, tolerance, acceptance and communication skills. Yet, there are some national examples. After Sri Lanka established a Unit for Social Cohesion and Peace Education in 2008, head teachers, teachers and teacher trainers attended orientation and training in peace and values education. The Republic of Korea reported that policy guidelines on Major Directions for Training of Teacher Personnel encourage local education offices to provide in-service training on human rights (UNESCO, 2014d).

Various forms of in-service teacher education on citizenship education have a component on issues related to global citizenship and sustainable development. Nearly one-third of 36 European countries have programmes to help teachers develop professional knowledge and competencies on citizenship. In Latvia, national in-service training for secondary school teachers includes programmes to develop citizenship education competencies, including values and diversity in society and quality of life and sustainability. Italy's Puntoeuropa programme offers teachers online courses and regional workshops on topics such as human rights, intercultural dialogue and sustainable development and environment (Eurydice, 2012).

National reports to the OHCHR on the second phase of the World Programme on Human Rights Education can help monitor the extent to which countries include human rights in pre-service or in-service teacher education, although the response rate has been typically low. Of the 28 countries that submitted information in 2015, 7 reported integrating human rights training in pre-service teacher education. In Togo,

such training is necessary to obtain the professional qualification to teach in schools. In Honduras, a course helps teachers detect human rights violations, identify people in vulnerable situations and use appropriate methods to teach human rights in public schools. For in-service teacher education, 13 countries, including Estonia, the Gambia and Seychelles, reported that human rights training was an essential element of their programmes (OHCHR, 2015).

In some countries, civil society organizations have been involved in monitoring teachers' preparedness to teach human rights. In 2012, the Danish Institute for Human Rights conducted a mapping study of human rights education in primary and lower secondary schools and teacher training programmes. It found that human rights were not incorporated adequately in teacher training at universities and colleges. In focus groups, teachers and teacher trainers reported lacking theoretical knowledge on adapting human rights education for different grades. International and regional instruments on human rights education were also largely unknown (Danish Institute for Human Rights, 2014).

The quality of comprehensive sexuality education also depends ultimately on teachers' knowledge of the subject matter and their confidence and skill in its delivery. A review of policy documents and mapping of teacher training institutions in 21 countries in sub-Saharan Africa found that more than half the countries integrated comprehensive sexuality education in pre-service teacher education curricula. In Ethiopia, it was included in cross-cutting subjects that all trainees

“ In sub-Saharan Africa, more than half of countries integrated comprehensive sexuality education in pre-service teacher education curricula ”

studied. In seven countries, including the United Republic of Tanzania, it was a specialization option. Only eight countries, including Lesotho, Malawi and Namibia, made comprehensive sexuality education a compulsory module (UNESCO, 2015a).

Information on teacher preparation in life skills-based HIV education comes from the 2011–2012 Education Sector HIV and AIDS Global Progress Survey, commissioned by the UNAIDS Inter-Agency Task Team. Of the 39 countries surveyed, 74% reported providing pre-service teacher education on generic life skills

“ Very few cognitive assessments exist for the understanding of world history, geography, international institutions and global processes ”

and 62% on HIV education at the primary level. At the secondary level, the respective percentages increased to 79% and 72%. This survey is, however, relatively limited in scope, mainly reflecting self-reported data from national education ministries and civil society (UNESCO and UNAIDS, 2013).

In sub-Saharan Africa, 6 of 13 countries that used the Sexuality Education Review and Assessment Tool had strong ratings for more than 40% of elements of their teacher training programmes. The other 7 did not explicitly prepare teachers in areas such as addressing embarrassment when talking about sexuality, avoiding bias caused by personal norms and beliefs, and not pressuring learners to talk about sensitive topics (UNESCO, 2015b).

A recent analysis of teacher education programmes for primary and secondary school found changes over the past decade in attitudes, acceptance and discourse on education for sustainable development in teacher education. The analysis, based on 66 survey responses as part of a UNESCO assessment of the UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (2005–2014), found the share of countries completely integrating sustainable development in teacher education rose from 2% in 2005 to 8% in 2013. In pre-service teacher education, climate change, environment and human rights were the prevalent themes. They often integrated local issues, such as illegal logging and deforestation in Indonesia and disaster risk management in Japan, Pakistan and Viet Nam (McKeown and Hopkins, 2014).

More work is needed to develop system-level indicators that accurately capture teacher training needs for teaching knowledge and skills to promote sustainable development. One example is the UN Economic Commission for Europe framework for integrating ESD in teacher training curricula. It identifies key competencies for teachers and educators, including integrative thinking, inclusivity, dealing with complexity, critical analysis, active engagement in contemporary issues, creative thinking about alternative futures, and

transformative pedagogy (UNECE, 2012).

The data collection tools presented above, which all serve different purposes and respond to different needs, are too infrequently applied to fill the data gaps. Nor do they follow a systematic format that would ensure country comparability. Monitoring in this area, whether for teacher competencies or classroom interactions, will be challenging (**Box 2.2**). Therefore, stronger efforts are urgently needed to assess concepts in target 4.7 for teacher preparation and training. The application of a standard coding protocol – as for curricula and textbooks – to teacher training institutions’ curricula or to the possible inclusion of global competence as a theme in future rounds of the Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS), for instance, would make it possible to analyse the effectiveness of professional development in preparing teachers to respond to various groups of students, potentially through a range of teaching strategies (OECD, 2016a).

ACTIVITIES OUTSIDE THE CLASSROOM

While classrooms may be effective places to introduce students to sustainability and global citizenship issues, they are not the only ones, or necessarily the most potent. Extracurricular activities can strengthen and complement classroom interventions and textbook contents. Such activities outside the classroom that complement core academic content include academic clubs and competitions, student government associations, sports activities and teams, debate clubs, theatre productions, music groups and volunteer work.

An analysis for this Report has reviewed the impact of various extracurricular activities around the world. It finds that well-designed, inclusive activities that are accessible to all population groups improve conflict resolution and relationships for social cohesion, increase awareness of legal frameworks and concepts related to human rights as well as the personal capacity to claim and advocate for them, and promote a sense of global citizenship that transcends national boundaries and allows for greater communication and collaboration with people from other countries (Akar, 2016).

Such activities can empower young people to be confident and active agents of positive change to advance various elements of target 4.7, including equality

BOX 2.2

Monitoring classroom interactions on sustainable development is challenging

In GCED and ESD, participatory, learner-centred and inclusive teaching and learning practices are central. Qualitative tools have been used to track progress in adopting such practices. A study in 10 countries in Asia and the Pacific used qualitative techniques, such as classroom observations, to examine if teaching methods were conducive to a participatory and interactive learning environment. As part of this project, a study of 18 classes in 6 schools across 3 districts observed that in about half the classes, teachers relied on teacher-dominant and teacher-centred methods, while in the remaining half, teachers tried to make classes more interactive.

Methodological limitations and implementation costs make it unrealistic to look for global measures of classroom interactions. Yet, some cross-national assessments have looked at classroom practices in relation to GCED and ESD.

The 2009 ICCS, for instance, measured the climate for classroom discussion, within the limitations of self-reporting. Students were asked whether they expressed opinions in class even when their opinions differed from those of most other students, for example, and whether teachers presented several sides of an issue when explaining it in class.

Across the participating countries, 52% of students, on average, often observed that teachers encouraged them to express their opinions, and 11% reported that students often brought up current events in the classroom. Students were more likely to report an open classroom climate in some countries, including Denmark, Indonesia and Italy, than in others, including Malta and the Republic of Korea. ICCS 2016 will continue to ask questions about classroom interaction.

Sources: Schulz et al. (2010); UNESCO (2014d).

schools encouraging extracurricular science projects, 42% in schools organizing science fairs and 41% in schools with science clubs (OECD, 2012b).

The 2009 ICCS asked teachers if they and their students participated in school-organized activities in the local community, including activities related to environment, human rights, underprivileged people or groups, local multicultural/intercultural events, and awareness-raising campaigns such as World AIDS Day. Principals were asked how many students had the opportunity to take part in such activities. Across the countries surveyed, participation in environment-related awareness-raising campaigns and activities appeared to be widespread. Support of underprivileged people or groups was less common, except in Indonesia and Thailand, where around 70% of teachers said they had participated in such activities (Schulz et al., 2010).

Less information is available about extracurricular activities not organized by schools. Providers of such activities may not give information to or participate in any monitoring and reporting systems. It is hard to imagine global-scale monitoring of this area.

Some opinion surveys have collected data on involvement in extracurricular and similar activities. In 2014, Flash Eurobarometer telephone interviews, collected data on participation in society, in particular involvement in voluntary and cultural activities, from people aged 15 to 30 in the 28 European Union (EU) countries. Around 30% of respondents reported being active in a sports club in the past 12 months, while 16% were involved in a youth club, leisure-time club or other youth organization. On average, 5% participated in an organization promoting human rights or global development, and 3% in one involved in climate change and other environmental issues (European Commission, 2015).

and inclusion, peace, human rights and improved health, particularly as related to HIV prevention.

Some surveys monitor access to extracurricular activities, mostly organized by schools. The 2006 PISA, for instance, asked principals what kinds of extracurricular science activities their schools offered. On average, across OECD countries, 89% of students attended schools whose principals reported commonly offering science-related field trips. Other extracurricular science activities were less prevalent: 56% of students were in schools holding science competitions, 48% in

In some countries, national surveys can help track progress. In England (United Kingdom), the National Foundation for Education Research carried out a nine-year evaluation of citizenship education. The Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study began in 2001 and tracked a cohort of young people from age 11 to age 18; the group entered secondary school in 2002. The eighth and final report found a clear, steady decline in the share taking part in extracurricular activities (sports, arts, drama and hobbies), from 80% in grade 7 to 66% in grade 13 (Keating et al., 2010).

In the United States, the 2008 panel of the nationally representative Survey of Income and Programme Participation included a topical module on child well-being in the 10th wave of interviews conducted in 2011. The survey collected information on a variety of child well-being indicators to illustrate children's daily experiences, including participation in extracurricular activities. Data were limited to children aged 6 to 17 and based on parents' responses about children's involvement in three extracurricular activities: sports, clubs and lessons. It was found that 35% of children participated in sport and 29% in clubs or lessons including music, dance and language (Laughlin, 2014).

A major shortcoming of all these data collection tools is a lack of attention to the quality of experiences or development processes within extracurricular activities. And the absence of common or shared standards for publicly reporting information on extracurricular activities limits the chance of obtaining consistent and reliable data.

OUTCOMES

Monitoring the core aspiration of target 4.7 – acquisition of knowledge and skills needed for sustainable development – is not easy. Challenges include the scarcity of relevant student assessments or specially developed opinion or values surveys, the difficulty of developing test items that are context-relevant but not culturally biased, the broad scope of the target's topics and the relative lack of research on adult learning. One strategy would be to develop a pool of materials from which countries could select components that were

“ It is hard to test knowledge and skills for sustainable development in a way that is context-relevant but not culturally biased ”

poverty, migration, globalization, climate change), events and institutions are essential to an ability to contribute to sustainable development (Davies,

both culturally and age appropriate and could be linked to a comparative or international scale.

ASSESSING GLOBAL KNOWLEDGE AND UNDERSTANDING

Knowledge and understanding of global themes and issues (e.g. peace and conflict,

2006). A basic, interdependent understanding of world history, geography, international institutions and global processes could serve as a starting point to monitor knowledge regarding the concepts in target 4.7. Yet, few cognitive assessments exist in this area.

One example of student cognitive assessments comes from the 2009 ICCS, which drew on the 1999 Civic Education Study. With the aim of reporting on students' conceptual knowledge and understanding in civic and citizenship education, it used a 79 item test administered to grade 8 students in 38 countries of Europe, Asia and Latin America (Schulz et al., 2010).

The 2009 assessment included an item on knowledge of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which can provide a set of universal values as a basis for judgements about global issues (Osler and Starkey, 2000).³ An average of 68% of students responded correctly to this item. In Finland, Poland and the Republic of Korea, over 80% recognized that the declaration was intended to apply to all people; around 40% did so in the Dominican Republic and Thailand (**Figure 2.9**).

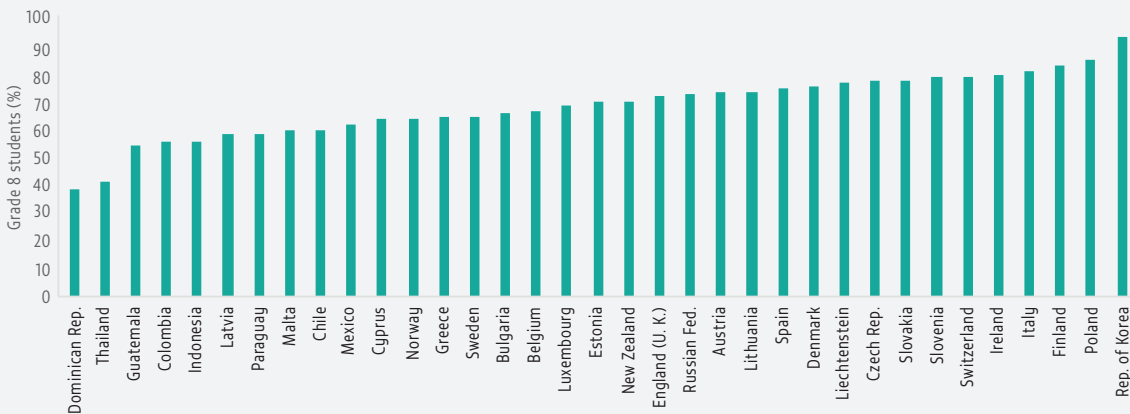
Regional modules for Asia, Europe and Latin America were added to the 2009 ICCS. In Europe, students were asked about basic facts on the EU and its policies, institutions, practices and processes to gauge their knowledge of supra-national political governance structures (UNESCO, 2015f). Only 57% knew how many countries were EU member states; national averages ranged from 35% in England (United Kingdom) to 75% in Slovakia (Kerr et al., 2010).

National assessments with a civics component can also gauge knowledge relating to global issues. In the United States, the 2014 National Assessment of Educational Progress assessed grade 8 students' knowledge of the benefits of international interactions such as trade, treaties and humanitarian aid. While 62% of students described benefits of two or three types of interactions, 11% could not describe a benefit of any type of interaction (Institute of Education Sciences, 2016).

Preparing learners for a future of climatic and environmental instability begins by helping them understand issues such as why and how climate change takes place, and its likely effects on habitats and ecosystems (Mansilla and Jackson, 2011). The 2006 PISA included questions designed to assess knowledge,

FIGURE 2.9:

In many countries, no more than two-thirds are familiar with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights
Percentage of grade 8 students responding correctly to the item 'Which of the following is the main purpose of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights?', 2009 ICCS



Source: Schulz et al. (2010).

skill and dispositions on environmental and geoscience among more than 400,000 15-year-olds from 57 countries. The study provided the first internationally comparable data on students' knowledge of the environment and related problems, the sources of this knowledge, their attitudes on environmental issues and the relationship between their results in environmental science and their environmental attitudes (OECD, 2009a).

Of the 108 questions in the PISA 2006 science assessment, 24 were related to environmental science; of these, 14 focused on geoscience. Each subset was the basis for a performance index. At the lower end of the index distribution, students were unable to interpret a graph or figure when given appropriate cues, or show basic knowledge of common environmental processes (OECD, 2009a). The environmental science performance index highlighted wide differences between countries. In Azerbaijan, Indonesia, Kyrgyzstan and Qatar, more than 70% of students were at level D or below, compared with around 25% in Canada, Estonia, Finland and Japan (Figure 2.10). These results from PISA 2006 could be taken as a baseline for the level of environmental science knowledge among 15-year olds.

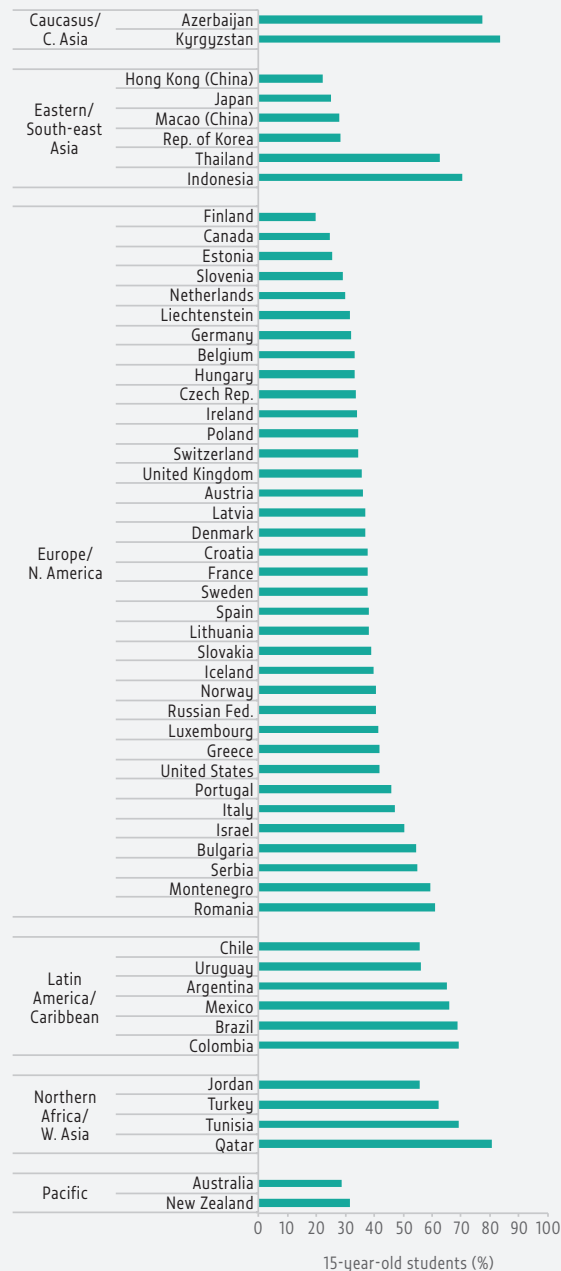
Since 2000, some national cognitive assessments have measured understanding of environmental issues and

the ability to use critical thinking in decisions about individual and collective action strategies.

A national assessment of grade 6 and 12 students conducted in Israel over 2004–2006 included nearly 20 questions on general environmental principles and national and global issues. Some 80% of sixth graders correctly answered questions about bottle-deposit laws and recycling, but only 25% were successful on questions about global warming and bird migration. Older students had higher scores: only 25% of sixth graders knew about waste management and the most polluting mode of transport, compared with 55% of 12th graders (Negev et al., 2008).

In Turkey, as part of a nationally representative survey of 2,412 grade 5 students, cognitive skills on environmental protection were assessed in terms of identifying, evaluating and solving problems. About 5% could correctly order the scientific processes given to solve water pollution. About 50% knew that identifying and assessing a problem starts with searching for relevant information from various sources, but only 27% knew that the last step was reporting and presenting the data collected (Erdogan and Ok, 2011).

FIGURE 2.10:
Environmental knowledge varies widely between countries
Percentage of 15-year-olds at level D or below on environmental science performance index, PISA 2006



Note: At the lower end (level D or below) of the index distribution, students cannot interpret a graph or figure when given appropriate cues, or show basic knowledge of common environmental processes.
 Source: OECD (2009a).

Improving on current assessments

Recent initiatives seek to improve monitoring mechanisms for target 4.7 regarding adolescents, mainly in secondary education. In 2016, UNESCO and the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) officially began collaborating on measuring global citizenship and sustainable development knowledge. The IEA's 2016 ICCS will ask students to rate the seriousness of threats including poverty; declines in living standards, economic well-being and environmental health; and attacks on human dignity. The ratings will indicate student awareness of global issues (Schulz et al., 2016). ICCS 2019 will build on the main cycle of ICCS 2016, extending country and thematic coverage. Critically, it will include indicators of knowledge, understanding, skills, beliefs, attitudes and behaviours relating to GCED and ESD.

A major limitation of ICCS is the country coverage. More are needed for this instrument to be used effectively to provide global estimates. Another limitation is the age of those assessed. Ages 13 and 14 could be considered appropriate in countries where compulsory education ends at 14, but marked differences between young people on political engagement start to appear at age 15 to 16. These differences need to be recognized (Hoskins, 2016).

A challenge for measuring outcomes related to target 4.7 has to do with tension between national values and the commitment to a global agenda. Hence, there is a need to develop comparative student assessments that are more attuned to local conditions. One promising example is the Southeast Asia Primary Learning Metrics, focusing on literacy, numeracy and global citizenship in grade 5. In 2016–2017, at least six countries in the region will pilot the assessment tools. By 2020, all countries of the Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization and the Association of Southeast Asian Nations are expected to join (SEAMEO and UNICEF, 2015).

Another recent development is the OECD decision to include global competence as a field for testing in PISA 2018 (see **Box 2.3**).

Data sources on adult global knowledge and understanding are even more limited

Existing data on knowledge and skills related to global citizenship and sustainable development tend to be limited to children and adolescents. Yet, it is equally important to evaluate similar knowledge and skills in the

adult population. There have been very few cognitive assessments, however.

One example was an early survey of global understanding in the United States that included measures of cognitive dimensions of global awareness and was not limited to knowledge of a particular culture or area. This nationally representative survey of some 3,000 undergraduates featured 101 items testing knowledge in 13 areas, including environment, international monetary and trade arrangements, human rights, and race and ethnicity. Only 31% of students identified crop cultivation as the human activity that has contributed most directly to environmental alteration of the greatest area of earth's surface (Barrows et al., 1981).

A more recent assessment of sustainability knowledge is the UN Sustainability Literacy Test (SULITEST). It is administered by higher education institutions to assess and verify sustainability literacy upon graduation. This online multiple-choice test measures the level of knowledge on social, environmental and economic issues and a basic understanding of the earth system. Of the 50 questions, two-thirds are related to international issues such as global warming, the rest being on national and regional issues such as legislation and culture. Between January and October 2014, almost 20,000 students in higher education took the SULITEST; the average score was 54% (Sustainability Literacy Test, 2014).⁴

Building on the idea that broad, integrated geographic knowledge is critical to becoming a global citizen, the National Geographic–Roper 2002 Global Geographic Literacy Survey assessed the geographic knowledge of 3,250 people aged 18 to 24 in nine countries.⁵ The survey contained multiple-choice questions on country identification from maps and on factual knowledge of world issues and current events, including population, natural resources, religion, politics and nuclear weapons. Results showed young adults were uninformed about global population issues, which affect, among other things, food and energy consumption. Only 40% or less of young adults in all surveyed countries except Sweden (61%) correctly named China and India as the countries with more than 1 billion people (RoperASW, 2002).

The follow-up National Geographic–Roper Public Affairs 2006 Geographic Literacy Study was conducted in the United States. As in 2002, factual questions were addressed to a representative sample of young adults.

BOX 2.3

Assessment of global competence in the 2018 PISA assessment

Countries participating in PISA are collaborating to develop an assessment of global competence to be conducted in 2018. It will involve testing 15-year-olds, who also take separate tests in reading, mathematics and science.

Global competence is a multidimensional learning domain encompassing three dimensions needed to engage in productive and respectful relationships with people from different cultures: knowledge and understanding, skills, and attitudes. It is defined as the capacity to analyse global and intercultural issues critically and from multiple perspectives; to understand how differences affect perceptions, judgements and ideas of self and others; and to engage in open, appropriate and effective interactions with others from different backgrounds on the basis of a shared respect for human dignity.

The cognitive assessment in the 2018 PISA currently proposed by the OECD aims to build a single scale to test knowledge, understanding, and analytical and critical thinking in a problem-solving context concerning a global or intercultural issue. It would include tasks that draw on numerous types of knowledge and thinking processes and would be designed to be appropriate to the context and learning of 15-year-olds.

The questionnaire would also include self-reported components on the dimension of knowledge and understanding – for instance, how familiar students are with global issues such as climate change and global warming, global health and population growth – and on linguistic, communication and behavioural skills required to interact respectfully, appropriately and effectively with others. Students' flexibility, empathy, openness to and respect for cultural otherness, global mindedness and responsibility will also be assessed.

Sources: OECD (2015e); OECD (2016a); Reimers (2010).

Only 35% correctly chose Pakistan from four possible choices as the country hit by a catastrophic earthquake in October 2005. Seven in ten young Americans could find China on a map but less than two in ten knew that Mandarin Chinese was the world's most widely spoken native language (GfK Roper Public Affairs, 2006).

International opinion surveys, such as the regional barometer surveys (Afro, Arab, Asian, Eurasia and Latino) and the World Values Survey (WVS), include questions on self-reported knowledge and understanding of global and intercultural issues. The 2005–2009 WVS asked about awareness of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs); only 5% of people surveyed in the United States and 11% in Japan had heard about them, compared with 27% in Germany and 31% in Sweden. Sub-Saharan African

countries registered the highest awareness of the MDGs, with 66% in Ethiopia, 47% in Mali and 44% in Zambia. This result indicated that people in countries that received aid were more likely to be aware of the MDGs than people in donor countries (Freschi, 2010). The potential of using international opinion surveys to measure adult global knowledge and understanding needs to be further explored.

SKILLS AND ATTITUDES

Critical skills for promoting sustainable development include communicating appropriately and effectively with people from other cultures or countries; comprehending other people's thoughts, beliefs and feelings and seeing the world from their perspective; adjusting one's thoughts, feelings or behaviours to fit new contexts and situations; and analysing and thinking critically in order to scrutinize and appraise information and meanings.

PISA 2018 will be an important step to assess such skills on a broader scale (OECD, 2016a). The cognitive assessment will be designed to test knowledge, understanding, and analytical and critical thinking in an authentic problem-solving context. Self-reported items will be incorporated to measure skills such as communication, flexibility and empathy (Box 16.3).

A number of cross-national assessments examine attitudes, including openness towards people from other cultures or countries, respect for cultural otherness and responsibility for one's own actions.

ICCS 2009 contained scales for monitoring supportive attitudes, e.g. on gender equality and towards migrants. Supportive attitudes on gender equality were captured by how students responded to positive and negative statements on ideas such as equal opportunity to take part in government and equal pay for the same jobs. Large majorities agreed with positive and disagreed with negative statements about gender equality, with girls expressing more support for gender equality than boys (Schulz et al., 2010).

Regional ICCS modules reflect local, national and regional differences. The 2009 Latin American questionnaire included items measuring acceptance and respect of social minority groups as neighbours. While most students in the participating countries (Chile, Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Mexico and Paraguay) were tolerant

of people of a different nationality, from other regions of the country or with a different skin colour, fewer approved of people with a different sexual orientation or with HIV (Schulz et al., 2011).

In the 2010 Australian National Assessment, student attitudes on indigenous cultures were measured in grades 6 and 10. In both grades, 9 out of 10 students agreed that Australia should support cultural traditions and languages of Indigenous Australians. A similar proportion agreed on the importance of recognizing traditional land ownership and giving everyone the chance to learn about promoting reconciliation between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians (Australian Curriculum Assessment and Reporting Authority, 2011).

The annual International Social Survey Programme (ISSP) is a cross-national collaborative project on attitudes concerning social issues, conducted in multiyear modules.⁶ Its third module on environment, in 2010, mainly dealt with attitudes on issues such as environmental protection, and respondents' behaviour and preferences regarding government measures on environmental protection.

An ISSP summary index on environmental attitudes shows Canada, Denmark and Switzerland leading the ranks in environmental concern, with Bulgaria, the

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The International Social Survey Programme shows that environmental concern is decreasing in almost all countries over the past two decades”

Philippines and South Africa at the lower end. Longitudinal analysis of successive ISSP waves shows environmental concern decreasing in almost all countries over the past two decades. In the United States, for instance, about 46% of the population was very willing or

fairly willing to pay much higher prices to protect the environment in 2000 and 2010, down by six percentage points from 1993 (Franzen and Vogl, 2013).

The European Social Survey, conducted every two years, consists of a core questionnaire and rotating questions. In 2014, the rotating questions were related to immigration. An active willingness to seek out and take up opportunities to engage with people from other cultures can be measured by, for instance, having close

friends of another cultural group. In France, Sweden and Switzerland, 35% of respondents reported not having close friends of a different race or ethnic group (ESS, 2014).

In 2015, the Pew Research Centre conducted a survey in 40 countries to measure perceptions of global challenges. The survey of representative samples of adults over age 18 showed that climate change was cited as the biggest challenge in 19 countries, making it the most widespread concern. In Latin America and sub-Saharan Africa, 50% of adults reported high concern about climate change. Global economic instability was the biggest concern in several countries and the second biggest in half the countries surveyed (Pew Research Centre, 2015).

Cross-national opinion surveys have their limits, however. Attempts to measure and analyse self-reported data on attitudes often confront the social desirability problem: adults are rarely willing to admit prejudices in relation to gender, race and religion in opinion surveys but may be more likely to give a socially acceptable or desirable response.

Overall, target 4.7 makes explicit the need for 'all learners [to] acquire the knowledge and skills to promote sustainable development'. Currently proposed indicators refer only to school-age children and adolescents. An appropriate monitoring framework would find ways to better capture the target's intent. Future data collection efforts should strengthen the knowledge base on out-of-school youth and all adults.

Furthermore, coordinated efforts are needed in developing a shared monitoring framework and conducting assessments of learners' knowledge and skills. Establishing common understandings at the regional level, such as the Southeast Asia Primary Learning Metrics, is likely to prove more feasible in coming years.

MONITORING CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES

Target 4.7: In response to explicit reference in the target to knowledge and skills related to sustainable development and global citizenship, the international community has prioritized progress assessments based on the content of education. This is positive, as it will

encourage countries to reflect on what is taught in classrooms. However, it has not been clarified how such information is to be collected and communicated at the global level.

UNESCO member states' reports on implementation of the 1974 Recommendation concerning Education for International Understanding, Co-operation and Peace and Education relating to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms are proposed as the mechanism to monitor progress towards the target. But low response rates and submission quality mean the process is weak and needs to be complemented by a more systematic and rigorous approach.

The GEM Report has proposed an approach that would require a systematic listing of national curriculum frameworks and a coding protocol to analyse curricular materials. Such a mechanism would also require close collaboration between education ministries and regional or international organizations to ensure that the quality of the information is good and that the process is country-led. The mechanism could also cover other aspects of national policies, including teacher education programmes, learning assessments and textbooks.

ENDNOTES

1. The third phase, 2015–2019, focuses on strengthening the work of the first two phases and promoting human rights training for media professionals (OHCHR, 2014).
2. 18 countries in Latin America and the Caribbean, 16 in Europe and Northern America, 15 in sub-Saharan Africa, 11 in the Pacific, 7 in Eastern and South-eastern Asia, 6 in Southern Asia, 3 in Northern Africa and Western Asia, and 2 in the Caucasus and Central Asia.
3. Understanding the importance of human rights helps understand the rights and responsibilities of individuals and groups, examine the multiple ways in which intolerance violates human rights, and recognize human rights violations such as racism, sexism and xenophobia (Reimers, 2010).
4. The SULITEST will also be available for companies and organizations in 2016.
5. Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Mexico, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States.
6. Module topics have included environment; the role of government; social inequality; social support; family and gender issues; work orientation; the impact of religious background, behaviour, and beliefs on social and political preferences; and national identity.

Peace: Building sustainable peace and global citizenship through education

Armed conflict and violence are among of the greatest obstacles to progress in education. Children, teachers and schools are on the frontline of conflict and many have been deliberately targeted; 35% of out-of-school children live in conflict-affected zones. *Peace: Building sustainable peace and global citizenship through education*, a publication taken from the full 2016 *Global Education Monitoring Report*, explores the multifaceted relationship between education and conflict and violence, especially in contexts where education is lacking, unequal or discriminatory. Violence in its many forms is a challenge for all, not only for conflict-affected countries. Education can play a vital role in preventing and mitigating interpersonal violence and ethnic tensions.

The publication argues that an education that is provided equally, with inclusive teaching and learning materials, is a powerful preventive tool and antidote for violence and armed conflict. While getting children into school does not automatically result in more peace, the right type of education can help. Gaining access to quality education lays the foundation for peace and non-violence, insofar as teachers enable students to acquire useful skills when confronted with circumstances that might lead to conflict or violence. By expanding education on global citizenship, sustainability and inclusion, and promoting learning that emphasizes the values of tolerance and peace education, we can help build peaceful, just and inclusive societies that are free from fear and violence.

The publication also provides evidence on the links between education and inclusive political participation, showing that education offers transformative possibilities for creating more open, participatory and democratic societies. Education makes people more likely to participate in political processes constructively and non-violently. Emphasizing participatory teaching and learning, especially in civic or citizenship education, can contribute to social cohesion and prevent and mitigate tensions. Sustainable peace also requires a well-functioning justice system that offers all citizens a more attractive alternative to violence to resolve both personal and political disputes.

Through exploration of target 4.7 of the Sustainable Development Goals, which considers the social, humanistic and moral purposes of education, the publication recommends ways that this ambitious target can be supported and measured through curricula, textbooks, teacher education and activities outside the classroom.

"The 2016 Global Education Monitoring Report is both masterful and disquieting. Education gives us the key tools – economics, social, technological, even ethical – to take on the SDGs and to achieve them. Yet the report also emphasizes the remarkable gaps between where the world stands today on education and where it has promised to arrive as of 2030. The implications are staggering. If we leave the current young generation without adequate schooling, we doom them and the world to future poverty, environmental ills, and even social violence and instability for decades to come. The 2016 GEM Report provides a plethora of insights, recommendations and standards for moving forward."

— Jeffrey D. Sachs, Special Adviser to the UN Secretary-General on the Sustainable Development Goals

"To ensure the SDGs are implemented, everyone involved needs to think, to work, to organise, to communicate and to report in ways that are completely different from what has been done up till now. Education truly is key to a wide appreciation not just of the SDGs but the new ways of thinking and working that are going to be necessary to fulfil them. So the challenge to all of us is to re-learn, and that does not just apply to educators, but it applies to all of us."

— David Nabarro, Special Adviser on 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development

