NONSTATE SCHOOLING IN THE MIDDLE EAST & NORTH AFRICA

MARCH 2021

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<th>ACRONYMS</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ALECSO</td>
<td>Arab League Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ALP</td>
<td>Accelerated Learning Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BLN</td>
<td>Basic Literacy and Numeracy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAPMAS</td>
<td>Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics (Egypt)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CERD</td>
<td>Center for Educational Research and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS</td>
<td>Classroom Size</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSO</td>
<td>Civil Society Organizations</td>
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<tr>
<td>DFID</td>
<td>Department for International Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>ECE</td>
<td>Early Childhood Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMIS</td>
<td>Education Management Information System</td>
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<tr>
<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HE</td>
<td>Higher Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information and Communications Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDP</td>
<td>Internally Displaced Persons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEA</td>
<td>International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INGO</td>
<td>International Non-Governmental Organizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISESCO</td>
<td>Islamic World Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISIL</td>
<td>Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT</td>
<td>Information Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J2SR</td>
<td>Journey to Self-Reliance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JEI</td>
<td>Jordan Education Initiative</td>
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<tr>
<td>KG</td>
<td>Kindergarten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LAES</td>
<td>Lebanese Associate for Educational Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ME</td>
<td>Middle East</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MEHE</td>
<td>Lebanon Ministry of Education and Higher Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MENA</td>
<td>Middle East and North Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOE</td>
<td>Ministry of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NA</td>
<td>North Africa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSS</td>
<td>Nonstate Schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PIRLS</td>
<td>IEA’s Progress in International Reading Literacy Study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PISA</td>
<td>Programme for International Student Assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PPP</td>
<td>Public-Private Partnership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTR</td>
<td>Pupil-Teacher Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SES</td>
<td>Syria Essential Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STEM</td>
<td>Science, technology, engineering, and mathematics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TIMSS</td>
<td>IEA’s Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TVET</td>
<td>Technical and Vocational Education and Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UIS</td>
<td>UNESCO Institute for Statistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNHCR</td>
<td>United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children’s Fund</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNRWA</td>
<td>United Nations for Relief and Works Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USAID</td>
<td>United States Agency for International Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USD</td>
<td>United States Dollar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WB</td>
<td>West Bank</td>
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I. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

EVALUATION PURPOSE AND METHODS

The purpose of this study is to examine the conditions of nonstate schooling at regional and national levels in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA), produce a deeper understanding of the nonstate schooling landscape, and build awareness of opportunities and challenges for partnering with nonstate schools in the region.

Through an analysis of publicly available resources about the “who, what, and where” of nonstate schooling in MENA, this study summarizes the existing literature on nonstate schooling at the preschool, primary, and secondary school levels in the MENA region by examining conditions regionally and in each country. In addition to the literature, this study draws from the data sets with information about nonstate schooling in the MENA countries from international, national, non-governmental, and other sources, including data collected, cleaned and analyzed by Social Impact from national governments and other relevant regional, national, sub-national, and private sector institutions and networks in select MENA countries where the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) has an active Mission (Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon and Morocco).  

The following study questions form the primary focus of this situational analysis:

1. What is currently known in the literature about preschool, primary, and secondary level nonstate schooling in MENA region countries including the variety of types, contexts, models, institutional arrangements, and policy environments?
2. What quantitative data on nonstate schooling are currently collected in MENA countries by international, national, and non-governmental actors?
3. What are the similarities and differences in the prevalence, distribution, characteristics, populations served, and outcomes of nonstate schooling between MENA region countries based on available data?
4. What are the gaps in data and knowledge on nonstate schooling in the MENA region?

The study team (ST) conducted the study in two phases:

Phase 1: Desk Review

- After working closely with the Middle East (ME) Bureau to develop the objectives and study questions, the ST went through the most recent research that took a global view and which attempted to define and categorize nonstate schooling. From this initial review, the ST adopted the definitions of nonstate schooling and developed an analytic frame (Table 4) to identify the many aspects of nonstate schooling. Section V presents the definitions and analytic frame.
- The ST then spent one month scanning academic and publicly available information and data in both English and Arabic, including quantitative data from the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Institute of Statistics (UIS) and international education assessments like the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). The ST recorded findings from each source in a spreadsheet system which and coded the findings on the spot using the analytic frame as well as by region and country. The ST identified data sets and, in some cases, analyzed them.

1 National government data typically provides limited information, particularly in conflict-affected environments.
2 Often countries will have private school associations of which can be a good resource to obtain data.
• Using the analytic frame as an outline, the ST transferred findings from the spreadsheet to the desk review report. The findings were polished and integrated into a desk review narrative including country and regional comparisons and contrasts.

Phase 2: National Data Collection

• The ST worked with USAID Missions to contact Education and Statistics officials in the countries under study and requested data from their education management information systems (EMIS) and/or other data sets on nonstate schooling.
• The ST conducted additional interviews and correspondence with government officials as well as officials with private school teachers and owners associations to fill knowledge gaps.
• The ST conducted quantitative analysis of the national data using MS Excel. Analyses were conducted on the number of nonstate schools as well as nonstate school enrollment, class size, pupil-teacher ratio, promotion rate, and dropout rate disaggregated by gender and refugees, and compared where possible to the public schools. The ST then triangulated these data with data and desk review findings from Phase 1 to determine reliability.
• The ST produced new regional and country narratives describing the national data and integrated these narratives with the desk review to form the final report.

CATEGORIES OF NONSTATE SCHOOLS

Except in Lebanon, West Bank/Gaza, and Jordan, educational provision in the region is widely dominated by the state. While there are several unique nonstate schooling models in Egypt, and a growing role for public-private partnership (PPP) and low-cost private models across the region, most schools in each country are state-operated and state-financed. Where there is nonstate schooling activity, they mostly fit into the following categories:

- **Religious Schools**: Private schools owned and managed by confessional/religious groups or associations for different Muslim and Christian denominations, with varying funding sources.
- **Preschools and Kindergartens**. While these preschools schools fit into the above category, they are highlighted here because in most countries studied, they are almost exclusively nonstate owned, managed, and financed.
- **Independent or International Schools**. These schools are funded primarily through pupil tuition and typically serve pupils from elite classes. While commonly found in most MENA countries, they serve the least number pupils in the nonstate schooling sector.
- **Free or Low-Cost Private Schools**. These schools are owned and managed by private individuals or organizations and sometimes subsidized by the state or other charity. They typically serve pupils from families of more limited means and appear to be the most common hybrid model. These schools are common in Lebanon.
- **Humanitarian and Refugee Schools**. These are schools that are owned, financed, and managed primarily by international donors and non-governmental organizations (NGOs), such as the United Nations for Relief and Works Agency (UNRWA) in Jordan, Syria, Lebanon, and West Bank/Gaza.
- **Community Schools**. These are a form of public-private partnership between NGOs, national governments, and local communities, offering reduced, accelerated, or nonformal curricula targeting vulnerable and low-income school-age populations, often in rural contexts. This model is championed in Egypt, with nearly 4,995 community schools as of 2020, although as single-classroom schools, they serve only 1 percent of the primary-age population.
Alternative State Schools. Although not typically considered nonstate, these are schools associated with civil or regional conflict in the form of state opposition groups and run by “alternative” governments or organized movements such as those run by the Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant (ISIL), Kurds in Syria and Iraq, or rebel militias in Libya. While somewhat in a category of their own, it is important to acknowledge their presence in the region.

Private Tutoring. Although not necessarily a part of “schooling,” private tutoring has become a more common practice across the MENA region, especially in Egypt. It is included here because its impact on social and educational inequality are like the selection effects of fee-charging private schools, namely that they give an advantage to pupils from families who can afford it.

NONSTATE SCHOOL ENROLLMENT TRENDS

As part of this study, the team investigated the availability of data on nonstate schooling in the region. The UIS data, which draws from the Educational Management Information Systems (EMIS) in each country—and each with its own definition of “private”—were obtained for eight of the ten countries under study; Libya and Iraq were the exceptions. Data from the PISA, an international assessment that measures 15-year-old students’ reading, mathematics, and science was accessed as well for Jordan, Lebanon, and Morocco, which participated in the 2018 assessment.

In general, nonstate schools have a higher presence in Lebanon, Jordan, and Morocco, and to a lesser extent Egypt (where a large segment of hybrid or “semi-state” community schools are not counted as private in the EMIS data). West Bank/Gaza also has a slightly larger nonstate enrollment proportion than Tunisia and Egypt, but still considerably less than its immediate neighbors.
Figure 1: Percentage of enrollment in nonstate PRIMARY education 2009 – 2018

Figure 2: Percentage of enrollment in nonstate SECONDARY education 2009 – 2018

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3 EMIS data does not have a consistent, grade level cut-off for primary. For West Bank/Gaza “primary” includes ALL grade (originally 1-10). For Lebanon primary includes both primary (1-6) and middle school (7-9). For Jordan it is inclusive of basic (1-10).

4 2009 – 2012 in Syria is represented by UIS data. The remaining years are pulled from EMIS data.
Over the last ten years where data was available, enrollment rates in most of the countries have stayed constant, with little to no change to the top four (Lebanon, West Bank/Gaza, Jordan and Egypt) as well as Yemen and Iraq. There were evident increases to enrollments in Morocco, particularly at the primary level, Tunisia at both levels, and Syria at the secondary level. These rates of growth are notable. While they remain greatly outnumbered in proportion to government school enrollments in their respective countries, Morocco and Tunisia sustained continuous growth in their private sectors over the decade, pointing to an unmet demand for an alternative to government schools.

NONSTATE SCHOOL EDUCATION OUTCOMES

In terms of nonstate school education outcomes, the ST investigated international examination data, as well as data on retention, promotion, and graduation rates, where available. Because these rates are calculated differently in each country and with varying degrees of accuracy, these are presented in each country profile where data was available. There is very little publicly available information about nonstate school pupil performance on national exams, or post-secondary enrollment rates of graduates from nonstate schools. The available evidence from the PISA international assessment, however, does point to a few trends in the study countries that participated – Jordan, Lebanon and Morocco:

Figure 3: PISA Scores by Country and Public vs Private (2018)

Pupils in private schools in Jordan, Lebanon, and Morocco scored between eight to 12 percent higher on average than their public-school counterparts in 2018. The slight but significant difference tentatively confirms the perspective of families in many of the countries under study—which is that nonstate schools outperform state schools—but without more detail on what types of public and nonstate schools are included in the PISA sample, these findings should be viewed cautiously.

5 The Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) is an international assessment that measures 15-year-old students’ reading, mathematics, and science literacy every three years in 80 countries and education systems. Jordan, Lebanon, and Morocco participated in the 2018 assessment.
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS BY COUNTRY

In addition to general and regional trends, this study focused on individual MENA countries and accounted for the many sub-contexts and conditions of nonstate schooling in the region. Individual country sections are in the Country Profiles (Chapter VIII). These findings are summarized below:

Table 1: Summary of Country Profile Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Nonstate Enrollment Proportion</th>
<th>Nonstate Education Testing Outcomes</th>
<th>Primary Types of Nonstate Schools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>25% ECE 9% Primary 8% Secondary</td>
<td>No PISA Data9</td>
<td>Religious Foreclosed Ind/Intern Free/Low Cost Hum/Refugee Community Alt State PovTut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraq</td>
<td>78% ECE 4.4% Primary 4.4% Secondary</td>
<td>No PISA Data10</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td>73% ECE 33% Primary 20% Secondary</td>
<td>PISA Data12 indicates students in nonstate schools score 6% higher on average than state school pupils</td>
<td>X X X X X X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>70% of total student population</td>
<td>PISA Data14 indicates higher scores among nonstate school students than state school pupils15</td>
<td>X X X X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libya</td>
<td>No UIS or EMIS data</td>
<td>No PISA Data</td>
<td>X X X X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>78-88% ECE 9-15% Primary 9-15% Secondary</td>
<td>PISA Data17 indicates higher scores among nonstate</td>
<td>X X X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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6 Very few data could be collected on nonstate schooling in Libya; not included in this summary
7 Based on available EMIS data; figures are proportions of total enrollments at a given level. The inverse of these figures can be understood as the proportion of pupils enrolled in state schools.
8 2014-2018 data. Community schools in Egypt are not included in the UIS data among those categorized as private, which represent roughly 6 percent of all public K-12 schools in Egypt
9 Recent studies note community schools now under perform against state schools in girls reading, math, civic knowledge, due to inconsistent MOE resourcing (Langsten, 2016)
10 However, a UNICEF study in 2017 suggests that pupils in private schools perform higher than their counterparts in primary education national exams (UNICEF, 2017, The Cost and Benefit of Education in Iraq, p.10)
11 Between 2010-2018
12 From 2009, 2012, 2015, 2018
13 From 2018
14 Data from 2015 and 2018
15 However, the OECD country average in reading for 2018 is 497. While Lebanese nonstate schools appear to add value compared to their state counterparts, their pupils still perform at the bottom of all 80 countries who participate in the PISA
16 From 2009-2018
17 Data from 2015 and 2018
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>ECE (%)</th>
<th>Primary (%)</th>
<th>Secondary (%)</th>
<th>PISA Data</th>
<th>Year Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Syria</td>
<td>71-87%</td>
<td>2.2-4.2%</td>
<td>3.8-8.4%</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>2009-2018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td>78-79%</td>
<td>3-7%</td>
<td>3-7%</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>2009-2018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Bank/Gaza</td>
<td>83-98%</td>
<td>13-14%</td>
<td>5-7%</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>2009-2018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yemen</td>
<td>45-51%</td>
<td>3-5%</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>2009-2018</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CONCLUSIONS

PREVALENCE/DISTRIBUTION OF NONSTATE SCHOOLS

- The extent of nonstate schooling at primary and secondary levels in most countries studied is well below the global average of about one-fifth; important exceptions are Lebanon, West Bank/Gaza, and Jordan. No single contextual factor across the region could be found which explains both the overall low nonstate school prevalence and their relatively higher concentrations in certain countries. Gross domestic product (GDP) levels across the region, for example, show no strong correlation with the presence of private schools. The ST concluded that each country has unique contextual dynamics which shape the presence and growth of nonstate schools.

- Comparative analysis of the growth in nonstate school enrollments over the last decade suggests that the nonstate schooling sector in the MENA region, while small, is growing steadily in Morocco, Tunisia and at the secondary level in Syria. The other six countries for which the ST analyzed data showed marginal to no growth. Again, given the diverse contextual dynamics playing out across the region, the political and economic factors driving these trends vary widely.

- The prevalence of hybrid, PPP, or “semi-state” models such as low-cost private schools which often receive state subsidies remain widely unknown due to the way in which private schools are collectively classified in government data. More country by country research is necessary to

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18 Fee-charging private schools were found to hold only a marginal advantage over state schools, with relatively few students in either model attaining the highest benchmark in math or reading in the 2011 PIRLS and TIMSS assessments (Ibourk 2016, p. 5-6).
19 From 2009-2013; no data available after 2013
20 From 2009-2018
21 One study using PISA 2009 data found publicly operated state schools slightly outperformed private schools in math and reading despite a positive correlation between private funding and achievement scores. While the disparity was attributed to the strong involvement of parents in pressuring state schools to achieve higher academic standards (Escardibul and Helmy, 2014, p. 508), the quality of for-profit private schools in Tunisia is generally low owing to the absence of a rigorous system of monitoring and evaluation (Bouguerra and Aboulkacem, 2016, p. 70, 78).
22 From 2009-2018
23 From 2010-2016
investigate and update the data on nonstate schooling in the region, especially with regards to state schools that are either owned, managed, or financed by a nonstate actor.

● Preschools and Kindergartens are almost entirely owned, financed, and managed by nonstate actors in the countries studied except for Egypt. Some states like Jordan and Tunisia have begun to attempt to regulate early childhood education (ECE) programs, but the effect on nonstate preschool is not known.

● The inconsistent availability of data for each country studied limited findings on nonstate school prevalence and distribution. Available EMIS data varied in depth and breadth, with some datasets offering a limited range of years or figures. Despite efforts to clean and systematize each, the ST could not disaggregate some figures into useable data on nonstate schools.

● The distinction between for- and non-profit, as well as ownership, finance, and management to structure a typology of nonstate schools is useful as it forces policy makers to confront benefits and tradeoffs when considering partnerships with the nonstate sector in areas like sustainability, secularism, profiteering, and regulation. Jordan may be a good case study for this trend, which has recently encouraged PPPs in education, and Lebanon, where a variety of models flourish.

● There is still a lot to learn about the variety of schools run as public-private partnerships in the region such as some free- or low-cost private schools and how pupils who attend them perform against pupils from state schools and even other types of nonstate schools.

POPULATIONS SERVED BY NONSTATE SCHOOLS

● Unsurprisingly children of elite and well-to-do families, particularly boys, are well served by fully private nonstate schools that rely on tuition as their primary source of financing, but this is also the smallest population served. More common are families seeking religious education, families with limited means seeking low-cost or free private schools as alternatives to poor quality state schools, families with preschool age children who can afford to pay tuition, internally displaced persons (IDPs) and refugees, and families seeking private tutoring.

● The literature on free- or low-cost private schools in the countries studied and especially in Lebanon, Jordan, and Morocco, is sparse. The EMIS data analyzed in this study did not significantly further our understanding of this nonstate school category given how private schools were mostly clustered together in country reporting.

OUTCOMES OF NONSTATE SCHOOLS

● There is not enough data to reliably assess if and where nonstate schools outperform state schools in the countries studied. The PISA, International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement’s (IEA) Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS), and Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) (the latter two do not currently have data available disaggregated by public/private) assessments may provide some insights, but they only cover three of all the MENA countries and do not distinguish between multiple types of nonstate schools. That said, the three MENA countries who participated in the PISA are among those with the most active nonstate schooling sectors in the region. These data show that nonstate school pupils perform slightly better than pupils enrolled in state schools on average.

● Where data on comparative performance is available in EMIS datasets, the picture is similarly mixed, with nonstate schools appearing to marginally outperform government schools in Egypt, Morocco,
Iraq, and West Bank/Gaza in terms of promotion rates. Their advantages over the state sector are particularly evident among independent and international schools and generally at the primary school level.25

- Public perceptions of the quality of state schools are one of the primary drivers of enrollment in nonstate schools, regardless of whether these perceptions are accurate and by families seeking to provide an edge for their children.

- To some extent, nonstate school participation tracks with the size of the middle and upper classes in each state. The steadily emerging free- and low-cost private schools, however, are seeking to cater to families with less means, however the difficulty in studying these schools makes it hard to know if these schools have done so effectively.

STATE OF THE LITERATURE

- Key terminology and definitions of the terms “private” and “nonstate” are applied in a noticeably inconsistent manner across the literature and between databases and institutions. The term private is often flattened to obscure important nuances in ownership, contractual obligation to the state, purpose, and financing sources. Their inconsistent use, coupled with lack of conceptual depth, precludes a more systematic and analytical approach to findings, and makes it very difficult to compare multiple sources of data.

- There is a general lack of literature specific to nonstate schooling in MENA in both Arabic and English languages. The available literature in the English language provided a general overview about the state of education systems in the region and their historical development, with minor references to private education. It concentrates on a limited range of countries and models, beyond which, findings stemming from the literature are anecdotal or lacking detail or analysis.

- There are major gaps in the literature on:
  - Regulatory and policy frameworks that organize nonstate education, including entry, input, service and exit policies and monitoring and evaluation requirements. Available literature only mentions that nonstate schools are licensed by the Ministry of Education (MOE) in countries where they operate;
  - Provision and distribution of curricular and classroom materials in nonstate schools;
  - Curricular and pedagogical distinctions between state and nonstate schooling models beyond language of instruction or generally descriptive differences such as use of alternative or unauthorized textbooks;
  - Details about the variety of financing, management, and ownership arrangements between nonstate and state actors;
  - Post-Arab Spring nonstate schooling research and data;
  - PPPs outside of Egypt and Lebanon;
  - Nearly all subjects of nonstate schooling for Libya and Yemen.

SUMMARY RECOMMENDATIONS

- It must be acknowledged that in many cases, the projects of mass public schooling and private schooling are at odds, where the former attempts to increase equity, while the latter, sometimes

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25 Further details about comparative statistics are examined in the country profiles. Differences in calculation formulas and data accuracy make country to country comparisons misleading.
overtly, increases inequity by luring away the best pupils and the most supportive families from the public system. Furthermore, nonstate humanitarian and refugee schools serve millions of children in the MENA region. Community schools and low-cost private schools— which are usually public-private hybrids, serve some of poorest families in the region. Under the definition employed here, the nonstate schooling sector should be seen neither as a monolith to elitism nor as a cure for what ails public schools. Rather, the study suggests that opportunities for coordination between USAID and nonstate schools in achieving educational development goals lie in the sub-segments of the sector that serve the most marginalized and vulnerable children. These tend to be humanitarian and refugee schools, community schools, and low-cost private schools.

- It is recommended that USAID Mission officials examine these sub-segments of the nonstate schooling sector using the frameworks presented in Tables 2 and 3 above to guide further research into where the most vulnerable children intersect with nonstate schooling in each country context. These frameworks identify the different combination of ownership, management, financing, and contractual relationships comprising the variety of nonstate and hybrid models of schooling. They make a distinction between privately owned schools that are not required to serve all pupils (even when they receive public subsidies), and public or community owned schools that are required to serve all pupils (even when they have private subsidies).

- The ST strongly cautions against voucher schemes or other methods of shifting public moneys—insofar as bilateral aid is public money—to private schools where access and equity cannot be guaranteed. In most cases, privately owned schools can refuse to admit any pupil and can exit the market at any time unlike public schools; aid to these schools is thus not only high risk, but also risks further damage to the public system. Providing vouchers, scholarships, or public subsidies for pupils to attend private schools has also been shown to have negative effects on public school systems and pupils by benefitting a few at the cost of many, even between siblings of the same family, studies in India and Colombia found. Research also shows that while gifted pupils are not negatively affected academically by the presence of poor performing pupils (and in fact make them more prosocial, generous, and egalitarian), poor performing pupils are shown to greatly benefit academically from the presence of gifted pupils. It is thus in the public interest to keep high performing pupils in public schools. Some nonstate schools currently compete for these pupils, but they could also play a role in helping the state system retain high performing pupils by providing enrichment activities under contract in the public schools.

- The private management of and/or subsidizing publicly-owned schools (as opposed to the public funding of private schools), however, is an area where guarantees of equity and access can be enforced; there is however no conclusive research at present showing that pupils who attend privately managed public schools do any better or worse than other public schools, nor is there conclusive evidence that these companies can manage schools more cost effectively in the MENA context. Since little is currently known about hybrid forms of nonstate schooling in the MENA region, the ST recommends more research before considering how school management companies, private businesses, or community organizations might manage or subsidize public schools.

- One potential exception to the recommendation above on concentrating support on publicly owned schools are low-cost or free private schools. These schools are most common in Lebanon and to a lesser extent Jordan, are typically privately-owned, and may receive subsidies from numerous

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sources including the government. As stated above, there is not much research or data on these schools, but some of these schools serve pupils from lower income families and may have some promise in serving more vulnerable communities. The ST recommends that USAID Missions further examine these types of schools as the lack of data will require in-country primary research.

- Because of the finding that data, information, and research on nonstate schooling in the MENA region is sparse and where available, lacks detail, the ST recommends that in the course of technical assistance provided to partner governments that support improvements in educational data collection and management, nonstate schools should not just be included in educational censuses, but further divided into the sub-categories identified in this paper in the country EMIS. This would allow for better data about the educational choices children and families have and make in USAID partner countries’ nonstate schooling sector.

- Finally, the ST recommends that national strategic planning conversations include all nonstate schools and their owners and teachers associations, including the most elite, at the very least. There are likely to be unique partnerships to be made, for example for the government to contract private schools to provide enrichment opportunities for gifted and talented pupils in state schools as a way to keep them in the public system, or they might contribute to a variety of teacher capacity building efforts. It is important to note that while nonstate schools as a group are found to have slightly better outcomes than their state counterparts, both groups are highly heterogeneous, with both having high performing and low performing schools. Even so, some nonstate schools, in their freedom to experiment and add to or improve state curricula, have developed novel approaches to teaching and learning as well as potential solutions to some of the most vexing national educational problems.
II.  INTRODUCTION & BACKGROUND

The United States Agency for International Development (USAID) Education Policy released in November 2018 puts education as the foundational driver of a country’s journey to self-reliance (J2SR) and calls for seeking out and strengthening partnerships that leverage local, regional, and global knowledge, innovation, and resources to ensure that investing in high-quality education for all children and youth builds the human capital partner countries need to lead their own development and growth.28 One specific priority area is “engaging with non-state actors and the promotion of finance and delivery innovations to expand access to quality education.”29 Nonstate schools include private, for-profit, non-profit, community, faith-based, and other non-governmental organizations that provide education opportunities for students, including refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs). In 2019, USAID also released a new Private Sector Engagement Policy,30 which highlights how this type of engagement is critical to support the J2SR.31 The idea is to embrace market-based approaches as an alternative to support communities in achieving development and humanitarian outcomes at scale, including in the education sector.

Given these two new policies, USAID’s Middle East (ME) Bureau requested a situational analysis of nonstate schooling in the region. USAID has few examples of working with nonstate schools in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region, yet privately-run schools specializing in particular curricula including British, American, Canadian, French, German, International, etc., among others, private pre-primary schools, and non-governmental organization (NGO)-run schools, particularly in response to regional conflicts, have been operational for decades with varying capacity and effectiveness. There is little knowledge about who, what, and where are nonstate schools. Informational gaps include: what is their market size, their nature of support within the education communities, their needs, their relationship with the government, their ecosystem - including the ways private and public schools engage (or do not engage) with one another, or where they access finance, and obtain support for leadership and training. The goal of this report is to gain a regional and country-level perspective on nonstate schooling and provide a summary of the opportunities and challenges for working with nonstate schools in the MENA region.

III.  OBJECTIVES & QUESTIONS

This situational analysis is an examination of the published and publicly available resources about the “who, what, and where” of nonstate schooling in the MENA and serves to analyze the conditions of nonstate schooling at regional and national levels. The information generated from this analysis is intended to produce a deeper understanding of the nonstate schooling landscape, build awareness of opportunities and challenges for partnering with nonstate schools in the region, and inform USAID education and youth policy.

The objectives of this study are to:

- Summarize the existing literature on nonstate schooling at the basic education level in the MENA region and produce a situational analysis report.

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29 USAID Education Policy, p. 8.
31 https://www.usaid.gov/selfreliance
• Identify existing data sets with information about nonstate schooling in the MENA countries from international, national, non-governmental, and other sources.
• Develop a taxonomy of nonstate school types for use as an analytic framework in subsequent phases of this activity.
• To the extent that relevant data exists and is available: Collect, clean, and analyze quantitative data collected directly from national governments and other relevant regional, national, sub-national, and private sector institutions and networks in each MENA country where USAID has an active Mission (Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, Tunisia) and non-presence countries of interest (Iraq, Syria, Libya, West Bank/Gaza, Yemen).\textsuperscript{32,33}
• Compare and contrast conditions in each country based on the data available and identify gaps in data and knowledge regarding the research questions.

To meet these objectives, the following \textbf{study questions} form the primary focus of this situational analysis:

1. What is currently known in the literature about preschool, primary, and secondary level nonstate schooling in MENA region countries including the variety of types, contexts, models, institutional arrangements, and policy environments?
2. What quantitative data is currently collected in MENA countries by international, national, and non-governmental actors on nonstate schooling?
3. What are the similarities and differences in the prevalence, distribution, characteristics, populations served, and outcomes of nonstate schooling between MENA region countries based on available data?
4. What are the gaps in data and knowledge on nonstate schooling in the MENA region?

\textsuperscript{32} National government data typically provides limited information, particularly in conflict-affected environments.
\textsuperscript{33} Often countries will have private school associations of which can be a good resource to obtain data.
IV. STUDY METHODOLOGY

The study team (ST) conducted the study in two phases.

Phase 1: Desk Review

A. After working closely with the ME Bureau to develop the objectives and study questions, the team went through the most recent research that took a global view and which attempted to define and categorize nonstate schooling. From this initial review, the team adopted the definitions of nonstate schooling and developed an analytic frame (Table 4) to identify the many aspects of nonstate schooling. Section V presents both the definitions and analytic frame.

B. The team then spent one month scanning academic and publicly available information and data in both English and Arabic, including quantitative data from the UNESCO Institute of Statistics (UIS) and international education assessments like the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD)’s Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). The ST recorded findings from each source in a spreadsheet system and coded the findings on the spot using the analytic frame as well as by region and country. The ST identified data sets and, in some cases, analyzed them.

- Using the analytic frame as an outline, the team transferred findings from the spreadsheet to the desk review report. The findings were polished and integrated into a desk review narrative including country and regional comparisons and contrasts.

Phase 2: National Data Collection

C. The ST worked with USAID Missions to contact Education and Statistics officials in the countries under study and requested data from their education management information systems (EMIS) and/or other data sets on nonstate schooling.

D. The ST conducted additional interviews and correspondence with government officials as well as officials with private school teachers and owners associations to fill knowledge gaps.

E. The ST conducted quantitative analysis of the national data using MS Excel. The ST conducted analyses on the number of nonstate schools as well as nonstate school enrollment, class size, pupil-teacher ratio, promotion rate, and dropout rate disaggregated by gender and refugees, and compared where possible to the public schools. The ST then triangulated these data with data and desk review findings from Phase 1 to determine reliability.

F. The ST produced new regional and country narratives describing the national data and integrated with the desk review to form the final report.

REPORT STRUCTURE & ANSWERING THE STUDY QUESTIONS

The report is structured to set out the questions and methods of the study, define terms and the analysis approach, present initial quantitative data on nonstate schooling, and finally provide the findings and conclusions. Because the report is not organized by study question, the report outline below indicates where each study question is addressed:

- Executive Summary
- Introduction
- Objectives and Study Questions
- Methodology
- Defining & Analyzing nonstate schools (SQ 1)
- Findings (SQ 1, 2, 3)
• Conclusions (SQ 3, 4)
• Country Profiles (SQ 1, 2, 3)

STUDY LIMITATIONS

Data Reliability. The findings and conclusions of this report are based only on data and information from publicly available sources or those provided directly by government education or statistics officials. This study focused on ten countries and data since 2009.\textsuperscript{34} Morocco, Egypt, Lebanon and Jordan have the most (but unequal) amount of information available because they have the largest nonstate schooling sectors in the region in part due to being middle and upper middle-income countries. Chronic conflict in Libya, Iraq, Syria, and Yemen make information from these places over the last decade often scarce, unreliable, or outdated. Still other contexts such as in West Bank/Gaza where education institutions function to some extent, but occupation and post-conflict conditions make private sector gains fragile and sometimes short-lived. The UIS contain data for eight of the ten countries included,\textsuperscript{35} and the international assessment databases, PISA, the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement’s (IEA) Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) and Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) contain data for three of the ten countries studied.\textsuperscript{36} EMIS or other data obtained from country governments was examined for accuracy by measuring it against the UIS data and the literature, and cleaned for data quality. Despite these measures, the data presented in this report may suffer from inaccuracies, gaps, or limitations due to how country institutions aggregated or calculated data.

Furthermore, publicly available information about nonstate school pupil promotion and graduation rates, performance on national exams, or post-secondary enrollment rates of graduates is limited. Of the nine countries for which statistical data were analyzed, only four – Egypt, Morocco, Iraq, and West Bank/Gaza – provided figures on performance outcomes, variously defined and formulated. These data, which were typically indicated as rates of promotion or success, repetition and drop out by school category and level, enable insights into comparative performance of state and nonstate schools in each of the four countries; their comparability across countries however is limited by their differing definitions and formulae.

Lastly, although this study includes an examination of nonstate preschool and kindergartens, the lack of data, different definitions, and the variety of relationships to the state system made calculations and comparisons difficult. The ST included data on nonstate preschool schooling only where the data were deemed reliable.

Gulf Countries. Although referenced sparsely, this study did not include Gulf countries because the scope was limited to countries with USAID Missions.

Definitions. While this study takes a broad definition of nonstate schooling, including hybrid forms and public-private partnerships, other studies, data sets, and policy documents examined for this study often had very different definitions. For example, UIS data, which re-publishes country EMIS data, may exclude many hybrid forms such publicly subsidized, low-cost private schools depending on how each country defines or categorizes them, making cross-country comparisons difficult to unravel. The Department for International Development (DFID) breaks nonstate schooling into three general categories:

\textsuperscript{34} Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Lebanon, Libya, Morocco, Syria, Tunisia, West Bank/Gaza, and Yemen.
\textsuperscript{35} The 8 countries are: Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, Syria, Tunisia, West Bank and Gaza, and Yemen.
\textsuperscript{36} The three countries are: Jordan, Lebanon, and Morocco
philanthropic (not-for-profit), religious, and private (for-profit). The ST thus believes that the nonstate schooling sector is larger and more diverse than is reported in the available data, but this theory needs to be tested.

**Limited Local Knowledge.** The ST scanned Arabic as well as English literature and found almost no research on nonstate schooling in Arabic. This means that there is likely to be very little local knowledge production in this area, further depriving this study of contextual and alternative views from the standard international development literature. The ST did not review literature in French. The ST did not undertake a socio-economic analysis of pupils enrolled in nonstate schools or a geographic analysis of communities served by nonstate schools as it was not within the scope of this study.

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37 The Impact of Nonstate Schools in Developing Countries: A synthesis of the evidence from two rigorous reviews’, DFID (2015), p. 4-5.
V. CONCEPTUALIZING & ANALYZING NONSTATE SCHOOLING

The ST chose to use the terms “nonstate” (as opposed to private) and “schooling” (as opposed to education) deliberately, as the study is interested specifically in alternatives to state-run preschool through grade 12 school systems exclusive of higher education, informal and adult education, and other social and cultural forms of knowledge transference. The ST adopted a broad definition of nonstate schooling, drawing from Steer, et. al., 2015 and the Brookings Institution, who use categories of ownership, management, and financing as parameters. “Nonstate education,” they write, “is characterized by a diversity of providers, including religious schools, non-profit schools run by NGOs or foundations, publicly funded schools operated by private boards, community owned schools, and for-profit schools that operate as enterprises.”

UNESCO’s conception is slightly different, defining “private education” as schools controlled and managed by an NGO (e.g., religious group, association, or enterprise) or governed by a body that primarily consists of members not selected by a public agency. Schools either owned, managed, or financed by international and local NGOs are considered “nonstate” for the purposes of this study, in large part because of the role they play in addressing humanitarian problems in the region.

STATE AND NONSTATE SCHOOLING

As noted above, the distinction between state and nonstate schooling is not binary and has multiple forms. One way to view these forms is suggested by Patrinos and Sosale (2007) and Rose (2006) who argue that 1) “Evaluations of [state and nonstate] school provision must distinguish between the type of provider (including ownership and/or management) and the type of financing,” and 2) “typologies must differentiate whether nonstate schools are for-profit or not-for-profit.”

Table 2 below uses these two rules to identify six different types of state and nonstate schools.

Table 2: State and Nonstate schooling by provider and financing source

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of provider</th>
<th>State</th>
<th>Nonstate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>Fully government-funded public schools</td>
<td>Private grants, matching funds, adopt-a-school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Profit</td>
<td>Religious, community, and charter schools, and state vouchers</td>
<td>Philanthropic, religious, and NGO schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For Profit</td>
<td>Charter schools and state vouchers</td>
<td>Low fee, international, franchise, and independent private schools.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TYPES OF NONSTATE SCHOOLING

Steer also draws from Lewis & Patrinos (2011) and OECD (2014) to argue that “adding an additional level of precision, typologies can further detail the contractual relation between state and nonstate actors.” This more detailed typology attempts to address an increasingly hybridized relationship between state and nonstate provision. A good deal of “private” provision is better described as public-

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38 Steer, et. al. 2015, p. 7
39 UNESCO, 2005
40 Op Cit.
private partnerships (PPPs). Table 3 below illustrates the different forms of PPPs, using ownership, contractual relationships, and financing as differentiating factors.

**Table 3: Nonstate provision typology by ownership, contractual relation, and financing**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of school</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Ownership</th>
<th>Contract</th>
<th>Financing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nonstate schools</td>
<td>Owned by nonstate actor and financed typically through fees or philanthropy (can be for-profit, not-for-profit)</td>
<td>Nonstate</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Nonstate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonstate funded</td>
<td>Owned by nonstate actor and managed with funding from government (but not on a contractual per student basis)</td>
<td>Nonstate</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>State/Nonstate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonstate contracted</td>
<td>Owned and managed by nonstate actor with funding from government based on contract with funding depending on certain conditions</td>
<td>Nonstate</td>
<td>Yes, with government</td>
<td>State/Nonstate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonstate managed</td>
<td>State-owned but nonstate operated and managed (e.g., charters, academies, concession schools)</td>
<td>State</td>
<td>Yes, with government</td>
<td>State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market contracted</td>
<td>State schools that are nonstate-owned with contract, or publicly owned with nonstate management; or where funding follows the student to the school of their choice (vouchers).</td>
<td>State and Nonstate (mixed)</td>
<td>Yes, with students</td>
<td>State</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although the above tables outline ways in which to distinguish different types of nonstate schools and their relationship to the state, they are not entirely useful for policy making without context. The MENA region is dominated by a few categories of nonstate schools: religious, early childhood, independent or international, free or low cost private, humanitarian and refugee, and community schools; these categories will be explored in further depth below. Multiple “types” of nonstate schools outlined in the tables above can exist within each of these categories. Alternative state schools (run by opposition groups) and private tutoring are also among the categories of nonstate schooling that should be acknowledged in the region but are not directly addressed in this report. The ST used this typology to account for the different forms of nonstate schools most common in the region in the *Financing and Ownership* section of Chapter VI.

**ANALYTIC FRAME**

To examine the nonstate schooling sector in a comprehensive and organized way, the ST developed an analytic frame to guide the categorization, coding, and writing process. Drawing from multiple literatures on nonstate schooling including publications from USAID on affordable nonstate schooling in conflict and crisis, the Brookings Institution on nonstate education actors in developing countries, and the World Bank on engaging the private sector in education, four categories of analysis were developed,
each with sub and axial categories: regional and local context, financing and ownership, governance and monitoring, and provision and outcomes.45 Table 4 below illustrates the analytic frame.

Table 4: Nonstate Schools Analytic Frame

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Subcategory</th>
<th>Axial Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Local &amp; MENA Context</td>
<td>Population(s) served</td>
<td>State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Geographic location/ distribution</td>
<td>Donor/Philanthropic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Socio-cultural context</td>
<td>Private</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Political context</td>
<td>Community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Economic context</td>
<td>Household</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Educational context</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Local innovation/need filled</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financing &amp; Ownership</td>
<td>Financing sources</td>
<td>State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ownership</td>
<td>Private/non-profit, NGO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ownership- Financing Relationship</td>
<td>INGO/transnational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Contractual relationships</td>
<td>Faith-based</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Community/household education expenditure</td>
<td>Community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Private/for-profit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Governance &amp; Monitoring</td>
<td>Entry Policies</td>
<td>Accreditation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Licensing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Registration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Constitutional/Legal Framework</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equity and access</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Input Policies</td>
<td>Teacher qualifications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Curriculum requirements</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reporting requirements</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fees and taxes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Service Policies</td>
<td>Transportation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Textbooks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public examinations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nursing and health</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Technology</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Disabilities and special education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>External supervision &amp; inspection</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professional development</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Exit Policies</td>
<td>Promotion &amp; graduation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The purpose of the analytic frame is to bring together the many dimensions and issues regarding nonstate schooling to ensure the ST conducted a comprehensive review of the sector and identify where there are potential gaps in knowledge. The frame functions as a wide net, so to speak, outlining in detail the aspects of nonstate schooling the ST examined. In the end, most of the useful details about nonstate schooling in each country is not publicly available, such as classroom materials and curricula, legal, regulatory and policy language, comparative performance on national promotion and graduation exams, national EMIS data and the ways states count and classify nonstate schools, and perhaps most consequently, the prevalence as well as different owners, financers, and managers of both fully private and public-private hybrid forms of nonstate schools in each country.

While information on some of the topics in the analytic frame were harder to find than others, the availability of information was more strongly determined by country than topic, with most of the literature and data focused on Lebanon, Jordan, Morocco, and Egypt. A regional summary of the findings is presented in the next section and is then followed by country profiles.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>National assessments and exams</th>
<th>Quality assurance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Monitoring &amp; Evaluation</td>
<td>EMIS/monitoring system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data collection</td>
<td>Research and evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reporting</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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VI. SUMMARY FINDINGS

In this section, the ST presents the summary findings of its analysis of the literature and available data. The first section presents important social, economic, and political background to better understand the regional and country contexts. The second section presents quantitative data from publicly accessible national statistics to get a current picture of the prevalence of nonstate schooling in the region. Next, the most common categories of nonstate schools and their types are presented using financing, ownership, and management as criteria. The fourth section examines what the ST found in the literature about how nonstate schools are governed and monitored by the state, and in the final section, the team presents findings on the different curricular and pedagogical approaches typical in the region, drawing on limited evidence from either EMIS data on school outcomes or the PISA international assessment comparing the performance of pupils from public and private schools. Chapter VII presents in-depth findings for each of the ten focal MENA countries.

A. NONSTATE SCHOOLING AND THE MENA CONTEXT

Before presenting the broader trends of nonstate schooling in the region, it is best to understand that the nonstate schooling conditions in each country are the result of unique historical, cultural, economic, and political variables, and that having a high, medium, or low proportion of pupils enrolled in nonstate schools is not correlated with any change in the wealth or wellbeing of a country’s citizenry. That said, there are some unsurprising trends in the region. For example, elite, upper class and upper middle-class families throughout the MENA region, and like in most places around the world, send their children to private schools to improve their academic achievement and economic chances, but in the MENA region, often in the shadow of very poor state education systems. What is more endemic to the region, over half a million children also access nonstate schools out of humanitarian need.

There is relatively little nonstate school activity in post-independence MENA states compared to countries in Latin America or Asia with similar gross domestic products (GDPs). With the exception of Lebanon, Jordan and West Bank/Gaza, nonstate school enrollment has, for the most part, remained around seven percent of total enrollment for the last 10 years, according to findings in this study. Demand for private education provision in the MENA region however was reported to be growing apace in the literature; Jalbout predicted in 2014 that out of the over $95 billion combined public and private education expenditure in the region, the private education market could be worth $11.2 billion by 2020. Demand is largely due to the region’s burgeoning student-age population, the challenges of providing quality mass public education, a growing perception that quality is often higher in private schools, and the increasing willingness and/or ability of parents to pay for better quality education. In Lebanon, the emergent social structure after colonial independence demanded that each religious faction be allowed to develop its own education system, laying the foundation for its very high proportion of pupils enrolled in nonstate schools today. The fastest growing sub-sectors in private education across the region are early childhood education (ECE), low-cost private and community schools, higher education, and technical and vocational education and training (TVET).

46 Morgan, 2017, p. 504; ESCWA, 2015, p. 4
48 Akkari, 2008, p. 99 – finding 46.1
49 Jalbout, 2014, p. 13; there is at present no recent research to confirm if this prediction has come to pass. It should also be noted that these figures are driven especially by educational spending in the Gulf countries.
50 Ibid.; It should be noted that the scope of this review includes only preschool through secondary level schooling.
ECE in the region is much like the rest of the world including developing countries where the vast majority is provided by nonstate actors; a notable exception is Egypt where nonstate ECE comprises 25 percent of total enrollment while the rest of the region is closer to 75 percent, according to the analyzed data. As compulsory education in MENA countries typically starts at age 6, ECE provision is primarily privately financed, taking the form of traditional Qur’anic preschool or for- and non-profit secular preschool. Some literature reports that religious non-state providers of primary and secondary education have also seen recent increases in both supply and demand, owing to states’ weakened regulatory capacities, the declining quality of state schools, and either a growing mistrust of state education or preference for religious curricula. Other research and anecdotal evidence from USAID Mission staff and government officials suggests that state to nonstate school migration is less about religious schools and more about the growth of low-cost private schooling, poor quality state schools, and more recently, families searching for schools that remain open during the pandemic; testing these explanations was outside the scope of this study. It will be particularly challenging to ascertain the state of low-cost private schools because EMIS data does not typically disaggregate these.

The ST found eight categories of nonstate schools common in the region. As detailed in Section V, the ST uses financing, ownership, and management as the criteria to define state, nonstate, and hybrid-form schools, and to categorize different nonstate school categories. The role that the state and nonstate organizations such as religious institutions, nongovernmental organizations, charitable foundations, and private individuals and groups play in financing, owning, and managing nonstate schools are at the center at what distinguishes state from nonstate schooling, as well as the different types of nonstate schooling from one another. The roles they play today are heavily influenced by the history of these relationships since the mid-20th century.

Following colonial independence, MENA countries focused on developing and expanding their national education systems to widen access to education for all, by opening schools, developing textbooks and curricula, and training and recruiting teachers, attempting to replicate the education systems of their former occupiers. These efforts translated into improved enrollment rates for boys and girls across the region. Despite these achievements, several MENA countries still struggle to provide quality education for all, mainly due to some combination of limited state resources and budgets, population growth along with growing demand for quality education, bloated or ineffective state bureaucracies, continuous political instability, and chronic conflict. These conditions contribute to investment in nonstate schooling by families, the private sector, civil society organizations, NGOs and humanitarian organizations, and increasingly, states themselves. Because of this diversity of providers and the communities they serve, nonstate schools in the MENA region cannot be characterized as monoliths for the elite, because of the large proportion of displaced and poor families served by nonstate schooling. Not surprisingly, the prevalence, development, and the types of nonstate actors vary across the region. These variations relate to the unique educational, social, economic, and political context of each state, the populations and communities that use nonstate schools, as well as the different regulatory and legal framework for education in each state.

Except for Lebanon, the state widely dominates educational provision in the countries studied. While there are several unique nonstate school models in Egypt, and interest by MENA and donor governments in partnering with the private sector to meet educational development objectives such as in Jordan, the vast majority of schools in every country under examination (except for Lebanon) remain

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52 ESCWA, 2015, p.1-2
state-operated and state-financed. Consequently, the nonstate education sector in the region remains quite small as a proportion of all schools.

NONSTATE SCHOOL CATEGORIES IN THE REGION

Based on a review of the regional literature, the ST discerned eight categories of nonstate schools in the region. Each category may have within it multiple “types” or combinations of private and public entities engaged. Most countries in the region have these categories of schools present in different proportions. These categories will need to be examined more closely in each country to determine their prevalence and the different state and nonstate actors involved.

Religious Schools: Private schools owned and managed by confessional/religious groups or associations for different Muslim and Christian denominations, with varying funding sources. Examples of these include:

- Egypt’s Azhari Islamic schools, which are state financed and owned, but managed and governed by the Supreme Council of Al-Azhar;
- Morocco’s Qur’anic Msids, which are privately owned and operated, serving lower-income communities, particularly in rural areas;
- Lebanon’s variety of religious schools owned and operated by their respective religious foundations, catering for members of their communities (Shia, Sunni, Druze, Catholic, Jesuit, Christian Orthodox, etc.)
- Syria’s Shari’a schools for Muslims, and a few Christian schools, such as Al Ghassaniah Orthodox School for Christians.

Preschools and Kindergartens. In the countries studied, preschool schools often fit into the above category, and they are almost entirely nonstate owned, managed, and financed. Examples of these include:

- Traditional, religious institutions such as Qur’anic kouttab in Tunisia and Libya and Msids in Morocco;
- Secular for- and non-profit preschools across Lebanon, Syria, West Bank and Gaza, and Jordan operated by private organizations, syndicates, private individuals, or community members.

Independent or International Schools. These schools are privately owned, managed, and financed by pupil tuition and endowments. Some have financial support from foreign governments. This category accounts for all schools designated as private schools in the analyzed EMIS datasets; only in Lebanon are the data parsed between costlier and free or low-cost private schools (a separate school category below). Examples of these include:

- France’s lycées de mission, owned and operated with subsidy from the French government and found across the Middle East and North Africa;
- The longstanding American Cooperative School of Tunis, linked to the U.S. Embassy and sponsored by the U.S. Office of Overseas Schools;
- The American Community Schools in Lebanon and Jordan, and the International Schools of Choueifat in Lebanon, Jordan, Syria, Egypt and Erbil, Iraq;
- The German International School, Grand Lycee Franco Libanais and Lycee Abdel Kader in Lebanon;
- The Ramallah Friends School, the American School of Palestine, and Lycee Francais International des Ramallah.
Free or Low-Cost Private Schools. These schools have numerous types, but most often are owned and/or managed by private individuals or organizations and subsidized by the state. They typically serve pupils from families of more limited means and are particularly common in Lebanon. But except for Lebanon, the prevalence of these types of schools remains unknown because state EMIS systems do not distinguish between these and fully independent schools. The literature, outlined for each country in the sections below, suggests these schools may be growing in Lebanon, Jordan, Morocco, and Egypt. Examples of these in Lebanon include: Saint Joseph Maronite School, Ali Ibin Abi Taleb Elementary School and Makassed School Deir Imar.

Humanitarian and Refugee Schools. These are schools that are owned, financed, and managed primarily by international donors, secular groups, and NGOs. These include long-established United Nations for Relief and Works Agency (UNRWA) schools in Jordan, Lebanon, Syria, and West Bank/Gaza providing education for Palestinian refugees in refugee camps or internally displaced individuals, and United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) schools in camps for migrants and asylum seekers in Libya.

Community Schools. These are a form of public-private partnership between NGOs, national governments, and local communities, offering reduced, accelerated, or nonformal curricula targeting vulnerable and low-income school-age and adult populations, often in rural contexts. This model is championed in Egypt, with over 5,000 community schools as of 2018, constituting roughly 10 percent of all Egyptian primary and secondary schools. Schools take different curricular forms depending on their target communities and NGO partners, such as:

- The Neqdar Nasharek Project (‘We can participate’), which, financially backed by the Egyptian Ministry of Education (MOE) and implemented by the international NGO (INGO) Population Council, offers programming in health, financial literacy, citizenship education and vocational training to economically marginalized female youth mainly in rural Upper Egypt.\(^{53}\)
- Girl-Friendly Schools addressing gender-related access and exclusion, operated by the National Council on Childhood and Motherhood;
- The Recycling School for Boys (Learning and Earning in Cairo’s Garbage City Project), which is implemented by an Egyptian NGO, founded by a development consultancy and UNESCO Cairo Office, and funded by international organizations and multinationals including the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation and Procter & Gamble.\(^{54}\)

Alternative State Schools. Although not typically considered nonstate, these are schools associated with civil or regional conflict in the form of state opposition groups or organized movements such as those run by the Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant (ISIL), Kurds in Syria and Iraq, or rebel militias in Libya. While somewhat in a category of their own, it is important to acknowledge their presence in the region.

Private Tutoring. Although not a formal part of “schooling,” private tutoring has become a more common practice across the region and is pervasive in Egypt and Morocco. Although examined separately, the practice’s effects on social and educational inequality are like the selection effects of tuition-charging private schools. Egypt, Morocco, and Tunisia have some of the highest global rates of participation in private tutoring, with estimates at 81 percent of secondary students in Egypt, 85 percent in Morocco and 70 percent in Tunisia.\(^{55}\) The underlying cause of the phenomenon, who participates, and

\(^{53}\) UNICEF, 2017, p. 82
\(^{54}\) Ibid.
\(^{55}\) Chennaoui, 2014, cited in Bouguerra and Aboulkacem, 2016, p. 73; Rhazal et al, 2018, p. 44; Sobhy, 2012, p. 49
its impact on formal schooling systems vary by country. Annex C presents more of the ST’s findings on private tutoring in North Africa.

Table 5 below presents the eight categories of nonstate schools mapped onto our nonstate school typology using ownership, financing, and management as a framework for elucidating further nonstate school forms beyond simply state and nonstate.

**Table 5: Categories and Types of Nonstate Schooling in the MENA Region**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Types</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Religious Schools – Owned and managed by confessional/religious groups; varying funding sources</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Example</strong></td>
<td><strong>Location</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Azhari Islamic schools</td>
<td>Egypt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qur’anic msid</td>
<td>Morocco</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Various (Shia, Sunni, Druze, Catholic, Jesuit, Christian Orthodox, etc.)</td>
<td>Lebanon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shari’a schools for Muslims; Al Ghassaniah Orthodox School for Christians</td>
<td>Syria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Preschools and Kindergartens – Almost entirely nonstate owned, managed, and financed</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Example</strong></td>
<td><strong>Location</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qur’anic kouttab</td>
<td>Tunisia, Libya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Msid</strong></td>
<td>Morocco</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jardins d’enfants (secular, for – and non-profit)</td>
<td>Tunisia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preschools (secular, for- and nonprofit)</td>
<td>Lebanon, Syria, West Bank Gaza, Jordan, and Egypt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Independent or International Schools – Most are privately owned and managed, financed by pupil tuition and endowments; some have financial support from foreign governments.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Example</strong></td>
<td><strong>Location</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lycées de la mission laïque française</td>
<td>Morocco, Egypt, Lebanon, West Bank and Gaza</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Cooperative School of Tunis</td>
<td>Tunisia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Community Schools</td>
<td>Lebanon, Jordan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Schools of Choueifat</td>
<td>Lebanon, Jordan, Syria,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Example</td>
<td>Location</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The German International School</td>
<td>Lebanon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ramallah Friends School, and the American School of Palestine.</td>
<td>West Bank and Gaza</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The American International Schools, New Generation International Schools</td>
<td>Egypt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Free or Low-Cost Private Schools - Hybrid model owned/managed by private individuals, often subsidized by the government

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Ownership</th>
<th>Financing</th>
<th>Management</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### Humanitarian and Refugee Schools – Owned, financed, and managed primarily by international donors, secular groups, and NGOs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Ownership</th>
<th>Financing</th>
<th>Management</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UNRWA schools (for Palestinian refugees)</td>
<td>Jordan, Lebanon, Syria, and West Bank/Gaza</td>
<td>Nonstate</td>
<td>Nonstate</td>
<td>Nonstate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNHCR schools (for migrants and asylum seekers)</td>
<td>Libya</td>
<td>Nonstate</td>
<td>Nonstate</td>
<td>Nonstate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSO-supported refugee schools</td>
<td>Jordan, Lebanon, Yemen</td>
<td>Nonstate</td>
<td>State &amp; Nonstate</td>
<td>Nonstate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Community Schools – PPP between NGOs, national governments, and local communities, offering reduced, accelerated, or nonformal curricula

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Ownership</th>
<th>Financing</th>
<th>Management</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Neqdar Nasharek Project</td>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>Nonstate</td>
<td>State</td>
<td>Nonstate INGO Population Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girl-Friendly Schools</td>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>Nonstate</td>
<td>State</td>
<td>Nonstate National Council for Childhood and Motherhood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recycling School for Boys (Learning and Earning in Cairo’s Garbage City Project)</td>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>Nonstate</td>
<td>Nonstate multinational donors, e.g. Bill &amp; Melinda Gates Foundation and Procter &amp; Gamble</td>
<td>Nonstate Egyptian NGO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apache Oil Schools</td>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>Nonstate, private industry</td>
<td>Nonstate, corporate responsibility e.g. Apache Oil</td>
<td>Nonstate, private industry</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Alternative State Schools – Associated with civil or regional conflict. Sometimes entirely alt-state owned, financed, and managed by an opposition group (ISIL) while others remain a part of the state system (Eastern Libya).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Ownership</th>
<th>Financing</th>
<th>Management</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Former ISIL schools, Kurdish schools, Eastern Libyan schools</td>
<td>Syria, Iraq, Libya</td>
<td>Nonstate (state opposition groups)</td>
<td>Alt-state</td>
<td>State/Alt-state</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Private Tutoring – Increasingly common practice across the region; effects on social and educational inequality are similar to the selection effects of tuition-charging private schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Ownership</th>
<th>Financing</th>
<th>Management</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Private tutors and tutoring services.</td>
<td>Egypt, Morocco, Tunisia especially</td>
<td>Nonstate</td>
<td>Nonstate</td>
<td>Nonstate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. NONSTATE SCHOOLING PREVALENCE IN THE MENA REGION

As part of this study, the team investigated the availability of data on nonstate schooling in the region. Annex D includes an overview of data that is publicly available from international organizations, individual country level ministries of education and statistics, as well as some private organizations. While the table lists information on the most recent data available, it is not always available for all countries consistently. The table also includes a list of example indicators and indicator categories intended to be illustrative of the type of data that is available in each data set. The ST obtained national statistical datasets for nine of the ten countries under study, with Libya being the exception. These datasets varied in the number of years covered, range and depth of data, and their presentation format (e.g., raw data vs. calculated figures), but all were produced by either respective Ministries of Education or Central Bureaus of Statistics drawing from their Educational Management Information Systems (EMIS). As each of these datasets is country-specific, there are differences between them not only in terms of reported indicators, but importantly, how indicators are defined and measured. In most cases data were parsed into large categories — government, private or humanitarian — obscuring the differences between schools within each category. Hybrid state-nonstate models, including a small number of community schools in Morocco or high-performing 'experimental' schools in Egypt, tended to fall into the government category, limiting what the team could learn about them through the data. Based on the literature and data analysis, the ST suspects that these PPP and hybrid-model schools are under-represented. These data are at present the best barometer available.

In general, nonstate schools have a higher presence in Lebanon, Jordan, and West Bank/Gaza, and to a lesser extent Egypt (where a large segment of hybrid or “semi-state” community schools and religious state schools exist). According to the ST’s analysis, Lebanon has by far the highest percentage of primary and secondary pupils in nonstate schools at 70 and 54 percent respectively in 2018; these proportions are unique to the region. In Jordan figures are 31 and 15 percent, while in West Bank/Gaza they are collectively 35 percent (data could not be parsed into primary and secondary school levels). The high nonstate enrollments for Lebanon and Jordan concentrate in private schools of varying types, while for West Bank/Gaza they are mostly attributable to the presence of UN-operated schools, especially in Gaza.

Morocco and Egypt both enroll around 17 percent of primary level pupils in nonstate schools; this number remains nearly the same at the secondary level for Egypt, but for Morocco it decreases to 10 percent. While they lead the North African region in nonstate school prevalence, their profiles are
distinct, with figures in Morocco resulting from relatively recent moves to stimulate private school development. Egypt, on the other hand, has long held a wider portfolio of private, religious, and single-classroom community schools. On the lower end, Tunisia, Iraq, Syria, and Yemen all have nonstate school enrollments in the single digits. Figure 4 and Figure 5 illustrate these private school enrollment figures in primary and secondary schools over the ten years analyzed.

**Figure 4: Percentage of enrollment in nonstate PRIMARY education 2009 – 2018**

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56 EMIS data does not have a consistent, grade level cut-off for primary. For West Bank/Gaza “primary” includes ALL grade (originally 1-10). For Lebanon primary includes both primary (1-6) and middle school (7-9). For Jordan it is inclusive of basic (1-10).

57 2009 – 2012 in Syria is represented by UIS data. The remaining years are pulled from EMIS data.
Looking at enrollment trends over the last ten years where data were available, enrollment rates in most of the countries have stayed fairly constant, with little to no change to the top four (Lebanon, West Bank/Gaza, Jordan, and Egypt) as well as Yemen and Iraq. There were evident increases to enrollments in Morocco, particularly at the primary level, Tunisia at both levels, and Syria at the secondary level. These rates of growth are notable. While they remain greatly outnumbered in proportion to government school enrollments in their respective countries, Morocco and Tunisia sustained continuous growth in their private sectors over the decade, pointing to an unmet demand for an alternative to government schools.

Finally, the ST used statistics from the UIS data set to compile what is known about government and nonstate school enrollment in ECE including preschools and kindergartens. Recent UIS data on ECE were not available for Syria, Yemen, and Tunisia. Of all the eight countries for which UIS figures were available, Egypt has the smallest proportion of pupils in nonstate ECE programs. Morocco, with close to 90 percent, and Tunisia, with more than three-quarters enrolled in nonstate preschools and kindergartens, mirror more closely with the Middle East and the rest of the world.

Figure 6 below illustrates nonstate ECE enrollment proportion for the countries under study.
In general, a very high proportion of ECE pupils are enrolled in schools categorized as private in the countries studied due to the widely non-compulsory nature of ECE in the region. Between 70 percent in Syria and Lebanon and nearly 100 percent of pupils in the West Bank/Gaza attend preschools or kindergartens that are privately owned, managed, and financed. The exceptions are Yemen, where just under half were enrolled in nonstate ECE in 2013, the last year data is available, and Egypt, where only a quarter of all ECE pupils are enrolled in nonstate ECE schools. Of the two, only Egypt has generally high rates of participation in ECE and therefore a strong state role in its provision; Yemen, on the other hand, has extremely low rates of participation (approximately one percent), rendering the state-nonstate proportion in ECE meaningless. Across the eight countries there has been little change in the proportion of enrollment in nonstate ECE over the last decade. Annex B contains additional graphs of nonstate enrollment proportion in the region.

To place this data into global perspective, the figures below compare percentage enrollment in nonstate primary and secondary schooling in the MENA region to those in Chile, Pakistan, Indonesia, and the United States. These countries were chosen with two criteria in mind: to give a spectrum of proportions similar to those in the MENA region, and to include countries with similar social constitutions.
These figures support one of the primary observations of this study, which is that the prevalence (enrollment) and distribution (types and locations) of nonstate schools is influenced by the historical, socio-cultural, economic, and political conditions of each country, and not, insofar as the literature and secondary data analysis shows, the other way around. The proportion of pupils enrolled in nonstate education is influenced by these factors, as indicated by the trends observed in the figures.

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58 Global comparison data is pulled from UIS and focuses primarily on private school enrollment. It may, therefore, underrepresent total nonstate school enrollment found in EMIS data and represented in the preceding figures.
schooling in a country is not found to be correlated with any short- or longer-term trend in the wellbeing or wealth of its citizenry.

C. GOVERNANCE & MONITORING OF NONSTATE SCHOOLS

A focus on governance and monitoring draws attention to the interface between national governments and nonstate actors in providing formal schooling. This interface typically happens through a policy and regulatory environment that may range from highly controlled and regulated to nearly not at all. Numerous policy tools are used by governments to regulate nonstate schooling such as entry policies which govern things like accreditation and licensing, input policies like required curricula, health standards, and taxes, service policies like transportation and special education, exit policies like promotion and graduation requirements, and monitoring and evaluation policies. Only a few different types of policies were captured from the publicly available literature, and they are mostly general and tangential references, limiting what can be analyzed and presented here. As with nonstate schooling literature in the region generally, most of the findings concentrate on Egypt, Morocco, Lebanon, and Jordan.

Curricular requirements and language of instruction comprise one common area of nonstate school governance in the countries studied. The politicization of language is acutely felt in Francophone North Africa, where post-Independence education sectors underwent decades of “Arabization” which left untouched the foreign mission schools and private schools, creating a two-tier system of schools based on language.\(^\text{59}\) States typically exempted private non-state providers from teaching in Arabic, creating a social divide which tracked by class which language enabled access to the elite universities and professional opportunities. This is also seen in the Anglophone countries, where private, international and mission schools offer British and French curricular options. Exemptions for non-state providers are not always universal, however, as the case of Algeria demonstrates, where nascent private primary and secondary schools were closed in the early 2000s for teaching some of their subjects in French, in addition to using different textbooks than the MOE curriculum.\(^\text{60}\)

On the matter of quality assurance, accreditation, reporting and oversight, nonstate schools in the countries studied are generally regulated by non-MOE bodies and enjoy a great deal of freedom with regulations being more technical in nature. While not much detail is provided in the literature on how nonstate schools are regulated, the consistent external governance of these nonstate schools in what was reviewed is in itself an important finding. For example, Tunisian kouttab religious preschools and Moroccan Msid schools are both overseen and regulated by their respective Ministries of Religious Affairs rather than the MOE.\(^\text{61}\) As traditional institutions, they were brought under the purview of the state via reform legislation, but they remain distinct in governance from state education.

D. NONSTATE SCHOOL CURRICULUM AND PEDAGOGY

There are very few studies or published materials on the provision and outcomes of nonstate schools in the countries studied. Very generally, from the literature, most secular nonstate schools use the state curriculums with added enrichments, and often additional subjects like languages, intended to give pupils an advantage over their state counterparts. There is no publicly available literature on what these enrichments are or how nonstate schools adapt state curricula. There is a fair amount of literature that

\(^{59}\) Rose, 2017, p. 330
\(^{60}\) Messekher & Miliani, 2017, p. 267-268
\(^{61}\) Although in the case of Tunisia, most ECE (e.g. Jardins d’enfants) is regulated by the Ministry of Youth, Sport, Women and Families rather than the MOE; OECD, 2015, p. 148; llorent-Bedmar, 2014, p. 99
explores nonstate Islamic education and the pseudo-state role of religious schools, particularly at the preschooL and primary levels. Such curricula are often attended not only by the learning of religious scripture and teachings, but also by pedagogical approaches such as rote learning and recitation. The literature also points to the presence of several international curricula used in nonstate schools across the region, such as the International Baccalaureate curriculum, the French curriculum, or the British curriculum.

Most of the North African countries apart from Egypt have an historical precedent for delivery of early years education by traditional, religious nonstate institutions. This tradition appears to have weathered the post-Independence nationalist reforms that overhauled primary and secondary level schooling in the region. While constituting nonstate schools, these providers – variously named as kouttab, msid, or maktab – appear to operate in harmony with national education systems by integrating tradition with modern curricular aims.\footnote{Wagner and Lotfi, 1980, cited in Rose, 2017, p. 333} This form of early years provision is widespread in the region not least due to its traditional origins, but also the general exclusion of early years education from compulsory education within national systems. In some rural contexts such as in Morocco, Msids extend provision into primary level years. At the compulsory education levels, only Lebanon and Egypt have a significant presence of religious nonstate schools. The religious nonstate schools have the freedom to provide religious education, including the integration of additional subjects to the national curriculum and the use of foreign textbooks.

Elite-serving private and international schools in the MENA context are generally premised on their distinction from state education and exemption from national curricula. While serving a relatively small minority, their use of foreign curricula typically taught in English or French reproduces advantages and drives inequality of opportunity as the language of instruction maps closely with employment opportunities in the private sector, with Francophone and Anglophone elites having greater access to well-paying jobs.\footnote{Rose, 2017, p. 330; Mansouri and Moumine, 2017, p. 14 – finding 43.1} This is seen in Lebanon, Jordan, Morocco, and Tunisia where a diverse range of international schools use a range of foreign curricula. In Egypt, the maintenance of Anglophone elite schools and the gradual diversification of the sector under Mubarak led to a private market for English-medium education. Differential access to the English language is converted into advantages as science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) based assessments and post-secondary education are conducted in English, determining which students gain access to STEM and medical professions in the private sector.\footnote{Kippels & Ridge (2019), p. 16}

Nonstate providers of education responding to the needs of humanitarian and economically deprived contexts across the region deliver bespoke curricula to address various forms of exclusion, often in accelerated or informal models. In Egypt, the numerous and varied community schools are designed to improve access for vulnerable communities by offering alternative school hours, eliminating schooling expenses, and instruction targeting specific needs and skills.

**E. NONSTATE SCHOOL OUTCOMES**

Publicly available information about nonstate school pupil promotion and graduation rates, performance on national exams, or post-secondary enrollment rates of graduates is limited. Of the nine countries for which statistical data were analyzed, only four – Egypt, Morocco, Iraq, and West Bank/Gaza – provided figures on performance outcomes, variously defined and formulated. These data, which were typically indicated as rates of promotion or success, repetition and drop out by school category and level, enable
insights into comparative performance of state and nonstate schools in each of the four countries; their comparability across countries however is limited by their differing definitions and formulae.

With respect to trends identified in each country’s performance indicators, nonstate schools generally outperform state schools, with evident advantages for private schools particularly at the primary school level. While these findings confirm what is generally claimed in the literature, the data enabled a slightly more nuanced picture, with private schools at the secondary level in Morocco and Egypt losing their decisive edge over state schools, likely due to high dropout rates in the former and a diversification of state school pathways and resources in the latter. The data do not distinguish between elite-serving and low-cost private schools and therefore determinations about quality cannot easily be made, but these findings strengthen critiques of the growing numbers of private schools, particularly in Morocco and Tunisia, where quality is understood to be either questionable or lower than state schools.

Analysis of the outcomes among other nonstate school categories also presented a mixed picture. The small number of religious nonstate schools in Iraq performed nearly as well as the larger body of independent schools, with promotion rates considerably higher than those in government schools. Humanitarian schools in West Bank and Gaza, on the other hand, performed either on par with or below their state school analogues due to the considerable pressure placed on resources and staffing, especially in Gaza.

Evidence from an examination of international assessment data, however, points to a few further performance trends. The PISA is an international assessment that measures 15-year-old students’ reading, mathematics, and science literacy every three years in 80 countries and education systems. Jordan, Lebanon, and Morocco participated in the 2018 assessment. Figure 9 below compares performance on the three subtests between public and private school pupils for these three countries.

**Figure 9: PISA Scores by Country and Public vs Private (2018)**

![PISA Scores by Country and Public vs Private (2018)](image)

The PISA data suggest that in 2018, pupils in private schools in Jordan, Lebanon, and Morocco scored between 8 to 12 percent higher on average than their government school counterparts. The slight but significant difference tentatively confirms the perspective of families in many of the countries under
study—which is that nonstate schools outperform state schools—but without more detail on what types of public and nonstate schools are included in the PISA sample, these findings should be viewed cautiously.

Outside of the PISA data, the literature revealed that Egyptian private school performance tracks strongly by price point and student socioeconomic status. Assessments of performance in Egyptian community schools vary widely because of the many forms and curricular approaches they adopt. No nonstate school pupil achievement, outcomes data, or literature were found on Libya, Syria or Yemen.

66 El-Sherif & Niyozov, 2015; Langsten, 2016
VII. SUMMARY CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

It is important to repeat here that nonstate school enrollment in any given country in no way predicts, by itself, the wealth or wellbeing of its citizenry. As states gain the resources and capacity to meet obligations for the provision of mass public education, any number of variables combine to form the complex winds of the nonstate education subsector. Schools that are not fully funded by the state are not obligated to remain in the market when times get tough, and so large nonstate sectors can be vulnerable to shocks and inequity without large state subsidies. Still most states in the region struggle to provide the most basic education to its citizens, forming high demand for alternatives. Around this push and pull are the political, economic, and cultural forces that influence policy and decision making. All this is to say that opportunities for USAID and partner governments to coordinate with the private sector on educational development initiatives will vary country to country.

PREVALENCE/DISTRIBUTION OF NONSTATE SCHOOLS

- The extent of nonstate schooling at primary and secondary levels in most countries studied is well below the global average of about one-fifth⁶⁷; important exceptions are Lebanon, West Bank/Gaza, and Jordan. No single contextual factor across the region could be found which explains both the overall low nonstate school prevalence and their relatively higher concentrations in certain countries. GDP levels across the region, for example, show no strong correlation with the presence of private schools. The ST concludes that each country has unique contextual dynamics which shape the presence and growth of nonstate schools. In North Africa, this is more likely the result of policy reforms embracing privatization (Morocco) or response to the needs of a large and diverse population (Egypt). In the Middle East, conflict has eroded the solitary role of the state in educational provision, leading to an increase in humanitarian and alternative state provision, while diverse ethnic and religious populations, sectarian politics, and economic stagnation have sustained the high rates of nonstate schools in Lebanon.

- Comparative analysis of the growth in nonstate school enrollments over the last decade suggests that the nonstate schooling sector in the MENA region, while small, is growing steadily in Morocco, Tunisia and at the secondary level in Syria. The other six countries for which data were analyzed show marginal to no growth. Again, given the diverse contextual dynamics playing out across the region, the political and economic factors driving these trends vary widely.

- The prevalence of hybrid, PPP, or “semi-state” models such as low-cost private schools which often receive state subsidies remain widely unknown due to the way in which private schools are collectively classified in government data. More country by country research is needed to investigate and update the data on nonstate schooling in the region, especially with regards to state schools that are either owned, managed, or financed by a nonstate actor.

- Preschools and Kindergartens are almost entirely owned, financed, and managed by nonstate actors in the countries studied except for Egypt. Some states like Jordan and Tunisia have begun to attempt to regulate ECE programs, but the effect on nonstate preschools is not known.

- Findings on nonstate school prevalence and distribution were limited by the inconsistent availability of data for each country studied. Available EMIS data varied in depth and breadth, with some datasets offering a limited range of years or figures. Despite the ST’s efforts to clean and systematize each, some figures could not be disaggregated into useable data on nonstate schools. Reasons for

⁶⁷ UIS, 2018
inconsistent datasets vary, with respective governments having varying capacities to collect, aggregate, and publish schooling data.

- The COVID-19 pandemic has introduced further complexity to the nonstate-schooling sector. Anecdotal evidence from officials in Lebanon and Jordan suggest that families impacted by the pandemic’s economic fallout are no longer able to afford the fees of nonstate schools causing closures of these schools without offering remote alternatives, further stressing the public system. In other contexts, state school closures due to the pandemic have forced some families to find nonstate schools willing to stay open. The effects of COVID on nonstate schooling should accompany any further country-specific research on the sub-sector.

**CATEGORIES OF NONSTATE SCHOOLS**

- Except for Lebanon, West Bank/Gaza and Jordan, educational provision in the region is widely dominated by the state. While there are several unique nonstate schooling models in Egypt, and a growing role for PPP and low-cost private models across the region, most schools in each country are state-operated and state-financed. Where there is nonstate schooling activity, they mostly fit into the following categories:

  - **Religious Schools**: Private schools owned and managed by confessional/religious groups or associations for different Muslim and Christian denominations, with varying funding sources.
  - **Preschools and Kindergartens**: While these preschools and kindergartens fit into the above category, they are highlighted here because in most countries studied, they are almost exclusively nonstate owned, managed, and financed.
  - **Independent or International Schools**: These schools are funded primarily through pupil tuition and typically serve pupils from elite classes. While commonly found in most MENA countries, they serve the least number pupils in the nonstate schooling sector.
  - **Free or Low-Cost Private Schools**: These schools are owned and managed by private individuals or organizations and sometimes subsidized by the state or other charity. They typically serve pupils from families of more limited means and appear to be the most common hybrid model. These schools are common in Lebanon.
  - **Humanitarian and Refugee Schools**: These are schools that are owned, financed, and managed primarily by international donors and NGOs, such as UNRWA in Jordan, Syria, Lebanon, and West Bank/Gaza.
  - **Community Schools**: These are a form of public-private partnership between NGOs, national governments and local communities, offering reduced, accelerated, or nonformal curricula targeting vulnerable and low-income school-age populations, often in rural contexts. This model is championed in Egypt, with over 4,500 community schools as of 2014.
  - **Alternative State Schools**: Although not typically considered nonstate, these are schools associated with civil or regional conflict in the form of state opposition groups and run by “alternative” governments or organized movements such as those run by ISIL, Kurds in Syria and Iraq, or rebel militias in Libya. While somewhat in a category of their own, it is important to acknowledge their presence in the region.
  - **Private Tutoring**: Although not necessarily a part of “schooling,” private tutoring has become a more common practice across the region, especially in Egypt. It is included here because its

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68 El-Sherif and Niyozov, 2015, p. 5
impact on social and educational inequality are like the selection effects of fee-charging private schools, namely that they give an advantage to pupils from families who can afford it.

- The distinction between for- and non-profit, as well as ownership, finance, and management to structure a typology of nonstate schools is useful as it forces policy makers to confront benefits and tradeoffs when considering partnerships with the nonstate sector in areas like sustainability, secularism, profiteering, and regulation. Jordan may be a good case study for this trend, which has recently encouraged PPPs in education, and Lebanon, where a variety of models flourish.

- There is still a lot to learn about the variety of schools run as public-private partnerships in the region such as some free- or low-cost private schools and how pupils who attend them perform against pupils from state schools and even other types of nonstate schools.

**POPULATIONS SERVED BY NONSTATE SCHOOLS**

- The three standout countries with significant nonstate schooling sectors are Lebanon, West Bank/Gaza, and Jordan, with the proportion of total primary school pupils enrolled in nonstate schools estimated at 70, 35 and 31 percent respectively. In the case of West Bank/Gaza, nonstate provision constitutes a majority of enrollments due to the strong prevalence of UNRWA schools; the overall nonstate enrollment figure for the West Bank is relatively smaller, although still higher than most other countries in the study. The remaining six countries for which the ET has data in the MENA region average around 9 percent at primary level, notwithstanding undercounting resulting from differing country definitions of private and nonstate. The averages for secondary enrollment proportion in the remaining six countries are around 8 percent. Apart from Tunisia and Syria, nonstate enrollments are generally lower at secondary levels. These statistics are drawn from country EMIS systems, all of which have their own way of distinguishing between and among nonstate schools. The private sector in particular was found to be frequently used in reporting as a catch-all for any school not directly owned, managed, or financed by the state. It is therefore possible that the proportion of pupils who attend nonstate schools as defined in this study may be undercounted. Neither a socio-economic analysis of pupils enrolled in nonstate schools nor a geographic analysis of communities served by nonstate schools was within the scope of this study.

- Unsurprisingly children of elite and well-to-do families, particularly boys, are well served by fully private nonstate schools that rely on tuition as their primary source of financing, but this is also the smallest population served. More common are families seeking religious education, families with limited means seeking low-cost or free private schools because they consider the state schools to be of lower quality, families with preschool age children who can afford to pay tuition, IDPs and refugees, and families seeking private tutoring.

- The literature on free- or low-cost private schools in the countries studied and especially in Lebanon, Jordan, and Morocco, is sparse. The EMIS data analyzed in this study did not significantly further our understanding of this nonstate school category given how private schools were mostly clustered together in country reporting.

**OUTCOMES OF NONSTATE SCHOOLS**

- There is not enough data to reliably assess if and where nonstate schools outperform state schools in the countries studied. PISA, PIRLS, and TIMSS (the latter two do not currently have data available disaggregated by public/private) assessments may provide some insights, but they only cover three of all the MENA countries and do not distinguish between multiple types of nonstate schools. That
said, the three MENA countries who participated in the PISA are among those with the most active nonstate schooling sectors in the region. These data show that nonstate school pupils perform slightly better than pupils enrolled in state schools on average.

- Where data on comparative performance is available in EMIS datasets, the picture is similarly mixed, with nonstate schools marginally outperforming government schools in Egypt, Morocco, Iraq, and West Bank/Gaza in terms of promotion rates. Their advantages over the state sector are particularly evident among independent and international schools and generally at the primary school level.

- One of the primary drivers of enrollment in nonstate schools can be attributed to public perceptions of the quality of state schools, regardless of whether these perceptions are accurate and by families seeking to provide an edge for their children.

- To some extent, nonstate school participation tracks with the size of the middle and upper classes in each state. The steadily emerging free- and low-cost private schools, however, are seeking to cater to families with less means, however the lack of information about these schools makes it hard to know if these schools have done so effectively.

**STATE OF THE LITERATURE**

- Key terminology and definitions of the terms “private” and “nonstate” are applied in a noticeably inconsistent manner across the literature and between databases and institutions. The term private is often flattened to obscure important nuances in ownership, contractual obligation to the state, purpose, and financing sources. Their inconsistent use, coupled with lack of conceptual depth and a similar inconsistency across the different country EMIS systems, precludes a more systematic and analytical approach to findings, and makes it very difficult to compare multiple sources of data.

- Because of this lack of comparable data, it is difficult to ascertain trends and growth within the sector without under-representing hybrid and PPP forms of nonstate schooling. This is not entirely insurmountable but would require much further country-by-country data than was available to the ST.

- There is a general lack of literature specific to nonstate schooling in MENA in both Arabic and English languages. The available literature in the English language provided a general overview about the state of education systems in the region and their historical development, with minor references to private education. It concentrates on a limited range of countries and models, beyond which, findings stemming from the literature are anecdotal or lacking detail or analysis.

- Arabic reports published by the Islamic World Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (ISESCO), Arab League Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organization (ALECSO), Lebanese Associate for Educational Studies (LAES), the Arab Thought Foundation, and the Arab Center for Research and Policy Studies lacked information on nonstate schooling activity. The Arab Education Information Network (Shamaa) was also surveyed for empirical Arabic studies on nonstate schooling activity, with no useful results. Available information on nonstate schooling is tangential and lacks the needed depth and detail for making solid distinctions between the different types and forms of actors in the region.

- Where available, National Reports and MOE Strategic Plans do not account for the nonstate sector, except for Jordan, which has recently encouraged PPP in education, and Morocco, which is openly
expanding private provision. There is limited information on education in Syria, Iraq, Yemen, and Libya due to ongoing conflict and poor data collection and reporting.

- Despite nonstate schooling being a relatively large sector in Jordan, literature on nonstate K-12 education is sparse. Scholarly attention is mostly given to private higher education in Jordan.

- There are major gaps in the literature on:
  - Regulatory and policy frameworks that organize nonstate education, including entry, input, service and exit policies and monitoring and evaluation requirements. Available literature only mentions that nonstate schools are licensed by the MOE in countries where they operate;
  - Provision and distribution of curricular and classroom materials in nonstate schools;
  - Curricular and pedagogical distinctions between state and nonstate schooling models beyond language of instruction or generally descriptive differences such as use of alternative or unauthorized textbooks;
  - Details about the variety of financing, management, and ownership arrangements between nonstate and state actors;
  - Post-Arab Spring nonstate schooling research and data;
  - PPPs outside of Egypt and Lebanon;
  - Nearly all subjects of nonstate schooling for Libya and Yemen.

**SUMMARY RECOMMENDATIONS**

- It must be acknowledged that in many cases, the projects of mass public schooling and private schooling are at odds, where the former attempts to increase equity, while the latter, sometimes overtly, increases inequity by luring away the best pupils and the most supportive families from the public system. Furthermore, millions of children in the MENA region are served by nonstate humanitarian and refugee schools, community schools, and low-cost private schools- which are usually public-private hybrids that serve some of poorest families in the region. Under the definition employed here, the nonstate schooling sector should be seen neither as a monolith to elitism nor as a cure for what ails public schools. Rather, the study suggests that opportunities for coordination between USAID and nonstate schools in achieving educational development goals lie in the sub-segments of the sector that serve the most marginalized and vulnerable children. These tend to be humanitarian and refugee schools, community schools, and low-cost private schools.

- It is recommended that USAID Mission officials examine these sub-segments of the nonstate schooling sector using the frameworks presented in Tables 2 and 3 above to guide further research into where the most vulnerable children intersect nonstate schooling in each country context. These frameworks identify the different combination of ownership, management, financing, and contractual relationships comprising the variety of nonstate and hybrid models of schooling. They make a distinction between privately owned schools that are not required to serve all pupils (even when they receive public subsidies), and public or community owned schools that are required to serve all pupils (even when they have private subsidies).

- The ST strongly cautions against voucher schemes or other methods of shifting public moneys— insofar as bilateral aid is public money—to private schools where access and equity cannot be guaranteed. In most cases, privately owned schools can refuse to admit any pupil and can exit the market at any time unlike public schools; aid to these schools is thus not only high risk, but also risks further damage to the public system. Providing vouchers, scholarships, or public subsidies for pupils to attend private schools has also been shown to have negative effects on public school systems and
pupils by benefitting a few at the cost of many, even between siblings of the same family, studies in India and Colombia found.\(^{69}\) Research also shows that while gifted pupils are not negatively affected academically by the presence of poor performing pupils (and in fact make them more prosocial, generous, and egalitarian), poor performing pupils are shown to benefit academically from the presence of gifted pupils.\(^{70}\) It is thus in the public interest to keep high performing pupils in public schools. Nonstate schools could play a role in this by providing enrichment activities under contract in public schools.

- The private management of and/or subsidizing publicly-owned schools (as opposed to the public funding of private schools), however, is an area where guarantees of equity and access can be enforced; there is however no conclusive research at present showing that pupils who attend privately managed public schools do any better or worse than other public schools, nor is there conclusive evidence that these companies can manage schools more cost effectively in the MENA context. Since little is currently known about hybrid forms of nonstate schooling, the ST recommends more research before considering how school management companies, private businesses, or community organizations might manage or subsidize public schools.

- One potential exception to the recommendation above on concentrating support on publicly owned schools are low-cost or free private schools. These schools are most common in Lebanon and to a lesser extent Jordan, are typically privately-owned, and may receive subsidies from numerous sources including the government. As stated above, there is not a lot of research or data on these schools, but some of these schools serve pupils from lower income families, and may have some promise in serving more vulnerable communities. The ST recommends that USAID Missions further examine these types of schools as the lack of data will require in-country primary research.

- Because of the finding that data, information, and research on nonstate schooling in the MENA region is sparse and where available, lacks detail, the ST recommends that in the course of technical assistance provided to partner governments that support improvements in educational data collection and management, nonstate schools should not just be included in educational censuses, but further divided into the sub-categories identified in this paper in the country EMIS. This would allow for better data about the educational choices children and families have and make in USAID partner countries’ nonstate schooling sector.

- Finally, the ST recommends at the very least that all nonstate schools and their owners and teachers associations including the most elite should be included in national strategic planning conversations. There are likely to be unique partnerships to be made, for example for the government to contract private schools to provide enrichment opportunities for gifted and talented pupils in state schools as a way to keep them in the public system, or they might contribute to a variety of teacher capacity building efforts. It is important to note that while nonstate schools as a group are found to have slightly better outcomes than their state counterparts, both groups are highly heterogeneous, with both having high performing and low performing schools. Even so, some nonstate schools, in their freedom to experiment and add to or improve state curricula, have developed novel approaches to teaching and learning as well as potential solutions to some of the most vexing national educational problems.

\(^{69}\) Kremer 2006, Keaveney 2014.
VIII. COUNTRY PROFILES

The data and information used for each country profile below is detailed in each section. All figures presented are based on raw data from country EMIS systems unless otherwise noted.

EGYPT

I. NONSTATE SCHOOL CATEGORY DESCRIPTIONS—EGYPT

Independent and international schools

Fee-charging private schools constitute 9 percent of all schools in Egypt and enroll approximately 9 percent of all students, according to the 2017-18 EMIS data. There are also fee-charging government ‘experimental’ or ‘public language’ schools comprising 5 percent of state schools.\(^ {71}\) Attendance at private and experimental schools strongly concentrates among upper-income households, coinciding with urban areas, with one-third of upper quintile socioeconomic status (SES) families attending private primary schools.\(^ {72}\) This stark class divide is more accentuated at the primary level than at secondary level as parents see the primary years as foundational and strategic to getting into a good public secondary school (e.g. experimental school).\(^ {73}\) Despite the variety of private provision in Egypt, the notion of choice in the private school market is widely constrained by affordability and geographic proximity, leaving most options in this category out of reach of most households.\(^ {74}\) Private tutoring stands apart from private schools as a far more prevalent and relatively affordable practice, with participation rates in Egypt as high as 50 percent in primary, 74 percent in preparatory, and 81 percent in secondary schools.\(^ {75}\) The pervasiveness of private tutoring in Egypt and elsewhere in the region is detailed separately in Annex C of this report.

Egypt’s less costly ‘Arabic’ private schools offer the same national curriculum as state schools but generally with higher quality infrastructure, while ‘language schools’ partially deliver a national curriculum taught in a foreign language (typically English).\(^ {76}\) The elite-serving ‘international schools’ offer foreign curricula (International Baccalaureate, English National curriculum, etc.) exclusively or supplemented with the Egyptian national curriculum.\(^ {77}\)

Private and foreign international schools are governed by the Egyptian MOE in accordance with Law No. 139 of 1981 and Ministerial Decree No. 420 of 2014, which establish the basis for licensing and regulating schools in the private sector. These regulations apply to all the variations of fee-charging private schools in Egypt, including the international foreign curriculum schools\(^ {78}\) and govern tuition fees, national exam administration, and mandatory closures. Schools fees are reviewed by the MOE, weighed against budgetary expenses and profits, and limited to marginal annual increase in the interest of protecting parents from schools exaggerating their fees.\(^ {79}\) Private schools offering the national

\(^{71}\) Krafft, Elbadawy and Sieverding, 2019, p. 3
\(^{72}\) based on 2012 statistical data cited in Elbadawy, 2014, p. 13
\(^{73}\) Elbadawy, 2014, p. 12
\(^{74}\) Krafft, Elbadawy and Sieverding, 2019, p. 13-14. The authors contrast this with comparably populous countries like India and Pakistan, which have variously affordable private schools within reach of lower-SES households.
\(^{75}\) Abdul Wahab 2009, cited in Sobhy, 2012, p. 49
\(^{76}\) Hartmann, 2013, p. 61
\(^{77}\) Elbadawy, 2014, p. 12
\(^{78}\) Elbadawy, 2014, p. 12
\(^{79}\) Salah and Elkady, 2016, p. 4
curriculum are standardized by the MOE, whereas international schools accredited by foreign bodies are not subject to MOE curricular regulations.

The literature generally evidences a strong correlation between SES and school performance, as wealthier families have greater access to higher quality educational resources and opportunities. While no literature speaking directly to private school performance could be found, one robust study evidenced the strength of the relationship between family background and individual performance on high-stakes national exams. The study identifies a range of nonstate educational resources which drive exam performance, including private schooling, private tutoring, and private study groups, as well as parents’ level of education. What these findings indicate is not only the starkly unequal access to educational opportunities by social class in Egypt, but also the scope of resources beyond that of state-provided schooling which are required for students to succeed.

**Azhari religious schools**

The Azhari schools extend from early years through secondary, offering a primarily religious curriculum with some non-religious academic subjects similar to the national curriculum in government schools, emphasizing memorization and the recitation of texts. Despite a common perception of lower academic rigor in Azhari curricula, the schools are reportedly seen by some communities as superior in quality in comparison to Egyptian government schools. They are also preferred by some parents who want children to receive the disciplined moral teachings of an Islamic education and fear secular ideas espoused in state school curricula.

Azhari religious schools are governed by the Supreme Council of Al-Azhar, the highest Islamic body in Egypt, and serve roughly 8 percent of the population for primary and secondary schooling according to the 2017-18 EMIS data. While the number of Azhari schools increased between 1-2 percent year on year in line with the growth of state schools, enrollments paradoxically decreased by 3 percent of total pupils over the same decade. This appears to reflect the changing demographic served by Azhari schools. Unlike community schools, which serve exclusively low-income rural communities, and the various private schools which serve mostly families in the highest wealth quintile, the populations served by Azhari religious schools are both rural and urban. While they traditionally concentrated in rural areas and continue to do so at twice the rate of urban areas, their urban presence has been said to have doubled between 1998 to 2012. Similarly Azhari enrollments were traditionally concentrated among low-income households, having a negative correlation with family wealth, but this too has changed in recent years with a sharp rise in attendance by children from higher socio-economic backgrounds. One source attributes this shift to the increase in supply in urban areas and a growing preference for religious education; another explains the shift as a response to the persistently low quality in government schools. The latter is evidenced by the relatively small classroom size (CS) of 30 pupils per class,
compared to 47 in state schools and even 33 in private schools, as well as a pupil-teacher ratio at exactly half that of state schools.

The hybridity of Egypt's Azhari schools means that they are not conceptualized in the literature as nonstate, even though they operate separate to the government school system and are managed by Al-Azhar, the autonomous central religious body of Egypt. Rather, they are framed as religious semi-state schools, as they are financed by the Egyptian government but exist outside of the MOE structure. Like state schools in Egypt, attendance at Azhari schools comes with relatively nominal administrative costs or contributions paid by individual households, although these are slightly higher on average than government school fees. To complicate matters, there are also ‘private’ and foreign-language Azhari schools not operated by Al-Azhar, which charge much higher fees, suggesting that Azhari is an alternative Islamic curriculum or educational brand rather than a single model of school.

Azhari schools have a separate oversight structure and are governed by the Supreme Council of Al-Azhar, while being simultaneously "monitored by the Egyptian Prime Minister." How exactly Azhari schools are regulated and how its oversight by the religious body differs from that of the MOE was not identifiable from the literature. As the 2014 Egyptian constitution makes clear, Al-Azhar is a fully autonomous “scientific Islamic institution, with exclusive competence over its own affairs” and “is responsible for … disseminating the religious sciences and the Arabic language in Egypt and the world.” The constitution also enshrines religious education as a core subject in all forms of schooling (Article 24) and as the right of a child (Article 80). Thus while Azhari schools stand as separate and independently governed institutions to state schools, they still form a cornerstone of national identity and state education broadly.

None of the available literature or EMIS data address the relative performance and outcomes of Egypt’s Azhari religious school pupils. This finding exposes a sizeable gap, considering the overall proportion of nonstate schools that Azhari schools constitute and its shifting target demographic. Only one report observed that graduates of the Azhari system are comparably prepared as graduates of the state school system with regards to employment skills and opportunity. In a labor market that is generally unable to absorb its graduates, Azhari pupils may hold a nominal advantage in having employment opportunities in the religious sector as religious teachers, scholars, or leaders.

Community schools

Community schools were created through an agreement between the United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF), the Egyptian MOE, and bilateral donors, combining local inputs and international resources to provide schooling in areas underserved by state incapacity. First launched in Upper Egypt in 1992 as a “joint venture for quality innovative education through genuine community participation UNICEF solicited donations of land from local landowners, partnered with village elders, and provided the

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90 While fully independent in its governance, Al-Azhar is financed by the Egyptian government as required per Article 7 of the 2014 Egyptian Constitution (https://www.sis.gov.eg/Newvr/Dustor-en001.pdf, p. 7)
91 Elbadawy, 2014, p. 13
92 Krafft, Elbadawy and Sieverding, 2019, p. 3
93 Elbadawy, 2014, p. 13
95 Ibid., p. 11 & 23
96 USAID, 2004, p. 13
technical inputs for curriculum and teacher training. The MOE agreed to pay the salaries of teachers, provide materials, and support curriculum and teacher training, designating teachers as civil servants under a special category of MOE staff. Thus, in contrast to most community school models worldwide where governments allow nonstate providers to fill gaps in net provision, the Egyptian approach constitutes an actual state–nonstate partnership with state resources going to nonstate providers. The community school model lifts the burden of externalized attendance costs from households in poor communities by premising itself on being "functionally expense-free." All of the additional costs in attending state schools (e.g., uniforms) are mitigated by circumventing requirements by providing meals and supplies, and in some cases providing cash transfers to households to account for lost labor of children in attendance.

The community schools are a changing model adapting to large-scale expansion and ongoing appropriation by the Egyptian MOE. The original model for quality community-based education developed by UNICEF was a response to the needs of rural villages in Upper Egypt’s underserved areas, where access to education, particularly for poor households, is severely limited or nonexistent. The UNICEF model targets children out of school for reasons of geography, gender or socioeconomic deprivation, with particular concentration on providing access to girls who are excluded from state schools due to starting school late or dropping out. The community school model has subsequently expanded and broadened its partnership base, servicing various populations with differing needs across rural and urban areas in Egypt. Under the umbrella of community schools, there are, among others, One-Classroom Schools teaching academic and vocational skills at primary level to rural communities, Girl-Friendly Schools addressing gender-related access and exclusion, and Friendly to Children in Difficult Circumstances Schools for addressing the psychosocial needs of street children, each operated by varying NGOs, along with the Egyptian MOE and other branches of government.

Community schools in Egypt are governed by the Egyptian MOE, which conducts evaluations of community schools and regularly supervises through school management committees. School accountability, however, is not tied to academic performance as Egyptian national exams at the primary level are not linked to systems of school accountability. As a public-private partnership, donors or NGO partners also participate in monitoring, particularly that of community schoolteachers hired by the communities they serve in.

The community schools in Egypt today offer an alternative to the national curriculum in line with the needs of their targeted communities. The original UNICEF model implemented in rural Egyptian community schools used a modified and reduced national curriculum aimed at flexibly serving working children and out-of-school girls. With a primary focus on literacy-building, citizenship, and life skills for employment, their partial alignment to the national curriculum was aimed to position students to take national exams so that they could continue in government preparatory schools. Some urban variants of the community school model target marginalized children with flexible hours and valuable life skills. One successful example of such the PPP model is the Recycling School for Boys (Learning and Earning in

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98 Langsten, 2016, p. 459
99 DeStefano & Schuh, 2010, p. 518
100 Ibid., p. 10
101 El-Sherif & Niyozov, 2015, p. 5
102 Langsten, 2016, pp. 458-9
103 El-Sherif & Niyozov, 2015, p. 5
104 DeStefano and Schuh, 2010, p. 517
105 Ibid., p. 524
106 El-Sherif & Niyozov, 2015, p. 5
Cairo’s Garbage City Project), which links its curriculum to work-based livelihoods in the waste management and recycling trade. Attended by boys from ages 9-17, around one-third reportedly go on to formal basic education.\(^{107}\)

Since the Egyptian MOE in partnership with UNICEF and other local NGOs upscaled the model in the 1990’s, the community school is described as having departed from its original conception. Its pedagogy has become more didactic, while the curriculum is a direct application of the national curriculum with little modification. Newer community schools have shorter class times and an increase in homework (a particular impediment to working children), while the heightened qualification requirements to degree level for teachers creates supply bottlenecks, with teachers being less likely to be from the same community.\(^{108}\) Current iterations of community schools feature commonly alongside government schools and even other community schools, absorbing excess demand and creating a dynamic of competition between schools for students.\(^{109}\) While still preferred by poor households owing to the lighter cost burden, some relatively better-off families also send children to such schools. As the schools increasingly cater to students fitting the statutory age/level structure of the national curriculum, their original beneficiaries – vulnerable and excluded girls of any age – have again, in some contexts, become excluded and not sufficiently accommodated by these developments to the original model.\(^{110}\)

Early assessments of Egypt’s community schools indicated generally higher rates of completion and stronger national exam results, all the while being twice as cost-effective as government-run schools.\(^{111}\) Community school student performance on the government exam at end of primary level was the primary outcome cited by the Egyptian MOE as justification for its vast expansion of the model throughout the 2000s and 2010s.\(^{112}\) However, these performance assessments are challenged by one study of three villages in Upper Egypt which found community schools slightly underperforming against government schools, particularly in educating girls in reading, math, and civic knowledge.\(^{113}\) The disparity between earlier and more recent assessments of community school performance is attributed to inconsistent resourcing from the MOE, and the gradual replacement of international partners with local NGOs resulting in substantive changes to their curricular foci and resources. Retention rates for community schools and transition rates into preparatory (middle) school were also found to be lower, owing to the concentration of students from very low-income households in community schools.\(^{114}\) While the UNICEF-inspired model continues to provide communities with affordable and flexible access to primary schooling, students' transition to state preparatory schools is described as a "crippling" experience, as students are immediately faced with the realities of larger classrooms, less attention to individual needs, high-stakes matriculation exams, perpetually absent teachers, and an inability to learn and progress without participating in private tutoring.\(^{115}\)

### 2. QUANTITATIVE DATA SOURCES

The Government of Egypt publishes comprehensive statistical yearbooks through its MOE and the Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics (CAPMAS). These EMIS records include raw figures

\(^{107}\) UNICEF, 2017, p. 82
\(^{108}\) El-Sherif & Niyozov, 2015, p. 12
\(^{109}\) Langsten, 2016, pp. 474-5
\(^{110}\) Ibid.
\(^{111}\) DeStefano & Schuh, 2010, p. 513
\(^{112}\) El-Sherif & Niyozov, 2015, p. 5
\(^{113}\) Langsten, 2016
\(^{114}\) El-Sherif & Niyozov, 2015; Langsten, 2016
\(^{115}\) El-Sherif & Niyozov, 2015, p. 10
such as school, class, and pupil enrollment count at the cyclical level (primary grades 1-6, Preparatory grades 7-9, and secondary grades 10-12), average class sizes and pupil-teacher ratios, as well as promotion rates. The MOE publishes figures for government, independent and community schools, while several CAPMAS publications provided analogous figures for Azhari religious schools. Together these sources provide extensive data on schooling in Egypt across the state-nonstate spectrum; however, they provide limited data on Azhari schools relative to other types, particularly with regards to teachers (2017-18 figures only) and outcomes (none). Neither of the data sources included figures on repetition and dropout rates, a prominent feature in other countries' data which aid the understanding of how promotion rates are calculated. In all, data from the most recent ten years (2009 – 2018) were collected for this analysis.

3. NONSTATE SCHOOL PREVALENCE & DISTRIBUTION—EGYPT

The three main categories of nonstate schools in Egypt are: varying types of fee-charging private and international schools, Azhari religious schools, and community schools for alternative primary provision. Neither the EMIS data nor the literature categorizes the Azhari and community schools as private or nonstate, although both would fall into “Nonstate managed” types of schools according to the typology in Table 3, with a state ownership stake in financing and a hybrid state-nonstate management structure. Accordingly, statistics on independent school enrollments only represent Egypt’s fee-charging private and international schools.

While Egypt has a lesser overall nonstate school presence than Lebanon or Jordan, its education system is considerably diverse in terms of the educational pathways pupils can choose from, particularly with the independent schools mirroring the academic and vocational secondary streams of the state school system. Government, private and Azhari schools all offer preschool and kindergarten, primary, preparatory, and secondary schools extending from grades 1 through 12. Community schools run from grades 1 to 6 only.

An analysis of the EMIS data finds that the Azhari primary and secondary schools constitute the largest nonstate category, at 40 percent of all nonstate schools and 15 percent of all schools in Egypt (shown in Figure 10). Despite their profile in the nonstate school landscape, however, they serve only around 8 percent of the overall primary and secondary population. This inverse relationship is even more pronounced in community schools, which make up 22 percent of all nonstate schools and 8 percent of all schools yet serve only one percent of the total primary age population. This disparity is due to the single-classroom model of community schools and its strategic emphasis on small class sizes. The independent schools are collectively proportionate to their enrollments, with 9 percent of schools serving around 8.5 percent of all pupils.
In comparison with other MENA countries, Egypt has a wider breadth of nonstate school models when accounting for community and Azhari schools, but still an overall low average nonstate school enrollment as a proportion of all primary and secondary enrollments (decreasing from 17 to 16 percent over ten years). This proportion decreases further when accounting for ECE provision, which unusually for the region, is led by state providers (as shown in Figure 11). Most MENA countries have nearly three-quarters of ECE pupils enrolled in nonstate preschools and kindergartens, whereas Egypt has only 25 percent enrolled.\textsuperscript{117} The 2017 nonstate enrollment proportion of total enrollment in Egypt is 17 percent at the primary, although this figure includes Azhari and community school enrollments, at 7 and 1 percent respectively. As these are technically state schools, the real nonstate school proportion of primary enrollments is 9 percent only, accounting for only independent schools. As the secondary level, independent schools enroll 8.5 percent and Azhari schools 7.7 percent.

\textsuperscript{116} 2017/2018 is the most recent year that data is available for Azhari schools.

\textsuperscript{117} This figure and the trend line for ECE in Figure Figure 11 excludes Azhari school enrollments, as CAPMAS only published Azhari ECE figures for a single year, 2017/18. Azhari enrollments were 75,007 pupils, or 5.4% of all ECE for that year. If Azhari ECE enrollments were included in the total proportion of nonstate ECE, the figure would be slightly above 29 percent.
The distribution of pupils in these nonstate school categories concentrates in the primary level, which is consistent with the trend in government schools. The drop in enrollments from primary to secondary level in the independent schools is significant, at 34 percent for boys and 40 percent for girls (compared to a 28 percent drop in the state sector for boys and girls). The gender disparity is sizable and is not readily explained by the data or literature, although as Figure 12 illustrates, the trend of male enrollments exceeding female enrollments across levels is evident in both private and Azhari schools (and government schools, not shown in figure below). The only exception to this trend is the community schools, which by traditionally targeting marginalized girls, consistently enrolls many more girls than boys, although this gap has narrowed over the past ten years with the significant increase in boys’ enrollments.

Analysis of the growth and change in the distribution of nonstate schools over a ten-year period from 2009 to 2018 found the landscape has not changed in any significant direction during this time. In terms of nonstate school numbers, the Azhari religious and community schools expanded at a rate of between 1-2 percent per year in line with government school growth. Independent schools, in contrast, expanded
at an average rate of 4.5 percent per year with the rate appearing to steadily increase over the decade. This trend is reflected in independent school enrollments (shown in Figure 13), which also indicate a year on year growth rising from 5 to 8.5 percent over the decade. A slower yet rising growth in enrollments can also be observed in the government schools, which is a far larger system, suggesting a steady expansion in the total population of school-age children participating in public or private education. Seen through a gendered analysis, however, the rates of change are incrementally yet consistently higher for boys in the independent schools and higher for girls in the government schools, suggesting that the gender disparity in private school participation rates is slowly worsening, possibly as girls transfer to government schools or drop out of school entirely.

The change in enrollments in Azhari schools points to an overall declining trend, with enrollments shrinking from between 3.5 percent each year in primary and secondary levels, with a few small exceptions. The fluctuations are less accentuated for girls, reflecting the changing gender ratio in Azhari schools at the primary and secondary levels (rising 3-4 percent closer to gender parity over ten years). In other words, the changing gender ratio is not an indication of increasing participation of girls, but rather of boys leaving Azhari schools in higher numbers each year than girls. The net decline over this period runs counter to the incremental growth in Azhari schools, pointing to a paradox for which the data and literature provide no ready explanation.

Changes in enrollments in community schools reflect the shifting emphasis of the community school model in Egypt towards marginalized boys and towards urban provision. While the overall gender disparity remains primarily in service to girls, that service gap has closed significantly over the decade from 86 percent girls in 2009 to only 69 percent in 2018. While the overall enrollment figures in community schools remain minute in the larger picture, this shift towards boys is significant, with year on year growth in boys’ enrollments as high as 23 percent, tapering down to 9 percent in 2018. In contrast, girls’ enrollments saw a small decline from 2010 to 2013 before resuming low single-digit growth. The downward trend for both boys and girls suggests an overall slowdown in community school participation despite the rapid shift towards boys’ provision.

Figure 13: Egypt - Percentage change in enrollment each year by category, gender

4. QUALITY & OUTCOMES—EGYPT

Findings on class size and pupil-teacher ratios reveal the sheer enormity of the Egyptian population and the pressure it puts on educational resources. Class sizes in 2017-18, shown in Figure 14, ranged from
50 pupils at the primary level to 40 at secondary in government schools, and down to 32 for primary and 33 for secondary in private schools. These figures for private schools are higher than the average state school class size in other MENA countries. The trend over ten years indicates a slow rise in class size in both private and public schools, suggesting increasing demographic pressures on the collective education system. A comparable uptick in community school class sizes is also evident, which carries implications for the single-classroom model in terms of quality and focused instruction. The only nonstate school to exhibit a decrease in class size is the Azhari schools, owing to decreasing enrollments and increasing schools. In line with this finding, an analysis of pupil-teacher ratios reveals the relatively high resourcing of Azhari schools. Their pupil-teacher ratios in Azhari schools are half that of the private and public schools, which have comparable ratios, and are even lower than those found in community schools. While this could be the result of overstaffing or a different counting methodology between school models, it aligns with findings from the literature (below) which note that some parents see Azhari schools as having a higher standard of quality over state schools. Little is known about the quality of instruction in Azhari schools, however, and systemic reliance on private tutoring is likely to pervade Azhari schools to the same degree as government and independent schools.

**Figure 14: Egypt - Comparative distribution, class size (most recent) by category, level**

Educational outcomes (e.g. promotion and dropout rates) stemming from the EMIS data are limited due to the available data and inconsistent methodologies for calculating figures. In the case of Egypt, EMIS student promotion rates were called “success rates” across the primary, preparatory, and secondary levels but excluded figures on dropouts and repetition rates. Comparable outcomes data were entirely absent for Azhari schools. Seen in longitudinal perspective in Figure 15, the “success rates” provided by the MOE present a mixed story for government and independent schools. At the primary and preparatory levels, independent schools consistently outperform government schools, although that gap appears to have nearly closed over the decade. At the secondary level, however, government schools handily outperform independent schools according to this measure. Without a clear understanding of how the MOE is defining and measuring “success” in their data, it is difficult to ascertain how these results are calculated and what their significance is. Likewise, for community schools, the success rate rises sharply over the decade from 72 to 95 percent; again, it is not clear how these figures are calculated, especially given the sheer diversity of community schools and their varying curricular foci.
5. SUMMARY CONCLUSIONS—EGYPT

The Egyptian education system is categorically diverse with a broad spectrum of state and nonstate school models. While participation rates (at 8.5 percent in 2017-18) in independent schools is in line with many other countries in the region, Egypt’s experimentation with community schools and religious schools reflects its need for a wide diversity of schools in serving the largest population in the MENA region. The trend of declining enrollment rates in Azhari schools and tapering off community school growth suggest their marginal role in the educational landscape moving forward. The rates of growth in independent schools and enrollments point to the slowly expanding role of the private sector in primary and secondary school provision; however, the literature suggests the entry costs to private education are still prohibitive to the strong majority of households, pointing to a lack of diversity and low-cost providers within the private sector.

The EMIS data and literature both identify the Egyptian government as by far the single largest provider of schools, and this trend does not appear to be changing over the decade of data analyzed. The Egyptian government has responded to the need for a breadth of school models by continuously expanding and reconfiguring its state schools to service the diverse needs of the population, including the introduction of competitive ‘experimental’ state schools, foreign language-based state schools, and vocational secondary schools aligned with industrial demand. The continuing expansion of the types of state school provision is paradoxically at odds with the MOE’s efforts to consolidate and simplify its schools into fewer streams. With the rollout of the “New Education System” starting in 2018 which combines educational technologies with curricular redesign, the MOE appears intent to maintain its dominant role in educational provision moving forward.

118 Based on a televised interview with the Minister of Education Tarek Shawky, in 2017: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=yNKzxxqZQA
119 https://www.egypttoday.com/Article/1/61368/Exclusive-Interview-Education-minister-details-new-system
IRAQ

1. NONSTATE SCHOOL CATEGORY DESCRIPTIONS

Independent and International Schools

Independent private and international schools in Iraq are owned by private individuals and enterprises, and they are fee-charging. There is a small number of international schools in Iraq and Kurdistan, such as the International School of Choueifat in Erbil and the British International Schools. Private education targets the economic and intellectual elite. Fees vary considerably among nonstate schools, ranging from $1,000 USD to $4,000 USD, and they increase as students move up the education scale. These schools have been growing in number in the last four years. However, their participation in the Iraqi education system remains limited.

Religious Schools

National EMIS data points to the existence of religious schools in Iraq; however, no information was available on the characteristics of these schools. Therefore, no conclusion can be made about the ownership, financing, and management of these schools.

2. QUANTITATIVE DATA SOURCES—IRAQ

Iraq publishes statistical yearbooks on education and schooling through the Ministry of Planning’s Central Statistical Organization. The yearbooks publicly available include data for 2015/2016 through 2018/2019 only. The EMIS records provide figures for state and two nonstate school categories, private and religious schools. They include raw figures for a) student enrollment by cyclical level (Preschool, Kindergartens, primary grades 1-6, and secondary grades 7-12), b) number and geographical distribution of schools, c) number of classes, and d) number of teachers by level and school type. Raw figures on student repetition, dropouts and promotions for each grade, cycle and type of school are also provided. Average class sizes, pupil-teacher ratios, dropout rates, and promotion rates were calculated to allow comparisons across state and nonstate schools. The national EMIS data excludes information on the Kurdistan region.

3. NONSTATE SCHOOL PREVALENCE & DISTRIBUTION—IRAQ

Education in Iraq is strongly dominated by the state. Like other conflict-affected countries where nonstate schools tend to grow, there has been an increase in the privatization of education in Iraq. The education system in Iraq is in a state of deterioration given many decades of political instability, sectarianism, religious dominance, and corruption. It is bifurcated into Iraqi and Kurdish MOEs, and is further decentralized and regulated by local authorities and political actors. Fee-charging private and international schools and religious schools for primary (1-6) and secondary (7-12) levels are the only categories of nonstate schools in Iraq for which information was available in the public domain. The nonstate school sector also includes private preschools and kindergartens.
Analysis of EMIS data revealed that Independent and International schools are the largest nonstate school category at 97 percent of all nonstate schools and represent 9.4 percent of all schools in 2018/2019. The examined literature suggests that the number of private schools in Iraq and the Kurdish region is still lower than the number of public schools; yet, there seems to be a steady increase in privatization of education.\textsuperscript{111} These schools, however, serve only 4.4 percent of the total student population in primary and secondary levels, the majority of which are males according to 2018/2019 enrollment figures.

In 2012 alone, the MOE in Iraq licensed 1,200 new fee-paying nonstate schools throughout the country.\textsuperscript{112} One study in 2018 in Iraq found that private schools grew at a faster rate than public schools over the last 5 years.\textsuperscript{109} Analysis of growth and change in the distribution of nonstate schools confirms that trend in the literature. The number of independent and international schools doubled from 2015 to...
2018 (from 1,133 to 2,382), whereas the number of religious schools showed an insignificant change (72 to 74).

**Figure 18: Iraq - Number of schools each year, by category**

![Bar chart showing the number of schools in Independent/International, Religious, and Government categories from 2015 to 2018.]

Nonstate private schools have been attracting an increasing number of Iraqi children. A study in 2018 in the Kurdistan region found that 2.5 percent of students are enrolled in private schools, and in Basra province, 20 percent of its 800,000 students are enrolled in private schools. Differences in wealth demographics between the two regions play a significant role in this disparity. EMIS data confirms the steady increase in enrollment over which responded to the growth in the number of schools. The number of enrolled students in independent/international between 2015 and 2018 doubled (from 195,160 to 405,117), but it remained very low compared to the enrollment numbers in public schools. A slower increase enrollment increase was found in religious school over the last 4 years (from 17,240 to 20,789).

**Figure 19: Iraq - Change in enrollment each year, by category**

![Line chart showing the enrollment increase in Independent/International, Religious, and Government categories from 2015 to 2018.]


The percent changes in enrollment in independent/private schools from 2016 to 2018 are significant compared to public schools and religious schools. The highest percent change in enrollment was noted in 2017 with an increase in 31 percent for male pupils and 33 percent for female pupils. This, however, does not mean that more students were enrolled in private schools than public schools given that the enrollment numbers in public schools are large.

**Figure 20: Iraq - Percentage change in enrollment each year, by category, gender**

In terms of gender, enrollment figures in nonstate schools show a larger increase in female participation in independent and international schools in primary levels. Changes in student enrollment in religious schools show that for 2016 and 2017 the increase was higher for males than females, whereas in 2018 more females than males were enrolled in religious schools. Despite these changes, female participation in nonstate schools remains lower than male participation in nonstate schools as enrollment figures in 2018 showed.
Figure 21: Iraq - Percentage change in enrollment each year, by category, level, gender

EMIS data for preschools and kindergartens were separately analyzed in Iraq. There are two types of kindergartens: State and independent/international kindergartens. In 2018, the total number of private kindergartens 520 serving around 13 percent of kindergarten students.

Figure 22: Iraq - Enrollment distribution (most recent) for preschool and kindergarten by category, gender

Similar to the trend in grade 1-12 schools, there is a steady increase in the number of private kindergartens, which respond to a steady increase in the enrollment number of students at the same level. The number of private kindergartens increase from 329 to 520 kindergartens between 2015 and 2018. Public kindergartens also reveal an increase in their number of the same years responding to an increase in enrollment over time. These figures confirm that the state remains the main provider of this level of education.
Private preschools, on the other hand, are the main providers of this level of education. In 2018/2019, there were 652 private preschools compared to 184 public/state preschools and other preschools operated by different authorities. Private preschools serve almost 78 percent of total students enrolled at this level.
Figure 25: Iraq - Enrollment distribution (most recent) for preschools by category, gender

Analysis of growth of private schools between 2015/2016 and 2018/2019 shows a steady increase compared to other providers. This increase responds to an increase in enrollment figures for the same years, which remains highest for private preschools.

Figure 26: Iraq - Change in enrollment for preschools each year, by category
4. QUALITY & OUTCOMES—IRAQ

A UNICEF study in 2017 suggests that pupils in private schools perform higher than their counterparts in national exams in Iraq. Private and public schools use the same Iraqi national curriculum and exit exams, except for international schools and Kurdish schools. However, International schools offer the British curriculum or IB program with different exit exams. The literature suggests that nonstate schools provide better facilities and support than state school and offer additional subjects such as languages, music, and dance.

Findings on CS and pupil teacher ratio (PTR) in 2018/2019 reflect the large student population in Iraq and the pressure it puts on its public sector. Public schools have the highest class sizes compared to independent/international and religious schools, ranging between 36 students in primary and 39 students in secondary levels. Class sizes in independent and international schools ranged from 20 pupils at the primary level and 17 pupils at the secondary level – almost half of the CS in public schools. Religious schools (74 in total) had class sizes that ranged between 31 students at the primary level to 30 students at the secondary level.
PTR reflect a similar trend with public schools having the highest PTR compared to independent/international and religious schools.

Analysis of the change in overall CS between 2015/2016 and 2018/2019 show an insignificant change in all school types. Public schools maintained the highest CS at an average of 38 students compared to religious and independent/international schools. The CS in religious school increased at a low rate from 26 students in 2015 to 30 students in 2018, whereas a low decrease from a class size of 20 students in 2015 to 19 students in 2018 was detected in independent and international schools. Analysis of PTR over time reflected the same slow change in all school types, with public schools having the largest PTR.

In Iraq, promotion, drop out and repetition figures were provided across the primary and secondary levels and promotion rates were calculated accordingly. Analysis of PR in 2018/2019 show that independent and international and religious schools outperform public at the primary and secondary levels. Analysis of PR between 2016/2018 and 2018/2019 reveal the same trend. No solid conclusion can be made about the quality of education in Iraq’s nonstate schools. However, CS and PTR figures confirm the findings in the literature which indicate that these schools provide students with smaller classes.
assess to classes with fewer pupils per teacher, factors associated with and better educational outcomes, such as higher promotion rates (PR).

**Figure 30: Iraq - Comparative distribution, promotion rate (most recent) by category, level**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>2018/2019 Promotion Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Independent/international</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**5. SUMMARY CONCLUSIONS—IRAQ**

The examined literature and EMIS data show that the Iraqi education system is heavily dominated by the state across the kindergarten, primary (1-6) and secondary (7-12) education. Despite the deterioration of the state education sector, it remains the main provider for all levels of education except for preschools. However, increasing enrollment in and expansion of independent/international schools indicate the slowly increasing role of the non-state sector in Iraq. The options of nonstate schools for Iraqi students are limited to religious schools and independent and international schools. In terms of outcomes, EMIS data suggests that nonstate schools outperform state schools in grades 1-12, which have attracted an increasing number of students over time.

**JORDAN**

**1. NONSTATE SCHOOL CATEGORY DESCRIPTIONS—JORDAN**

**Preschools and Kindergartens**

Jordanian preschool/kindergarten education is predominantly provided by nonstate schools despite the state’s effort to expand this level of education in the last few years.\(^{120,121}\) Preschool/kindergarten education is also provided, managed and regulated by other actors, including UNRWA, Quranic centers, charities and community-based kindergartens and other private individuals.\(^{122}\) For example, charities and community-based kindergartens are regulated by the Ministry of Social Development. Outside the formal schooling system, the Quranic centers are the largest providers of preschool/kindergarten education, serving almost 16,000 students in over 180 kindergartens.\(^{123}\) The fees in these kindergartens vary depending on the provider apart from kindergartens in refugee camps. Supported and funded by international organizations, they provide refugees with kindergarten education for free. Very little is

\(^{120}\) *Ibid.*, p. 41
\(^{121}\) *Maani, 2017*, p. 41, 45
\(^{122}\) *RTI, 2018*
\(^{123}\) *RTI, 2018*
known about the quality of education standards in these kindergartens; however, those kindergartens use different curricula and vary in terms of the qualifications and professional development of their teachers.¹²⁴

**Independent and international schools**

Private individuals, companies, and charitable institutions own most nonstate schools in Jordan.¹²⁵ These schools provide tuition-charging education for all levels. The majority of nonstate schools in Jordan are accessible to families seeking accessible, private education for their children. Jordan also has several international or foreign schools, such as the American Community School. These schools are primarily financed by households and serve Jordan’s wealthiest as well as upper-middle class population. Fees range between $5,000 USD to $10,000 USD per year.¹²⁶ The examined literature and EMIS data revealed that these schools offer better education opportunities and standards of quality than other schools in Jordan, driving better outcomes and student performance.

**Free, Low-cost private schools OR Public-Private Partnerships**

Jordan encourages PPPs to support education, where a nonstate actor owns, finances, or manages a school in partnership with the state. Madrasati is an example of a PPP established in 2008 between Queen Rania, the MOE, and a number of nonstate actors, including 80 companies that fund this initiative.¹²⁷ School committees of parents, students, civil society organizations (CSOs), teachers and private sector representatives¹²⁸ work together and give CSOs a central role in supporting participant state schools. They often focus on improving the school environment, making them safer for students.¹²⁹ Based on the MOE 2018-2022 strategic plan, PPPs appear to have the potential to provide additional solutions to improve quality education for all students, particularly where the state does not have the resources or the capacity to drive development toward a knowledge society and economy.

**Humanitarian and refugee schools**

A range of non-state providers serve Syrian and Palestinian refugees in Jordan. The United National Relief and Works Agency (UNRWA) owns, finances, and manages schools for Palestinian refugees in Jordan and Palestinian refugees who fled Syria. These schools provide free, basic education based on the Jordanian national curriculum. In 2018/2019, Jordan had 169 UNRWA schools that served almost 4 percent of the total student population. These schools have overcrowded classrooms and high pupil-teacher ratios, implying lower education standards of quality than international and independent schools. The majority of Syrian refugees are enrolled in Jordan’s double-shift state schools Out of school Syrian children are enrolled in non-formal education programs largely run by CSOs and funded by UNICEF, UNHCR and other international organizations. An example is Makani centers, which offer learning opportunities for refugee children.

¹²⁴ RTI, 2018
¹²⁵ Open Society Foundation, 2010, p. 42
¹²⁶ Maani, 2017, p. 44
¹²⁷ Jalbout, 2014, p.14
¹²⁸ Ibid, p. 43
¹²⁹ Ibid, p.43
Religious Schools

Data collection revealed that the religious schools constitute a nonstate school category; however, the examined literature did not provide information on religious schools in Jordan.

2. QUANTITATIVE DATA SOURCES—JORDAN

The Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan publishes annual statistical reports through its MOE. These reports include EMIS raw figures for state, private, and UNRWA schools. They provide raw figures on school types and geographical distribution, student enrollment counts at the cyclical levels (preschools, kindergartens, basic education 1-10, and secondary 11 & 12), number of classes and teachers. Repetition, dropout, and promotion figures are also reported, but not disaggregated by school type, which did not allow for comparisons across state and nonstate schools. The ST calculated pupil-teacher ratio and class sizes from the raw data found in the reports.

3. NONSTATE SCHOOL PREVALENCE & DISTRIBUTION—JORDAN

Jordan has one of the largest nonstate schooling sector among the study countries for this report, after Lebanon and WB/Gaza. The non-state sector has been expanding and attracting an increasing number of students over the last decade. Jordan’s MOE categorizes its schools as state (MOE and other state agency schools), private and UNRWA schools. The private sector is the primary provider of preschool/kindergarten education. Data collected in Jordan suggest that within the private school category there are independent, international, religious schools and UNRWA schools. EMIS data for private schools represents data on independent, international, and religious schools.

Figure 31: Jordan – Nonstate School Distribution and Prevalence (2018/2019)

The distribution of schools in Jordan was reported as divisions or cycles across the state-nonstate spectrum. An analysis of the EMIS data in 2018-2019 revealed that non-state schools constitute 47 percent of all schools in Jordan. Independent and International schools constitute the largest category of nonstate schools at 95 percent of all nonstate schools and 45 percent of all schools in Jordan. Nonstate schools serve almost 30 percent of total student population in Jordan according to EMIS data for the same year. In 2018-2019, 1,813 private preschool divisions served 72 percent of all students enrolled at
this level. Humanitarian and refugee schooling provided by UNRWA make up a small but institutionalized nonstate system of schooling for Palestinian refugee communities. It should be noted that nearly all Syrian refugees are served by state schools.

**Figure 32: Jordan - Enrollment distribution (most recent) by category, level, gender**

![Enrollment distribution chart](image)

Similar to the student distribution in public schools, the distribution of students in nonstate schools is concentrated at the basic education level (1-10). The gender disparity at the basic education level in independent and international schools is considerable with 61 percent male and 39 percent female students. This disparity has no direct explanation in the examined literature. In UNRWA schools, gender disparity among enrolled students is less pronounced. In public schools there are many more female students than male students in both levels.

Analysis of the growth in nonstate schools over the last decade showed that the nonstate school sector steadily expanded over time. This expansion is exclusively found in the independent and international school category. The number of independent and international schools increased at an average rate of 5 percent per year, except in 2017/2018 in which the number of schools dropped at a rate of 0.003 percent. UNRWA schools, on the other hand, did not show any significant change in their number over the same years.
The expansion in independent and international schools is reflected in the enrollment figures of this nonstate school category for grades 1-12. Analysis of EMIS data indicated a year-on-year growth in enrollment which ranges from almost 10 to 15 percent between 2011 and 2014. The number of students enrolled in independent and international schools continued to rise albeit at a slower rate showing almost 13 and 6 percent increases between 2015 and 2018 respectively. Analysis of the enrollment changes in UNRWA schools reveals a complicated story of decline and increases in enrollment in different years. The largest decrease in enrollment was found in 2011 at a total of 6 percent for males and females. Between 2013 and 2016, EMIS data showed a steady but small increase in enrollment in the number of students, which spikes in 2016 with a total increase of almost 10 percent in student enrollment. These unexplained fluctuations in enrollment in UNRWA school are relatively small and do not show a significant change in the total enrollment of students between 2010 and 2018.

Despite the steady expansion of the nonstate sector over the last decade, the total number of students enrolled in state schools remained consistently higher over time. State schools in Jordan enroll the majority of students at the basic and secondary levels.
The increased role of nonstate schools in the provision of education could be attributed to the Ministry’s reform efforts. The most recent education reforms began as early as 1988 to meet the needs of the country and provide skilled labor. But the private sector was not engaged until 2002, with two comprehensive reform plans – Jordan Vision 2020 and the 2002 Vision forum for the Future of Education – that were developed by multiple stakeholders from the state and nonstate sectors to set the vision for Jordan’s education.\textsuperscript{130}

In 2003, the Jordan Education Initiative (JEI) was established to encourage partnership between the private and public sectors to promote educational development and support Jordan’s efforts for quality education for all.\textsuperscript{131} This public-private partnership model was unique at the time, leveraging various nonstate actors, particularly the private sector, to support the improvement of education for all Jordanians and drive innovation. The Ministry’s 2018-2022 plan includes a direction to improve the legislative framework that organizes the work of nonstate schools. These regulations might change considering the Ministry’s efforts to improve the role and functioning of the nonstate sectors. Currently, Jordan’s 2018-2022 strategic plan for education integrates and aligns with the Government’s National Strategy for Human Resource Development (2016-2025), Jordan Vision 2025 and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.\textsuperscript{132} The plan proposed to organize multiple stakeholders, including the nonstate sector, to develop ECE; improve access and equity; strengthen the MOE’s management systems; improve quality education through information and communication technologies (ICT) and curriculum development; build teacher capacity; and to improve vocational training.\textsuperscript{133}

4. QUALITY & OUTCOMES—JORDAN

There is some evidence of differences in student outcomes between state and nonstate schools. One study suggests that nonstate schools appear to provide slightly better quality education than state
schools. Some are likely to have better infrastructure, advanced facilities, more qualified teachers, and stronger language instruction, including English and French, than state schools; these are cited in the literature as reasons for better performance on international and national assessments, but the majority of schools that fit this description are fully private tuition charging schools. The majority of private schools in Jordan follow the national curriculum and the national tawjihi exit exams, whereas a few international schools follow the International Baccalaureate and the British Curriculum. High student performance in private schools is also attributed to selectivity in student admissions, and an ability to provide scholarships for high-performing students who are unable to pay tuition and other fees.

Another source of evidence is from the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA), an international assessment in which Jordan participates that measures 15-year-old students’ reading, mathematics, and science literacy every three years, along with 80 other countries and education systems.

**Public versus private performance on PISA in Jordan**

![Graph showing PISA scores for public and private schools in Jordan](image)

The PISA data shows that pupils in nonstate schools score about 30 points, or 6 percent, higher than their state counterparts. This is a slight but significant difference; more analysis is needed to establish how quality is distributed in each category; it is likely that both groups have a diversity of high and lower performing schools, making these statistics less meaningful.

Analysis of class size in 2018-2019 ranged from 20 students in independent and international schools, 28 students in public schools and up to 35 in UNRWA schools at the primary level. Class size in private schools carries implications for quality of instruction and education opportunities as indicated in the literature. The class sizes in private and UNRWA schools in Jordan are comparable to the class sizes in the same nonstate school categories in Lebanon. The change in the last decade showed a slow decrease in class size in international and independent schools, which is due to the expansion of these schools over the same time. The class size in UNRWA schools, reflecting the fluctuations in enrollment, ranged between 34 and 38 students in the last decade.

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134 Open Society Foundation, 2010, p. 41
135 Open Society Foundation, 2010, p. 42
136 Open Society Foundation, 2010, p. 42
The analysis of pupil-teacher ratio revealed a similar trend in class sizes in the state and non-state schools in Jordan. In international and independent schools, the pupil-teacher ratio is the lowest compared to state and UNRWA schools at 14 students per teacher at the basic education level and 19 students per teacher at the secondary level. These findings indicate that international and independent schools provide higher quality of education over state and UNRWA schools. The highest pupil-teacher ratio is found in UNRWA schools at 35 students per teacher at the basic education level, suggesting that these schools are pressured, overcrowded, and poorly resourced.

6. SUMMARY CONCLUSIONS—JORDAN

While Jordan’s education system is state dominated, its non-state sector showed a steady expansion in the last decade in terms of the number of international and independent schools, as well as student enrollment figures in the basic and secondary education levels. The nonstate schooling sector in Jordan serves about 30 percent of the total K-12 student population. The Jordanian MOE supports the growth of this sector and considers it a partner in the provision of education in the country. Without low-cost nonstate school options, the nonstate school sector in Jordan will continue to mostly cater to the Jordanian elite.

LEBANON

I. NONSTATE SCHOOL CATEGORY DESCRIPTIONS—LEBANON

Schools in Lebanon are typically categorized by the Ministry of Education and Higher Education (MEHE) into four types: public/state, private, government subsidized and UNRWA schools. Based on the existing literature and the typology in Table 3, Lebanon’s non-state schooling sector includes fee-charging independent private and international schools, religious schools, low-fee private schools and UNRWA schools. According to the MOE’s categorization of schools, national EMIS data on private schools represents independent private, international, and religious schools. Low-fee private schools and UNRWA schools are reported separately.
Religious Schools

The most common type of nonstate school in Lebanon is private schools owned and managed by minority and confessional or religious groups and associations for different Muslim and Christian denominations. Historically, the Maronite, Catholics, Greek Orthodox, Protestants, and Armenians established many Christian schools to serve their communities. Examples of Muslim schools are the Makassed schools established in 1878 by the Muslim Sunnis; the Mabarrat ad Al-Mustapha schools established by the Shi’a; and the Al-'Ourfan schools established by the Druzes. According to article 10 of the Lebanese constitution, there shall be no violation of the right of religious communities to have their own schools provided they follow the general rules issued by the state regulating public instruction.” Various groups have used this Article to establish private schools to preserve their cultures, identities and value systems.

These religious schools are usually financed by a combination of tuition fees paid by individual households and funds from their religious foundations, associations, and philanthropies. They cater to members of their respective communities, and the school fees vary among them depending on the quality and level of education provided.

It is documented that religious leaders who run several private schools control the content of curricula and what students learn, and often express their opposition towards any content that challenges religious beliefs in their communities. They often operate differently from state schools and exert pressure on the education policy which often paralyzes decision-making on contested subject given the different groups’ competing interests, values, and knowledge putting the MEHE in a position to be either unwilling or unable to impose its policy on nonstate schools.

Free or Low-Cost Private Schools

Another type of private schools in Lebanon is the private-free or “low cost” schools. These are dominantly owned by religious institutions and few private individuals and subsidized or financed by the state. These schools are subject to an additional regulatory feature, which is essentially not applicable to other nonstate actors. They are required to submit to the MEHE an annual budget for transparency purposes.

Parents who choose to enroll their children in these schools pay little to no money for tuition or supplies. Many are in rural areas, and they are reported to serve as an alternative to state schooling for poor families. These schools however are perceived to provide lower quality education than other forms of nonstate schooling. In fact, some studies suggests that pupils from the “private free” and “low-cost” schools (nonstate owned and managed but state subsidized) perform more poorly on state exams than pupils in other private schools in Lebanon.

Fee-Charging Independent & International Schools

There are many other for- and non-profit, fee-paying, secular private schools owned by individuals as well as a few prominent international or foreign schools, which enroll the nation’s elite and international citizens residing primarily in Beirut. International or foreign schools charge much higher fees than other nonstate schools. They provide a higher quality education than state schools, outperforming state and nonstate schools. Examples of these schools include the American Community School in Beirut, the International College in Beirut, Wellspring Learning Community, the German School in Beirut, and the International School of Choueifat. These schools offer students a wide range of curricular options, including several international curricula across ECE, primary, and secondary levels, such as the
International Baccalaureate, the French Baccalaureate, the British curriculum, and the German Curriculum. Some schools use foreign textbooks and others integrate religious values.  

**Humanitarian & Refugee Schools**

The education of the Palestinian and Syrian refugee populations in Lebanon is provided and supported by both state and non-state actors. The United Nations for Relief and Works Agency (UNRWA) owns, finances and manages the bulk of these schools and has been managing the education system in Palestinian refugee camps across Lebanon since 1948. UNRWA schools in Lebanon are defined here as non-state schools because they are owned, financed, or managed by a non-state actor even though they use the Lebanese curriculum. Exam results in UNRWA schools were lower and drop-out rates were substantially higher than the national average, particularly among 13- to 15-year-olds. Poor education quality, overcrowded classrooms, and a lack of resources were cited as the potential causes.

Syrian refugee formal and informal education is supported by several actors which include the MEHE, CSOs, NGOs and INGOs and UN Agencies. The formal education of Syrian refugees is provided by state schools that operate afternoon shifts and use the Lebanese curriculum. The majority of Syrian refugees are enrolled in these schools.

A number of non-formal education programs are available, including the Accelerated Learning Program (ALP), the Basic Literacy and Numeracy Program (BLN), and the ECE Program were developed for the education of Syrian refugees by the Center for Education Research and Development. Regulated by the Ministry, ALP compresses the Lebanese primary school curriculum (K-6) into three years for those who have been out of school for more than two years, largely to integrate Syrian refugees into the Lebanese education system. The ECE program is implemented in state-schools and compresses the preschool curriculum (KG1, KG2, and KG3) into one program for children (ages 5-7), whereas the BLN program is implemented by NGOs for children (ages 10-14) and adolescents (ages 15-24).

Other schools not under the structure of the MEHE or UNRWA also serve Syrian refugees in Lebanon, largely because like Jordan, the influx of Syrian refugees has overwhelmed the capacity of the state system. These actors include international and national NGOs and CSOs as well as CSO-run schools, funded by international donors and governments. They deliver alternative, non-formal education pathways for refugees and vulnerable children whose education was discontinued by conflict and poverty. These programs are not regulated by the Ministry. For example, the Kayany Foundation supports portable or tented schools in the Beqaa Valley in Lebanon that provide accredited primary and middle school education for Syrian refugees using the Lebanese curriculum.

This nonstate schooling model also provides several types of vocational training, capacity building, life skills development and bridging programs. UN Agencies (UNHCR, UNESCO and UNICEF) support the delivery of these non-formal education programs. School fees are not charged for these programs as they are funded by local and international donors as well as UN Agencies; meaning that they are subject to inconsistent funding.

2. **QUANTITATIVE DATA SOURCES—LEBANON**

In Lebanon, the Center for Educational Research and Development (CERD) publishes annual statistical reports on schooling. CERD is a public institution directly linked to the MOE and promotes research and development in education policy and practice. The reports provide data on schooling in Lebanon for state, private, low-fee private (government subsidized) and UNRWA schools. The EMIS records include raw figures on schools and their geographical distribution by educational cycle, student population and
enrollment count by gender and cyclical level (preschools and kindergartens, elementary 1-6, intermediate 7-9 and secondary grades 10-12), number of classes, and teachers. The ST calculated CS and PTR for each school type for comparative purposes. The reports do not include disaggregated repetition, dropout, and promotion raw figures by school type. EMIS data collection in Lebanon was supported by interviews with the Head of Private School Association in Lebanon and consultations with a private education engagement specialist.

3. NONSTATE SCHOOL PREVALENCE & DISTRIBUTION—LEBANON

Lebanon is a pioneer of non-state or private education in the region. It has a long tradition of nonstate schooling with a diverse range of education providers for preschool/kindergarten through grade 12 and higher education. Fee paying independent and international schools offer preschool/kindergarten, elementary, middle, and secondary education. However, low-free private and UNRWA schools primarily offer grades 1-9 education with few exceptions that offer preschool/kindergarten education and secondary education respectively.

Figure 37: Lebanon - Nonstate School Distribution and Prevalence (2018/2019)

An analysis of the EMIS data for 2019-2020 revealed that non-state schools in Lebanon constitute 56 percent of all schools. Private schools constitute the largest category of nonstate schools at 74 percent of all nonstate schools and 42 percent of all schools in Lebanon. These schools include international, independent, and religious schools. They serve almost 70 percent of total student population in Lebanon according to EMIS data. This is confirmed by UIS data, which show that 70 percent of students in all education levels are enrolled in private schools.
Lebanon’s large non-state sector can be associated with its diverse and multicultural population and its socio-political reality. Lebanon has a mosaic of numerous ethnic, religious and confessional communities, and minority groups (e.g. Armenians, Kurds, & Palestinians) with Christian and Muslim identities. It also hosts the largest number of Syrian refugees in the region, in addition to a Palestinian refugee community that fled to Lebanon in 1948, whose education needs have been provided for and supported by the nonstate sector. Nonstate schooling in Lebanon is also influenced by a colonial and missionary history. French Jesuits and American missionaries founded their schools and churches in Lebanon as early as the 19th century, following the Anglo-American and French models that are similar to the models presently found in Lebanon.

The historical diversity has always had implications on education provision in the country, which meant that the state has allowed religious and minority groups to establish their own schools, enabled by article 10 of the Lebanese Constitution. This article states that “Education is free insofar as it is not contrary to public order and morals and does not interfere with the dignity of any of the religions or creeds. This right was later protected by the Ta’ef agreement, which constituted a peace agreement among the Lebanese political leaders and parties to end the civil war among these different groups, and to start several political, social and education reforms. To reform the education system, the MEHE adopted a ‘Plan for an Educational Renaissance’ in 1995, a ‘New Structure of Instruction’ in 1996, which included the development of new curriculum in 1995–1997. These reforms protected nonstate schools and reinstated their right to freedom of education, leaving the private sector in a state of laissez faire.
Student enrollment in independent/international schools for 2019/2020 is the highest among nonstate schools. The distribution of students in non-state schools is highest at the elementary level (grades 1-6) compared to other levels for both nonstate schools and state schools. The gender disparity in nonstate schools is insignificant with 1 to 3 percent difference between males and females across the different cycles.

**Figure 40: Lebanon - Number of schools each year, by category**

Analysis of nonstate school growth, showed an increase in the number of international and independent schools over time. No significant change was reported in the number of government subsidized and UNRWA schools. EMIS data indicates that nonstate schools are categorically the largest provider of education in Lebanon.
EMIS data over time shows that total nonstate school enrollment and the distribution across categories of nonstate schools has remained nearly unchanged since 2013.

4. QUALITY & OUTCOMES—LEBANON

Parents choose to send their children to nonstate schools to gain real or perceived higher quality learning opportunities, or a religious, or value-based education. Some studies suggest that pupils enrolled in nonstate schools in general perform better than pupils enrolled in state schools. Differences in outcomes are complex, but likely influenced by the type of pupil served in each case, class divisions in Lebanese society, and the type of nonstate schools. EMIS data did not include disaggregated promotion figures across state and nonstate schools in Lebanon, therefore no comparisons can be made between these schools.

Private school fees in Lebanon vary among schools, their quality, and the population they serve, ranging from $2,000 USD to $4,000 USD for each student per year. International or foreign schools and other secular schools, which cater to the elite and upper middle-class students, charge more than double the $4,000 USD charged by other nonstate schools, and they enjoy a large degree of autonomy apart from basic reporting. Private schools differ in the content of the curriculum, teaching methodologies and approaches, and the use of resources and textbooks. These differences are thought to influence the quality and types of education offered to students, and, by extension, student outcomes in each of the types of school. Being largely autonomous, the regulations over private education in Lebanon remain technical in nature. These regulations are restricted to the registration and licensing of schools, approval of the use of the selected curriculum, certification for graduation, and reporting basic information. The MEHE regulates and supervises education of private schools through the official or national examinations in grades nine and twelve. International and some private schools have other exit exams, such as the French Baccalaureate or the International Baccalaureate.

Lebanon participates in the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA), an international assessment that measures 15-year-old students’ reading, mathematics, and science literacy every three years in 80 countries and education systems. below compares performance on the three subtests between public and private school pupils in Lebanon in 2015 and 2018. The PISA data generally supports the notion that nonstate school pupils perform better than the state school pupils in Lebanon. Because the nonstate schooling sector is so large in Lebanon, there are likely to be a vast diversity of high,
medium, and low quality nonstate schools and this may be true of the state schools as well. Nonstate curricula often include further enrichment of the state curriculum and other types of learning that likely contribute to these conditions.

**Figure 42: Lebanon - PISA Scores Public vs Private**

![Bar chart showing PISA scores for public and private schools in Lebanon.](image)

To put these scores into a global context, the OECD country average in reading for 2018 is 497. While Lebanese nonstate schools appear to add value compared to their state counterparts, their pupils still perform at the bottom of all 80 countries who participate in the PISA.

Class size in independent international schools is comparable to class size in public schools, showing an average of 20 students per class. Class size in UNRWA schools, however, is the largest with 35 students per class at the secondary level in 2019/2020. Smaller class size and pupil-teacher ratio are generally associated with better pupil achievement in higher income countries, but the literature is less conclusive from the developing world; it’s utility as a measure of quality in the MENA region was not investigated within the scope of this report (perhaps among Gulf countries). A lack of other comparable data however makes them among the few “views” the ST has.

**Figure 43: Lebanon - Comparative distribution, class size (most recent) by category, level**

![Bar chart showing class size by category.](image)
Figure 44: Lebanon - Comparative distribution, pupil-teacher ratio (most recent) by category, ALL levels

Pupil teacher ratio indicates that UNRWA schools have the largest PTR among the nonstate schools with an average of 22 students per teacher, reflecting the same trend as CS. These numbers suggest that UNRWA schools are pressured and under-resourced, explaining the poor outcomes reported in the literature. There is an average of 11 students per teacher for independent/international schools and 17 students per teacher in government subsidized schools. The lowest PTR is in public schools which stands at 9 students per teacher, indicating an excess of teachers and a mismanagement of educational resources. In the case of Lebanon, the low PTR and CS in public schools do not necessarily have an impact on student outcomes. Public schools constitute 54 percent of all schools, and they serve only 30 percent of the total student population. Similar to other public schools in the region, they provide lower education standards of quality than state schools. Analysis of changes of CS and PTR between 2013 and 2020 in each school type showed no significant changes between 2013 and 2020.

Schools in Lebanon are typically categorized by the MOE into four types: public/state, private, government subsidized and UNRWA schools. Lebanon’s non-state schooling sector includes fee-charging independent private and international schools, religious schools, low-fee private schools and UNRWA schools. According to the MOE’s categorization of schools, national EMIS data on private schools represent independent private, international, and religious schools. Low-fee private schools and UNRWA schools are reported separately.

5. SUMMARY CONCLUSIONS—LEBANON

Lebanon has by far the largest and the oldest nonstate school sector in the MENA region. Nonstate schools account for 54 percent of all schools in Lebanon and they serve 70 percent of all enrolled students at all education levels. Despite the slow rate of growth in nonstate schools over the years, they continue to enroll more pupils than public schools in Lebanon. The nonstate sector has the most diverse non-state schooling options for school children, including independent and international schools, religious schools, government-subsidized schools and UNRWA schools. The literature suggests that nonstate schools provide better quality education for students than state schools, offering better education opportunities and several curricular options. Religious schools for different Christian and Muslim denominations are the most common type of non-state schools in Lebanon. They are usually financed by a combination of tuition fees and funds from religious associations and organizations. Other nonstate schools include for- and non-profit, fee-paying, secular private schools owned by individuals as well as international or foreign schools. These schools vary in terms of quality and cost, attracting a
diverse student population. International schools mostly serve Lebanon’s elite and international students residing in Lebanon. A unique model of non-state schooling in the Middle East, government subsidized schools charge a little to no fee and cater for underprivileged students in rural areas. Non-Lebanese students are also served by the non-state sector. Historically, UNRWA provides education for Palestinian refugees in Lebanon. A range of international and local organizations provide nonformal education programs for Syrian refugees who are not enrolled in the state schools’ double shift system.

LIBYA

1. NONSTATE SCHOOL CATEGORY DESCRIPTIONS—LIBYA

There is currently no publicly available information on the prevalence and categories of nonstate schools in Libya, nor on if and how they are managed by state institutions. The available literature does describe some conditions around nonstate ECE only.

_Early Childhood Education_

Qur’anic education at the early years level is popular in Libya, where pedagogy concentrates on didactic approaches such as rote memorization and call and repeat. Like nonstate religious ECE elsewhere in the region, such schools are principled on inculcating the values of Islam as well as Libyan social norms, which include a respect for adults and for authoritative knowledge. As compulsory education does not start until age 6, ECE is almost entirely privately provided and financed.

2. QUANTITATIVE DATA SOURCES—LIBYA

No recent statistical data on Libyan schools were made available to the research team. As with many other countries examined in this report, the Libyan government does publish educational statistics through its Bureau of Statistics and Census; however, these records were found to be both incomplete and outdated, with the most recent record on primary and secondary schools published in 2011. A 2016 report assessing Libya’s EMIS methodology and administrative capacity similarly identified serious issues in data quality and consistency, making even outdated data unfit for use. With the challenges presented by the ongoing political conflict in Libya, it is unlikely that recent and accurate educational data exist. As a result, no findings are presented here for Libya’s nonstate school prevalence and distribution nor their comparative data figures.

3. NONSTATE SCHOOL PREVALENCE & DISTRIBUTION—LIBYA

The Libyan education system is heavily state-centric, with high rates of access at all levels, tight control over the national curriculum, and a bloated teacher corps (nearly half of salaried teachers are on “stand by” while graduates of the teacher colleges are still guaranteed jobs as public school teachers when they graduate). The tiny private sector was officially opened and formalized in legislation implemented in 2010 and saw some growth before it was cut nearly in half by ongoing conflict and political contestation by 2015. This was exacerbated by the restart of militia tensions in 2019. Libya’s oil sector and cross border trade with Tunisia maintains an elite class who prefer international schools, but who for the

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138 Ibid., pp. 312-13
139 PARIS21 & UNFPA, 2016, pp. 46-47
141 World Bank, 2015, p. 71-73
most part send their children to schools outside Libya. Otherwise there is very little information about nonstate schooling in Libya.

4. SUMMARY CONCLUSIONS—LIBYA

Like Morocco, Libya formalized a role for the private sector in educational provision, putting it on a similar path to diversifying away from near-total state control over its schools. This development was gravely derailed by ongoing conflict and territorial division between the eastern and western regions, with the fledgling private school sector mostly dissipating in the economic fallout. While the limited literature also points to the traditional role of religious nonstate providers in ECE, no complete data on these or on other forms of nonstate schools are known to exist, making it a challenge to empirically assess the development and trajectory of nonstate schools in Libya.

MOROCCO

I. NONSTATE SCHOOL CATEGORY DESCRIPTIONS—MOROCCO

Although Morocco’s nonstate schooling sector appears to be steadily growing, there is not very much publicly available information about low-cost private schools and other public-private partnership models such as community schools. According to the literature, the sector is made up mostly of religious schools, ECE, and fee-charging private and international schools.

Religious schools

Morocco is distinguished in the region for its high rates of participation in Qur’anic pre- and basic education schools, known as Msid or ‘Original Education,’ which according to the data enrolled 61 percent of Moroccan children in 2018. Enrollments are highest in rural areas, where msids also function as alternatives to state primary schools. Qur’anic schools are often seen to complement the educational aims of traditional communities and maintain cohesion through trusted social relationships (as Msid are typically taught by village leaders rather than outsiders).

Msid preschools are privately owned and operated, although function as a non-profit religious institution serving lower-income populations. While one source notes that Msids are privately funded, it is not clear from the literature how they are specifically financed and if students are asked to contribute through fees. Their governance apparently differs by geography; according to one source, Msids in urban areas are monitored by the MOE, while in rural areas, they are jointly governed by local communities and loosely regulated by both the MOE and the Ministry of Religious Affairs.

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143 The literature appears to use these labels inconsistently, with some sources describing msid as supplementary religious schools and Original Education as comprehensive, state-funded religious schools. Other sources conflate the two under the singular label Msid.
144 Rose, 2017, p. 334
145 Ibid., p. 514
146 USAID, 2004, p. 21
147 USAID, 2004, p. 21
In terms of pedagogy and curriculum, Msid preschools emphasize Arabic literacy and Qur’anic values primarily through rote-learning and memorization and are credited by one source as “a major force against illiteracy” particularly among low-income households and rural communities.\textsuperscript{148}

**Early Childhood Education**

In addition to Msids, one-quarter of Moroccan children enroll in private fee-charging preschools and kindergartens, said to be the more profitable level of private education, with high demand even though there are no known subsidies or vouchers from the state.\textsuperscript{149} As with primary and secondary levels, there are also preschools operated by foreign embassies or cultural services, such as France or Spain although no further data on their financing arrangements could be found.\textsuperscript{150}

In sharp contrast with Msid preschools, private secular preschools generally teach in both Arabic and French using a modern process-oriented approach.\textsuperscript{151}

**Fee-charging independent and international schools**

According to government statistical data, the number of fee-charging private primary school enrollments in Morocco has nearly doubled over the past decade from 11 to 17 percent as a result of educational reforms ushering in privatization. With secondary school enrollments growing from 6.5 to 10 percent, Morocco has one of the larger nonstate secondary school sectors in the region. What is unclear from the literature, however, is their breadth of purpose or differentiation. Sources make reference to profit-seeking practices which distort equity of access and academic outcomes, but the scope of this problem among all private providers is not stated.\textsuperscript{152} It is further unknown how fees are determined and whether these private schools receive any subsidies from the state.

State legislation regulating private for-profit providers sets basic curricular guidelines, pedagogical methods and infrastructure standards.\textsuperscript{153} The legislation specifies the range of fines that can be applied to non-compliant schools; however, the regulations and sanctions are rarely applied in practice due to an inability of the state to enforce them. The consequence of this, it is noted, are wide curricular and operational variations between not only private and public schools, but also among private schools in Morocco.\textsuperscript{154}

**2. QUANTITATIVE DATA SOURCES—MOROCCO**

The data sources informing the analysis of Moroccan nonstate schools were retrieved from open data published by the Ministry of National Education, Vocational Training, Higher Education and Scientific Research (referred to here as MOE). These sources provide comprehensive data on schools, classes, pupil enrollments by grade, class sizes, pupil-teacher ratios, and performance indicators, including promotion, dropout, and repetition rates. Available data were parsed into two school categories only (private and government schools) by the three school levels found in Morocco: primary (grades 1 to 6), secondary – Collège (grades 7 to 9), and secondary – Qualifiant (grades 10 to 12). Data on pre-primary education was also parsed into three types of kindergartens (private, nonstate religious, and

\textsuperscript{148} Mansouri & Moumine, 2017, p. 13
\textsuperscript{149} Mansouri & Moumine, 2017, p. 13
\textsuperscript{150} Llorent-Bedmar, 2014, p. 99
\textsuperscript{151} Mansouri & Moumine, 2017, p. 12-13
\textsuperscript{152} Guedira, 2017
\textsuperscript{153} The Global Initiative for Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 2013, p. 3
\textsuperscript{154} Guedira, 2017. p. 10
government). Figures extracted from the open data span ten years from 2009 to 2018, capturing a full decade of recent developments.

3. **NONSTATE SCHOOL PREVALENCE & DISTRIBUTION—MOROCCO**

The nonstate primary and secondary schools documented in the open data are homogeneously categorized as private, with no further distinctions made between for-profits, low-cost, religious, or international schools. While these differences are not well understood, it is clear from the literature and data that privately operated nonstate schools are on the rise and cultivated through an explicit strategy of the Moroccan government. Reforms introduced in 1999, commencing a period declared by Moroccan King Mohammed VI as the "Decade of Education," encouraged as one of its fundamental aims the development of private education as a strategy to reduce illiteracy, poor quality and unequal access.\(^\text{155}\)

The Moroccan state actively promoted the privatization of schooling by implementing tax and policy incentives for new private schools. As a result of these reforms introduced in the National Charter for Education and Training, private school enrollments have surged from 4 to 15 percent between 1999 and 2015.\(^\text{156}\)

The open data utilized in this analysis made very limited reference to other state models including autonomous and community schools. It appears that small numbers of such schools exist, but as the enrollment figures for these models were incorporated in the government school statistics, no determinations on their prevalence within the Moroccan education landscape could be made.

*Figure 45: Morocco - Nonstate School Distribution and Prevalence (2018/2019)*

Nonstate ECE is a large part of the nonstate school landscape, with two major types of nonstate kindergartens. The first, and most common form are traditional, religious early years and basic education providers referred to in the literature as ‘Msids’. The less prominent but growing form are secular private preschools and international preschools, preferred by middle and upper-class households respectively.

\(^{155}\) Llorent-Bedmar, 2014, p. 97
\(^{156}\) Guedira, 2017, p. 9
Morocco’s nonstate school profile is sizeable compared to its North African neighbors and is rapidly transforming in its role from marginal to a large minority share of Morocco’s collective educational provision. This transformation is particularly acute at the primary and secondary levels, where nonstate private schools are dramatically expanding in number. As Figure 46 illustrates, private primary and secondary schools together nearly doubled in number over ten years, increasing their share of all primary and secondary schools across Morocco from 24 to 35 percent. In this same period, government schools expanded only 15 percent from their count in 2009, or on a year on year rate of around one-sixth of the growth rate of private schools. This growth is particularly concentrated in secondary schools (Collège and Qualifiant combined), which aggressively expanded in both nonstate and state sectors compared with growth in primary schools.

**Figure 46: Morocco - Number of schools each year, by category**

Analysis of enrollment data shows slightly different trends but a similar overall picture. Despite private schools constituting over one-third of all primary and secondary schools, their proportion of enrollments was only 14.5 percent of the school-age population (resulting from, in part, their smaller class sizes). Over the ten years analyzed, private school enrollment proportions grew at an aggressive rate, much like school counts, starting at 9.2 percent in 2009 and increasing every year, albeit at a pace which appears to be gradually slowing down over the course of the decade. When separated by level, as shown in Figure 47, these proportions grew from 10.8 to 17.3 percent at the primary level and from 6.5 to 9.9 percent at the secondary level. The key finding here is the sustained positive rates of growth at an average of 5 percent year on year increase in pupils. This contrasts with the state sector schools, which still serving nearly six times as many pupils as private schools, intermittently grew and contracted with less consistency year on year.
In terms of gender disparity, the data show a consistent trend across both levels and both categories, which is that boys consistently outnumber girls in enrollments in Moroccan schools. In contrast with trends in other MENA countries where disparities favoring boys are more pronounced in private schools, the gender gap is actually narrower in Moroccan private schools, although only by a small margin (4 percent in 2018) compared to government schools (4.2 percent, which in actual figures is six times as many girls owing to larger government school enrollments). As shown in Figure 48, disparities are slightly smaller at the secondary level, particularly in private secondary schools (3.2 percent more boys). Neither the data nor the literature provide an explanation for these particular gender disparities, but the data, viewed longitudinally over ten years, do indicate subtle improvements in both sectors.

Morocco’s ECE profile is a remarkable departure from other countries in the region, with a staggering number of preschool and kindergarten providers (over 28,700, compared to 16,860 primary and secondary schools). Until 2018, 88 percent of ECE was provided by nonstate schools, with the religious Msids accounting for three quarters of all ECE provision and the private secular preschools accounting for 14 percent (shown in Figure 49). In 2018, government preschools doubled in number, lowering the overall nonstate share of ECE to 78 percent. Over the decade analyzed, the number of Msids declined overall, although that trend appears to have reversed in the most recent three years, suggesting their
sustained role in early years and basic education provision in rural areas. Private secular providers expanded by 74 percent over this same period to 3,654, reflecting the growing demand for secular early years provision, particularly in urban areas.

**Figure 49: Morocco - Number of schools for preschools and kindergartens each year, by category**

There are clearly gender disparities in the 2018 enrollment figures of all three types, with boys’ enrollments 4 and 2.6 percent higher for secular private and government preschools, respectively. The larger disparity in private preschool contrasts with the findings at the primary and secondary level, where government schools had slightly higher disparities. Msids are unique, however, with a gender imbalance of 11.3 percent in favor of boys. As Figure 50 illustrates, the disparity was actually much higher – as high as 25.6 percent in 2010 – and has come down steadily over the past decade. It is not clear from the literature why this gap is closing, but the data show a net loss of around 37,000 boys over ten years with a net gain of nearly the same number of girls. This could be the result of either increasing demand for girls’ education in rural areas or the result of targeted increases to provision of girls’ religious education.

**Figure 50: Morocco - Percentage change in enrollment for preschools and kindergartens each year, by category, gender**
4. QUALITY & OUTCOMES—MOROCCO

Comparative analysis of the data found differences in class sizes and pupil-teacher ratios, both typical indicators of quality and resources favoring private schools. Class sizes in private schools shrank from 25 in 2009 to 21.8 in 2018, likely resulting from the disproportionate growth of schools over enrollments in the private sector. Government schools averaged 31 pupils per class over the same time. Broken down by grade level (seen in Figure 51), private school class sizes decrease in near-linear fashion from 23 in first grade to 19 in twelfth grade. In government schools, there is a clear leap up from 26 in primary grades to 35 in early secondary grades, with this figure decreasing each year as pupils finish and leave after grade 9 or drop out prior to completing.

Figure 51: Morocco - Comparative distribution, class size (most recent) by category, level

Pupil-teacher ratios tell a similar story, with ratios in private schools averaging half of those in government schools year on year. The difference between the two is less pronounced at the primary level, whereas at the secondary level the ratio at government schools is on average around three times that of private schools.

With regards to outcomes, the literature finds that fee-charging private schools hold only a marginal advantage over state schools, with relatively few students in either model attaining the highest benchmark in math or reading in the 2011 PIRLS and IEA’s TIMSS assessments. This modest disparity in performance comes in spite of the higher rates of participation in private tutoring among Moroccan private school students. Findings from analysis of the outcomes data indicate a stronger performance of private schools than that described in the literature. According to the data, year on year promotion rates in private schools were generally 4 to 5 percent above those in governments schools, particularly in primary grades (shown in Figure 52 for 2017 outcomes). These rates were calculated as the inverse of dropout and repetition rates combined; some of the dropout and repetition rates were provided in the open data while others had to be calculated using a formula in lieu (and are therefore believed to be accurate but unconfirmed). Between private and government schools, the data for primary grades show a consistent, inverted pattern of higher dropout rates and lower repetition rates in private schools, and lower dropout rates but higher repetition rates in government schools. Moroccan schools are known to have notoriously high rates of both and could be an accurate reflection of the low performance of both

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157 Ibourk 2016, p. 5-6
158 Rhazal et al, 2018, p. 39
school types. Alternatively, the relatively high dropout levels in private schools (not shown) might be interpreted as pupils leaving the private school system for government schools. This pattern falls apart in secondary level grades, as overall pupil numbers decrease and dropout and repetition rates in government schools rise considerably, bringing down promotion rates. As Figure 52 also shows, there are discernable points in the grade progression where promotion rates plummet, corresponding with key matriculation years 6 and 9 (and 12, not shown here). While much of this drop stems from pupils leaving school upon completion of primary or secondary Collège, those years are also marked by rigid national exams (e.g. Certificat d'études primaires in grade 6) which are cause for particularly high rates of repetition and dropouts.

Figure 52: Morocco - Comparative distribution, promotion rate (most recent) by category, level

Given these challenges in interpreting promotion and dropout rates as proxies for comparative school performance, looking at repetition rates in isolation may be more informative (see Figure 53). In this chart, the same pressure points exist for Years 6, 9 and 12, but there are clear differences between private and government schools in terms of their capacities to matriculate pupils. There is evidence from literature on Moroccan fee-charging private schools that the exclusivity of fees drives expectations of quality and learning outcomes, and this leads to distortive practices in order to deliver on expectations, including grade inflation and teaching to the test (in preparation for the Baccalaureate exam). Despite the questionable difference in quality between private providers and government schools, these practices favoring private school pupils contribute to unequal access to post-secondary opportunities and, consequently, fuel the further demand for private schools.\(^{159}\)

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\(^{159}\) Guedira, 2017, p. 10
5. SUMMARY CONCLUSIONS—MOROCCO

Morocco’s nonstate schooling sector is growing rapidly, driven by an embrace of privatization reforms by the government. This approach sits in marked contrast with its neighboring Francophone North African states which maintain a much larger degree of state control over education. This is said to be due to Morocco’s comparatively sizable urban middle classes and widespread dissatisfaction with rural state school provision. The analysis found consistently high rates of growth in private school enrollments, shifting the overall proportion of nonstate school primary and secondary enrollments from 9 to nearly 15 percent of all pupils in a single decade. ECE is complicated by the slowly declining influence of Msids, but also points to a rapidly rising role for the private sector in early years provision. Across all school levels and categories in Morocco are persistent gender disparities driven by both families’ greater tendency to invest in boys’ education and girls leaving school at higher rates. This phenomenon is likely exacerbated by the rigid system of matriculation built into the level structures, where pupils in low-quality schools are frequently faced with the choice of repeating grades or dropping out. The findings on private school performance point to lower rates of repetition but frequently high dropout or school leaving rates, coupled with distortive grading practices which undermine quality and contribute to further demand for private schools.

SYRIA

1. NONSTATE SCHOOL CATEGORY DESCRIPTIONS—SYRIA

Until 2011, there was little scope for nonstate actors in education except for a small number of local private, religious, and foreign international schools for elites in Syria. While it is likely that chronic conflict and the resulting political and economic instability have a damaging impact on PPP and hybrid-model nonstate schools like low-cost private schools, the conflict has opened up spaces for new actors and models of nonstate and alternative state schools in contested territories within Syria. The limited literature on this topic reveals the presence of different categories of nonstate schools, presented below.

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160 Rose, 2017, pp. 330-335
Independent and international schools

Private and fee-paying education is a very small sector (around 3.5 percent of all schools in 2018), with little available information on who owns, manages, and finances them.

Religious schools

There were also a number of religious schools, including Shari’a schools, Christian schools, and a very small number of Jewish schools.\textsuperscript{161} Shari’a schools and Islamic schools are privately or community owned, non-profit religious schools for the teaching of theology and other subjects, starting from grade 5 until grade 12.\textsuperscript{162} Some receive state subsidies, but are primarily dependent on private donations;\textsuperscript{163} others are wholly private and community funded and operated.

Early Childhood Education

ECE is not compulsory in Syria like its regional neighbors and is primarily provided by the nonstate sector. As an indication of how low participation rates are in ECE, enrollments across all nonstate and state ECE and kindergarten providers constitute only 2.7 percent of all school-aged pupils in Syria. ECE centers and kindergartens are privately owned and operated, or run by syndicates, women’s federations, unions and local community centers.\textsuperscript{164} According to government statistics, privately owned centers constitute over 70 percent of all kindergartens in 2018-19, while 13 percent are run by syndicates. Women’s federations accounted for 9 percent of kindergartens in 2013-14 but declined in their number over the years before dropping acutely from 78 to 0 centers between 2017-18 and 2018-19.

Humanitarian and Refugee schools

UNRWA schools provide free basic education to Palestinian refugees residing in Palestinian camps in Syria. These schools are owned, managed, and financed by the agency. According to UNRWA, in the academic year 2018-2019, there were 103 schools serving 48,800 Palestinian refugees within refugee camps in Damascus, Rif Damascus, Aleppo, Hama, Homs, Latakia and Dera’a.\textsuperscript{165} In keeping with UNRWA schools elsewhere in the region, only primary level first and second cycles (grades 1 through 9) are provided.

In addition, a range of CSO’s and INGOs are presently active in Syria serving refugees outside of camps, providing humanitarian relief, basic non-formal education opportunities and other education services for urban, out-of-school, and internally displaced refugees and other marginalized children.

Alternative State Schools

Since the war in 2011, education stopped being the sole responsibility of the state, leading to the formation of exclusive nonstate actors that manage schools previously owned and financed by the state. While some of these schools remain under state control, others came under the control of rebels, parties, or armed groups, reflecting the political, ideological, and cultural divisions in the country.\textsuperscript{166}

\textsuperscript{161} Vienna Institute of Demography, 2016, p.7
\textsuperscript{162} Vienna Institute of Demography, 2016, p. 25
\textsuperscript{163} Vienna Institute of Demography, 2016, p.25
\textsuperscript{164} Vienna Institute of Demography, 2016, p. 7
\textsuperscript{165} The Syrian EMIS data on UNRWA schools and enrollments for 2018-19 are slightly different, reporting having 98 schools with 45,452 pupils.
\textsuperscript{166} Fayek, 2017, p. 101
In Northern Syria, Kurdish groups have established schools outside the state, instituting Kurdish language education.\textsuperscript{167} In these areas, the autonomous Kurdish government’s Board of Education manages and supervises these schools. ISIL also had implemented a new education system to propagate its belief system and shape young people’s minds.\textsuperscript{168} It forced the removal of arts, science, music, history, philosophy, and sports from the curriculum, allowing only the teaching of Islamic studies, Arabic, and mathematics. ISIL schools are no longer in operation. In the majority of opposition-controlled or formally controlled areas, schools are still funded and supervised by the Syrian government, through payments for teachers and school resources.\textsuperscript{169}

2. **Quantitative Data Sources—Syria**

Data for the analysis of Syrian nonstate schools were retrieved from the Syrian Central Bureau of Statistics, which published two sets of educational figures collectively covering the years 2013 through 2019. These datasets provided limited information on disaggregated school categories, enabling only the essential indicators of school count and enrollments across three types of primary and secondary schools (private, UNRWA and government) and five forms of kindergarten (government - MOE, government - other ministry, private, teachers’ syndicate, and women’s union). Enrollment data were parsed into three levels: primary first cycle (grades 1 to 4), primary second cycle (grades 5 to 9), and secondary (grades 10 to 12). As in other countries with UNRWA provision, these schools only delivered the first and second primary cycles. As figures on teachers, classes and rates of completion were not disaggregated by school type, it was not possible to produce any comparative figures on class sizes, pupil-teacher ratios or promotion rates using these data. The utility of the data is further compromised by concerns over validity, given the ongoing conflict impacting the Syrian government’s capacity to collect statistics across territories not held under its control. Findings from the analysis need therefore be viewed with some caution as the figures could be interpreted as methodological problems as much as credible consequences of sustained political instability and its impact on educational provision.

3. **Nonstate School Prevalence and Distribution—Syria**

Today, after nine years of war, the education system in Syria is substantially damaged, with schools destroyed, damaged, or used as shelters for the displaced or as bases for armed groups. Teachers and students were killed, and many stopped attending classes and showing up for work regularly.\textsuperscript{170} According to UNECSO, more than 2.8 million students are out of school in Syria, and over 7,000 schools are destroyed and cannot be used for educating children. Information about nonstate schooling in Syria is incomplete and complicated by the conflict.

The MOE and the Ministry of Higher Education are responsible for governing and monitoring both state and nonstate education in Syria. The MOE sets the plans and policies for education, trains teachers, and licenses and registers nonstate or private schools. All state and nonstate pupils sit for national examinations in grades 9 and 12 to determine whether students move to secondary schools and universities, respectively.\textsuperscript{171} Little is known about the diversity within the independent school sector, which were collectively classified within the EMIS data as private schools.

\textsuperscript{167} Ibid, p. 107  
\textsuperscript{168} Ibid  
\textsuperscript{169} Vienna Institute of Demography, 2016, p.28  
\textsuperscript{170} Fayek, 2017, p. 101  
\textsuperscript{171} Fayek, 2017, p. 98
Before the current civil war, partnership with the private sector and civil society organizations was encouraged to provide more services to the people, including education Law No. 160 of 1958, originally set to regulate private education. The law was subsequently modified to promote the role of the private sector in ECE and kindergarten provision. The majority of kindergartens are privately owned while other nonstate configurations (e.g. Teachers’ syndicates) also play a strong role in provision at this level.

Like its neighbors, Syria also has humanitarian schools for Palestinian refugees operated by UNRWA.

The nonstate sector in Syria is marginal and in a state of flux due to the protracted civil war. The total number of private primary and secondary schools, while still small in comparison with government schools, rose from 352 to 467, an increase of 33 percent, between 2013 and 2018. Most of this growth was in the first two years of the data, with a drop between 2015-16 as the war intensified; however, its resumption in 2017 points to both its resilience and popular demand for private education. This comes in contrast with government schools, which decreased in number by approximately 10 percent over the same period. Many of those schools have been damaged or destroyed by the war. Others were attacked or used by armed groups for military purposes.

**Figure 54: Syria - Nonstate School Distribution and Prevalence (2018/2019)**

Primary and secondary level independent school enrollments are low in proportion to government schools, as show in Figure 54 (a composite of UIS and EMIS data). However, as Figure 56 illustrates, the increase in private school enrollments over the past five years outstripped growth in government schools. While the year on year change swings dramatically in both directions, the net change in enrollments from 2013 to 2018 shows substantial growth in primary first cycle (grades 1 to 4) and secondary, expanding threefold and twofold respectively. The primary second cycle (grades 5 to 9) enrollments, on the other hand, did not grow at all during this period. Enrollments in government schools also expanded in the early primary grades, albeit at a fraction of the growth in private enrollments, while its second cycle primary and secondary school enrollments both contracted.

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172 Open Society Foundation, 2010, p. 97
Analysis of the change in enrollment by year level, shown in Figure 57, illustrates a breakdown in the matriculation ratio between lower and upper grades. According to the data, the growth in demand for primary education soars while growth at other levels stagnates or increases at a much more moderate rate. The lack of stability over many years of war is the likely culprit for such fluctuations, but whether conflict affects nonstate school enrollment differently than state school enrollment in the MENA regions and if so how, is not currently known.
In terms of gender parity, boys consistently outnumber girls in enrollment proportion by around 2.5 percent across all levels of private and government schools in Syria, with the single exception of government secondary schools (where girls’ enrollments are between 9 and 12 percent higher than boys’). Conflict and war have pushed secondary-age boys out of school to pursue employment and support their families. This imbalance remained constant over the six years of data, with growth in enrollments nearly identical between boys and girls in both sectors. The only substantial net change in gender parity was a large gain in girls’ secondary school enrollments in the private sector, narrowing the gap at that level from 15 to 3.5 percent. The actual numbers behind this rate, however, are fairly insignificant as secondary enrollments in Syrian private schools are around 27,000, or 8 percent of all secondary-age pupils in Syria.

UNRWA schools, which make up on average less than one percent of all primary schools in Syria, experienced large changes in its school count between 2013 and 2018, starting with 107, dropping to nearly half this number the following year, then climbing back to near its starting point by 2018. During these years, thousands of Palestinian refugees fled the war to Lebanon and Jordan, which led to the closure of some of these schools. Their enrollments similarly halved during this time before returning to near the original enrollment figure. What is significant in this return to status quo is the redistribution of enrollments between first and second cycles. Much like the change in the matriculation ratio seen in private and government schools, the ratio between first and second cycle enrollments shifted from a virtually equal distribution in 2013 to 70 percent of all UNRWA enrollments in the first cycle grades by 2018, pointing again to higher rates of participation in early primary school and decreasing with age.

4. QUALITY & OUTCOMES—SYRIA

Due to the limitations of the available data, no comparative analyses of class sizes, pupil-teacher ratios or school performance were possible. It is evident from the data, however, that the overall number of pupils per school increased substantially from 2013 to 2018 in private and government schools. This increase was experienced particularly at the primary level (first and second cycle), with private schools seeing a 30 percent rise in average pupil numbers, compared to 23 percent in state primary schools. This is inevitably an outcome of the conflict, which has dramatically impaired the operability of schools
and severely strained school budgets. The reality of these figures is more complicated, as the growth in private primary schools over this period could not keep up with enrollments, which doubled between 2013 and 2018, leading to the increase in average school size. The strain on government primary schools, on the other hand, resulted from an overall ten percent decline in the number of government primary schools and a modest increase in enrollments. So, while both figures suggest overcapacity of primary schools, they stem from markedly different trends relating to demand. These contrasting dynamics are replicated at the secondary school level with overall smaller increases to school sizes.

The average UNRWA school size, in contrast, rose by only 5 percent over this same period, resulting from decreases in both the school count and enrollments.

5. SUMMARY CONCLUSIONS—SYRIA

The data used in this analysis are limited in terms of both the range of indicators and available years but align with trends identified in the (equally limited) UIS data prior to 2013. Together these data indicate a sustained dominant role of the Syrian government in school provision, with a small but slowly expanding nonstate sector. Syria’s nonstate school profile was marginal prior to the outbreak of conflict and remains so in absolute terms; however, the conflict paradoxically broadened the scope of nonstate and alternative state schools by opening political and regulatory spaces for non-government actors. The distribution of enrollments and annual growth is heavily concentrated in early primary (grades 1-4), invariably resulting from the impact of conflict where older children are needed outside of school to support their families after years of war and loss of livelihoods. Consistent with other countries in the region, girls’ participation in private schools is lower than boys across all three levels, although the gender gap is narrower than disparities observed elsewhere.

TUNISIA

I. NONSTATE SCHOOL CATEGORY DESCRIPTIONS—TUNISIA

No pertinent information was found so far in the literature on religious primary and secondary schools, free or low-cost private schools, community schools, or alternative state schools.

Preschools and kindergartens

There are two types of preschools in Tunisia:

Religious preschools (*kouttab*): The *kouttab* preschools are structured similarly to Morocco’s *Msids*, with an emphasis on Arabic literacy and Islamic values acquired through rote memorization. Teaching combines religious content (Qur’an memorization, Arabic reading, and writing) with basic math.

Secular preschools (*jardins d’enfants*): These schools provide a secular education with combined instruction in Arabic and French.\(^{173}\)

Independent and International Schools

In addition to a small number of French baccalaureate private schools for elites and religious minorities, an inchoate for-profit system of schools for Tunisian children forced out of the state school system is evidently growing.\(^{174}\) No information was found about other categories including low-cost private schools.

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\(^{173}\) Jules, 2017, p. 370

2. QUANTITATIVE DATA SOURCES—TUNISIA

The data used to inform the Tunisia analysis were retrieved from statistical reports published by the Tunisian MOE and annual statistical yearbooks by the Tunisian Bureau of Statistics. Together, these reports provided basic figures from 2008 to 2018 on schools, classes, enrollments, class sizes, and pupil-teacher ratios. As the Tunisian education landscape is highly state-driven with very limited scope for nonstate schools, so too were the data, which were limited to broad state and private categorizations. No nuance within either category was provided in the reports. Kindergarten figures were available for State provision only, which impaired analytical comparison with nonstate kindergartens (e.g., kouttabs); likewise, reported rates of promotion, repetition and dropout for primary and secondary levels were for state schools only, presenting a major gap for this analysis. Enrollment data in the reports were clustered into primary (grades 1 to 6) and secondary levels (grades 7 to 13).

The figures reported in these two government sources correspond; however, further data enabling findings on nonstate schools would strengthen the limited breadth of this country analysis. No further EMIS data were retrieved despite exhaustive efforts to this end.

3. NONSTATE SCHOOL PREVALENCE & DISTRIBUTION—TUNISIA

Tunisia’s limited but growing nonstate schools is the legacy of the French colonial imprint with strong centralized governance of the education system. Little is known about the specific ownership or financial arrangements of the reportedly expanding for-profit providers in Tunisia, as the literature often presents these nonstate schools as being inchoate and not well understood. One source referenced the Tunisian government’s frequent application of financial incentives and tax exemptions for investors in private education, but this appears to be applied to specific situations and is generally at odds with the state’s privileging of the state education system. One such example is the courting of Libyan investors seeking to establish private schools for the Libyan diaspora in Tunisia. Despite numerous reforms to the national education system over decades, none explicitly introduced an enhanced role for the private sector, in contrast with Morocco, with legislation in 2002 instead increasing state engagement in ECE and consolidating the national curriculum around competency-based assessments.

Despite the limited literature on Tunisian nonstate schools, there are evidently two types of nonstate providers: traditional and emerging. The traditional providers are continuations of earlier models, including the religious kindergartens (kouttabs) and elite-serving foreign international schools. The emerging providers are characterized as for-profit, semi-transparent, and presently in a state of rapid flux. Prior to the Arab Spring the foreign international schools were reportedly regulated more heavily than the for-profit schools. These for-profits expanded rapidly in the instability following the Arab Spring, fueled by the absence of a rigorous national system of monitoring and evaluation to stem their growth or control quality. Private primary and secondary schools are now regulated by the MOE, while kindergartens are overseen by either the Ministry of Religious Affairs for kouttab schools or the Ministry of Youth, Sport, Women, and Families for state-provided jardins d’enfants.

The foreign international schools and for-profit private schools are clustered together in the Tunisian government statistics; they are presented collectively in this analysis as private (independent) schools.

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175 Tunisian Education Coalition for the Right to Education for All, 2019, p. 18
176 Akkari, 2010, p. 50
177 Bouguerra & Aboulkacem, 2016, p. 78
Analysis of independent school growth over ten years points to an aggressive expansion of private provision in comparison with the state sector, with an average annual growth of 10 percent per year in the number of private schools in operation (compared with 3 percent growth in government schools). While independent schools remain vastly outnumbered by government schools, that gap has narrowed to approximately one private school for every seven government schools in 2017-18. This growth is particularly aggressive at the primary level, where the number of private schools increased six-fold from 2008 to 2016 from 84 to 480 schools. This sharp rise is attributable in part to the impact of the Arab Spring, which resulted in both a brief regulatory vacuum and popular distrust in public institutions. However, it is not clear from these data which demographics are served by these emerging independent schools.

Analogous figures for private kindergarten providers were not available for analysis, although like most countries in the region, a strong proportion of kindergartens in Tunisia are nonstate providers. Many of these are understood to be either private secular or moderately religious kouttabs which balance modern curricula with Qur'anic instruction. A separate movement of conservative religious kindergartens or “Qur’an kindergartens” are also said to have seen a surge following the 2011 revolution, filling a sizable nationwide gap in ECE provision particularly targeting lower-income families with competitively reduced fees. As unauthorized providers, they are unregulated and therefore not accounted for in national datasets. One source purports that over 800 (70%) of these schools were shuttered by The Ministry of Women, Family and Children in a crackdown in late 2015.

Private school enrollments remain small as a proportion of total pupil population in Tunisia, with the primary and secondary private schools increasing their stake in overall share of pupils from 3 to 7 percent over the decade analyzed (shown in Figure 59). As the MOE data excluded figures on private kindergartens, analogous UIS data available from 2013 to 2016 indicate that private kindergarten enrollments average around 79 percent of the total ECE pool.

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179 Bouguerra and Aboulkacem, 2016, p. 78; Oxford Business Group, 2016
180 https://en.arij.net/investigation/quranic-kindergartens-in-tunisia-breeding-a-wahhabi-elite/
181 Jules, 2017, p. 385-6
Figure 59: Tunisia - Percentage of nonstate enrollment each year, by level

Overall increases in private primary and secondary school enrollments result from aggressive rates of growth over the decade analyzed, as shown in Figure 60, particularly at the primary level, where enrollments increased between 15 and 25 percent year on year. The rates at the secondary level are considerably lower (in keeping with the slower growth of private secondary schools) and even contract in some years, notably 2015-16. The literature provided no guiding rationale for that particular drop, where in real terms private secondary enrollments dropped by 10,500 students in a single year. This event may have stemmed from legislative developments expanding or consolidating the public education system and a recovering economy, as that same year documents the first net increase in enrollments in the state secondary schools in that decade (also shown in Figure 60).

Figure 60: Tunisia - Percentage change in enrollment each year, by category, level, gender
An examination of the gender breakdown in enrollments finds a consistent disparity between private and state school enrollments. As illustrated in Figure 61, girls are underrepresented in both private and government primary school enrollments. The difference is marginal in the private sector, but in the state system this disparity equates to 40,000 fewer girls on average each year. These disparities are then exacerbated in secondary private school enrollments while they are inverted in state enrollments. In other words, while girls’ participation in private secondary schools drops to nearly half that of boys (a difference of around 22,000 in 2017-18), girls’ enrollments in the state system greatly outnumber those of boys (by about 80,000 pupils). Importantly, this does not reflect a net increase in girls’ participation, but rather a lesser rate of attrition than that of boys in the transition from primary to secondary. What is clear from both charts in Figure 61 is (1) the privileging of boys in the private sector, suggesting a greater tendency on the part of Tunisian families to invest in educating boys over girls, and (2) a greater likelihood of boys leaving school early, possibly to support family households in traditionally male economic activities.

**Figure 61: Tunisia - Enrollment distribution (most recent) by category, level, gender**

4. **QUALITY & OUTCOMES—TUNISIA**

Comparative data on class sizes and pupil-teacher ratios present predictable differences, with class sizes averaging four to five fewer pupils per class in private schools and a pupil-teacher ratio at half that of the government schools. There appears to be little shift in these differences over the decade of data analyzed.

The outcomes of Tunisian nonstate schooling are not widely discussed in the literature, although there are indications that the nascent for-profit nonstate schools are generally inferior to state schools. One study using PISA 2009 data found publicly operated state schools slightly outperformed private schools in math and reading despite a positive correlation between private funding and achievement scores.
While the disparity was attributed to the strong involvement of parents in pressuring state schools to achieve higher academic standards,\textsuperscript{182} the quality of for-profit private schools in Tunisia is generally low owing to the absence of a rigorous system of monitoring and evaluation.\textsuperscript{183}

5. SUMMARY CONCLUSIONS—TUNISIA

Based on the available EMIS data and literature, the Tunisian government has historically dominated primary and secondary school provision while ceding ECE to traditional religious and private providers. This is for the most part still the case, with educational discourse and policymaking concentrating public resources on state provision. Where formal shifts to private service delivery took hold in Morocco in 1999, legislation in Tunisia in 2002 increased state engagement in ECE and consolidated the national curriculum around competency-based assessments, intensifying state provision.

There are apparent developments in private education, however, and these appear to have taken root despite Tunisia’s state-centric policymaking. With rapid rates of growth in private primary schools and enrollments, there is undeniably a trend towards an increased role for private sector educational provision. It is not clear how many of these developments are a result of the instability following the Arab Spring unrest and resulting political transition and whether there will continue to be opportunities for broader, more diverse forms of nonstate provision. More information on the burgeoning for-profit providers is needed to make any assessment of which demographics are being served and how their quality stands up against existing state provision.

WEST BANK/GAZA

1. NONSTATE SCHOOL CATEGORY DESCRIPTIONS—WEST BANK/GAZA

No pertinent information was found on free or low-cost private schools, community schools, or alternative state schools.

\textit{Humanitarian and refugee Schools}

UNRWA owns, finances, and manages schools that provide basic, free education for Palestinians in primarily urban IDP camps, following the Palestinian national curriculum. Following the restructuring of school levels in government schools, UNRWA schools changed in 2017 from having ten to nine primary grades.

\textit{Preschools and Kindergartens}

Preschool education in West Bank and Gaza is dominantly provided and funded by the nonstate sector, including CSOs and private individuals. These preschools are fee-paying and funded by individual households, except for UNRWA and some programs managed by CSOs. Access to preschool and kindergarten education in Gaza/West Bank is mixed. According to the MOE’s 2014-2019 Education Strategy, the Ministry is directing efforts to provide state-funded ECE for all Palestinians.

\textit{Independent and international schools}

According to the literature, nonstate Palestinian schools teach the same curriculum as state schools, apart from some private schools, international schools, and CSO-run programs. Most nonstate schools in the West Bank/Gaza that do not serve refugee communities are fully private and fee-charging.

\textsuperscript{182} Escardibul and Helmy, 2014, p. 508
\textsuperscript{183} Bouguerra and Aboulkacem, 2016, p. 70, 78
providing education across preschool to secondary school. There are a limited number of privately-owned international schools, such as the American School of Palestine, Lycee Francais International des Ramallah, and the Quaker Friends International School in Ramallah, which primarily serve the elite, but which also make efforts to provide scholarships and financial aid to mostly high achieving Palestinian pupils from economically disadvantaged families. These schools are owned by private individuals and enterprises, charities, and religious groups/institutions. While government schools are separated into girls’ and boys’ schools, private schools typically offer more co-educational options.¹⁸⁴

2. QUANTITATIVE DATA SOURCES — WEST BANK/GAZA

The data for this analysis were retrieved from annual statistical yearbooks published electronically by the Palestinian MOE, which represents both the West Bank and Gaza. These publications provided extensive data on schools, pupil enrollments, CS, PTR, and detailed figures on repetition and dropout rates from 2013 to 2019. In most cases these indicators were disaggregated by governorate (West Bank and Gaza) and by school authority (Government, UNRWA and the private sector), providing fairly comprehensive, albeit pre-calculated, data across three categories of school models. This cross-tabulation of data was not available for all indicators, notably in the enrollment data for example, which problematically was not parsed by school levels. As a result, the only enrollment data by school model is a count combining all twelve grades. Compared to the publicly accessible EMIS data from other governments in the region, the Palestinian MOE sources provide a considerable level of granular detail, although it is not clear how some figures were measured or calculated. Promotion rates were not included but are assumed in this analysis to be the inverse of dropout and repetition rates combined. Another methodological issue presents itself in the classification of primary education, which until 2017 consisted of grades 1 through 10 (subsequently restructured to grades 1 to 9). The heavy weighting of primary education in the West Bank and Gaza concentrates most of the schooling data into a single level, concealing important differences within these 9-10 primary years while reducing the analytical utility of the data in the 2-3 secondary years.

3. NONSTATE SCHOOL PREVALENCE & DISTRIBUTION—WEST BANK/GAZA

Limited literature exists on nonstate schools in Gaza and the West Bank. The Palestinian Authority (PA) state education system in West Bank and Gaza was formed in 1994 after the Oslo Accord.¹⁸⁵ It is the 2017 Education Law however that sets out the current structure and goals of the education system and the responsibilities of the Ministry. According to law, the MOE licenses, supervises, and regulates state and nonstate schools. The Education Law allows the establishment of private and international schools, the use of foreign curricula, and the addition of foreign textbooks after the Ministry’s approval. These regulations are technical in nature, and they do not mention how quality is controlled in nonstate schools besides the national examinations. For ECE, the Ministry ensures that nonstate kindergarten providers meet the set criteria when it comes to physical facilities, personnel requirements, and educational programs, however quality control is lacking.

In addition to nonstate private schools, there are humanitarian schools operated by UNRWA for displaced and resettled Palestinians living in long-term refugee camps in both the West Bank and Gaza.

¹⁸⁴ Daoudi, 2017, p.87
¹⁸⁵ Daoudi, 2017, p.41
Figure 62: West Bank and Gaza - Nonstate School Distribution and Prevalence

Proportion of all Schools - West Bank

- Government (1825)
- UNWRA (96)
- Private (379)

Proportion of all Schools - Gaza

- Government (409)
- UNWRA (274)
- Private (54)
The education landscape in the Palestinian Territories is unique, in part because of its bifurcated system with contrastive nonstate school profiles between the territories. The prevalence of nonstate schools in both is lower than its neighbors Lebanon and Jordan, but also higher than most other countries in the region. As Figure 62 illustrates, Private schools in the West Bank constitute over forty percent of all schools in the territory. Excluding kindergartens from this calculation, primary and secondary schools alone account for 16 percent of all schools (not shown). The total number of these schools grew steadily from 329 in 2013 to 379 in 2018; however, their proportion within the larger education landscape in the West Bank remained constant due to equivalent growth in state schools during this time. The total number of private schools in Gaza is relatively smaller but make up over fifty percent of all schools in the territory, largely accounting for the high number of private kindergartens. Excepting kindergartens, private primary and secondary schools constitute around 7 percent of Gaza schools. In contrast with the West Bank, the proportion of private schools in Gaza was slightly higher in 2014; however, the total number of schools appears to have decreased, likely due to the escalation of conflict with Israel at that time.

UNRWA schools are a major nonstate actor, particularly in Gaza, where they operate over one-third of the primary schools. The total number of UNRWA schools in Gaza has evidently increased to 274 from 245 in 2013, pointing to the sustained role of humanitarian provision in Gaza’s education system. They are less prevalent in the West Bank, both proportionately (4 percent of primary schools) and in actual figures (only 96 schools despite the larger overall school-age population in the West Bank). Contrasting with Gaza, UNRWA schools in the West Bank decreased by two over the same period.

Enrollment proportions across state and nonstate schools in the two territories are markedly different. In the West Bank, government schools generally enroll 80 percent of primary and secondary age pupils. Private schools capture 13-14 percent while UNRWA schools enroll the remaining 7 percent (shown in Figure 63). In Gaza, the state represents a minority of its pupil population, with 47-48 percent of enrollments in government schools. As of 2018, exactly half of all school-age pupils in Gaza attend UNRWA schools, while the remaining 2-3 percent are enrolled in private schools (shown in Figure 64). In terms of gender, boys are enrolled in private schools at much higher rates than girls in both territories, at nearly 16 percent in the West Bank and 24 percent in Gaza. In government schools the
enrollment imbalance favors girls, but by smaller proportions of 3.5 and 4 percent respectively. The
gender balance in UNRWA schools between the two territories diverge, with West Bank UNRWA
schools favoring girls by 20 percent, and Gaza UNRWA schools favoring boys by 3 percent (which, in
raw figures, amounts to a larger number of boys given the sizeable proportion of pupils in Gaza served
by UNRWA schools).

**Figure 63: West Bank - Enrollment proportion by year as a percent of all school enrollment, by category, gender**

![West Bank Enrollment Proportion by Year](image)

**Figure 64: Gaza - Enrollment proportion by year as a percent of all school enrollment, by category, gender**

![Gaza Enrollment Proportion by Year](image)

Over the six-year period of data analyzed, nonstate school enrollments grew divergently between the
two territories. In the West Bank, private school enrollments grew between 2 and 4 percent each year,
outpacing the state sector, which saw rates of growth at around one percent over this time. Its
UNRWA school enrollments simultaneously contracted by between 2 and 4 percent. In Gaza, the
inverse occurred: private school enrollments initially increased before turning downward, while
UNRWA enrollments grew between 3 and 5 percent per year, reflecting the impact of conflict on
education resources and schooling capacity.

Preschools and kindergartens (ECE) in both territories are almost exclusively provided by the private
sector. The data used in this analysis provided figures on only the two most recent years of
kindergartens in the Palestinian Territories, limiting findings to the current landscape only. In the West Bank, 83 percent of ECE providers are privately run, while in Gaza 98 percent are. Because of the limited data, it is not possible to assess whether this state-nonstate proportion has changed over time. The more revealing finding from this analysis, however, are the rates of participation in ECE, which is typically low across the region. In contrast, kindergarten enrollments in each territory constitute 10 percent of their respective total school-age populations, suggesting strong if not universal participation. In 2017, a new Education Law made KG2 compulsory in West Bank (WB)/Gaza, leading to higher rates of participation for this level of education. This demand triggered a private response and overwhelmed public supply. Increasingly, KG2 is perceived to be part of formal basic education, which is reflected in the high enrollment rates. Cognizant of the importance of early childhood development, the PA launched a National Committee in the same year to expand the public provision of ECE and to organize the delivery of early childhood development services, including education, among the multiple stakeholders involved.

4. QUALITY & OUTCOMES—WEST BANK/GAZA

Comparative analysis of class sizes and pupil-teacher ratios finds predictable trends across school categories and territories. Private school class sizes in both territories in 2018 averaged around 22 pupils per class, compared to government schools in the West Bank (26.7 pupils per class) and Gaza (39.3). UNRWA schools averaged 35.3 in the West Bank and 41.2 in Gaza. In longitudinal perspective (shown in Figure 65), class sizes across school categories remain stagnant in the West Bank, while in Gaza, class sizes in government and UNRWA schools appear to have been impacted by the strain on resources and demographic pressures. Only Gaza’s private schools show consistent class sizes over this period.

These trends are virtually identical for pupil-teacher ratios, which if viewed as a proxy for school resourcing, show a consistently higher concentration of resources in private schools in both territories and an acute resource deficit in Gazan government and UNRWA schools.

Figure 65: West Bank and Gaza - Comparative distribution, class size over time by category, level

Research shows that Palestinian students in tuition-charging private and international schools perform better and have higher learning outcomes than those enrolled in public schools due to better access to
resources and more qualified teachers.\textsuperscript{186} Student participation is generally higher with a focus on critical thinking development in nonstate schools.\textsuperscript{187} This difference is evidenced in the EMIS data analysis, which finds that private school performance is marginally higher than that of government and UNRWA schools, with promotion rates at 99.5 percent (combining grades levels and territories) compared to 97.5 percent in government and UNRWA school. As Figure 66 illustrates, however, this performance disparity between private and government schools is driven by private schools in the West Bank. While Gazan private schools performed similar to their West Bank counterparts in 2013, their performance declined over three years to resemble those of government schools in either territory in 2016. Behind Gaza’s lower performance across school categories are dropout rates consistently 1 to 2 percent higher than those in West Bank private, government and UNRWA schools, particularly at the primary level, where most pupils are concentrated. The higher drop-out rates in Gaza could be attributed to the recent dramatic increase in poverty and periodic episodes of conflict and violence.

\textit{Figure 66: West Bank and Gaza - Comparative distribution, promotion rate over time by category, level}

\begin{figure}
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{comparison.png}
\end{figure}

5. SUMMARY CONCLUSIONS—WEST BANK/GAZA

Analysis of the nonstate school landscape in the Palestinian Territories finds an overall significant role for nonstate provision, with important differences between the West Bank and Gaza. UNRWA operates one-third of all schools in Gaza but enrolls a narrow majority of the entire school-age population, as reflected in its high class sizes. While its operations in the West Bank are considerably smaller, the private sector plays a larger, although not dominant role in school provision compared to its Gaza counterpart. Quality and educational outcomes in private schools in both territories are generally higher than those in either government or UNRWA schools due to their enhanced resources and smaller class sizes. Overall, schooling in both territories is impacted by the ongoing state of occupation and resulting stagnation; however, its impact on the nonstate school landscape clearly differs between the two territories, with a greater need for humanitarian provision in Gaza in light of its continuous state of siege.

\textsuperscript{186} Daoudi, 2017, p. 87-88
\textsuperscript{187} Daoudi, 2017, p. 87
1. **NONSTATE SCHOOL CATEGORY DESCRIPTIONS**

No pertinent information was found on religious schools, free or low-cost private schools, community schools, or alternative state schools.

The 2015 Yemeni constitution includes provisions delimiting a role for the private sector at all school levels in accordance with legal standards (Article 51) and the promotion of the private sector in TVET (Article 48). The limited literature on educational governance in Yemen points to private schools being monitored and evaluated at the local district level, with initial approval and re-authorization determined at the regional governorate level. No further findings on the governance of Yemeni nonstate schools were identified in the literature.

**Humanitarian and Refugee Schools**

In the current context, priority is generally given to the rehabilitation of existing state schools and establishing temporary or alternative state school settings. Thus the role of nonstate schooling in Yemen is limited to primarily humanitarian programs serving internally displaced children through UNHCR, and also through UNICEF which, as noted, directs the bulk of support to state schools and teachers.

**Preschools and Kindergartens**

ECE provision is non-compulsory and mostly privately provided. Enrollment rates at the early years level are nevertheless extremely low; according to sources, only 1 percent of Yemeni children at age 5-6 attend kindergartens, concentrating in urban areas through private providers. The quality of Yemeni private kindergartens is said to be questionable, with no standard curriculum, no monitoring or evaluation of quality, and no certification of teachers. Staff are cited as often being former primary school teachers or unemployed women, while kindergartens are sometimes operated out of private homes. While the Yemeni MOE had not accorded ECE priority in the past, it has begun giving it more attention since its 2011 National Development Strategy for Early Childhood Education, which aims to broaden access to the public sector provision of ECE, particularly to marginalized children.

2. **QUANTITATIVE DATA SOURCES—YEMEN**

Data for the analysis of Yemen’s nonstate schools were retrieved from statistical yearbooks published by the Yemeni Central Bureau of Statistics. The education section of each of the four available yearbooks included several years of retrospective figures, providing uninterrupted records from 2011 to 2017. The data provided were limited to basic educational indicators for government and independent schools, including kindergartens: school, class, and pupil counts, enrollments clustered by primary (grades 1 to 6) and secondary (grades 7 to 12), class sizes and pupil-teacher ratios. No data on performance and outcomes were provided. The utility of these figures is compromised by the incapacity of the Yemeni government to collect reliable statistics in light of the sustained conflict starting in 2015. Kindergarten figures are missing for two of the six years (2011-12 and 2015-16) and all figures provided

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188 Constitutional Drafting Committee, 2015 Draft Yemeni Constitution.
189 World Bank (n.d.), p. 2
190 Yemen MOE, 2015, p. 29
191 UNICEF, 2015, p. 58; Yemen MOE, 2015, p. 27
192 UNICEF, 2015, p. 58
for 2016-17 were labelled as estimates without further explanation of how estimates were calculated. Figures for 2016-17 need to be interpreted cautiously, particularly the kindergarten data, as some estimates are wildly higher than the same indicators prior to the outbreak of conflict. Regional figures were provided breaking down the data across Yemen’s 22 governorates; however, it is not clear whether data from certain governorates were inaccessible owing to the divided political control over these territories. Ultimately what these limited data do enable is a broad indication of the role of authorized private schools in Yemen and the impact of the conflict on schooling collectively.

3. NONSTATE SCHOOL PREVALENCE & DISTRIBUTION—YEMEN

Analysis of the Yemeni government statistics suggests a very small nonstate schooling sector consisting entirely of private kindergartens, primary and secondary schools. According to the data, schools in both the government and private sector are commonly combined primary and secondary schools, owing to the concentration of enrollments in primary levels in Yemen. 92 percent of Yemen’s private schools are coeducational spaces (compared with 84 percent in state schools), although the degree of integration beyond school level is not clear.

Figure 67: Nonstate School Distribution and Prevalence in Yemen (2017/2018)

Private schools make up only five percent of the total primary, secondary and combined schools in 2016-17, with a corresponding five percent of all pupils in Yemen attending private schools (see Figure 68). No indication is provided by the data as to what kind of private schools these are and whom they serve, but the very limited literature suggests that they are primarily typical fee-charging private or international schools for upper SES households in urban settings. According to the data, half of Yemen’s 903 private schools are located in Sana’a, with relative concentrations also in urban centers of Al-Hodeidah, Ibb and Aden.

Private kindergartens are distributed along similar socioeconomic and geographical lines, although two-thirds of ECE providers in Yemen are privately operated as they provide non-compulsory education. Owing to their relatively smaller class sizes, they account for less than half of all ECE enrollments.
Figure 68: Yemen - Percentage of nonstate enrollment each year, by level

The distribution of enrollments in both government and private schools, shown in Figure 69, is heavily concentrated in primary schools, with a staggering drop in enrollments at the secondary level. This transition adversely impacts girls, for whom there is already an evident enrollment disparity favoring boys at primary and secondary levels in both sectors. In the transition from primary to secondary private schools, girls' enrollments appear to drop even further in proportion to their primary enrollments than boys, suggesting that girls are taken out of school at a higher rate.

Figure 69: Yemen - Enrollment distribution (most recent) by category, level, gender

Analysis of the change in private school enrollments over the six years of data (Figure 70) indicate levels of growth in mostly single digits, at slightly higher rates to government schools. Girls' private secondary enrollments from 2011 to 2012 show a dramatic drop of 20 percent (approximately 2,300 girls) while boys' enrollments increased by nearly the same number. This extreme swing is difficult to interpret and could be the result of a change in counting methodology or a reporting error. The limited data do indicate a decline between those years in the already small number of secondary schools, so it is possible that the closure of several schools resulted in the dislocation of these girls from the private school system.
The bigger pattern evident in Figure 70 is clearly the impact of the conflict, which began in late 2014 and accelerated with the Saudi-led coalition intervention in March 2015. Private school enrollments dropped between 15 and 20 percent in a single year, with secondary-age boys being most impacted. While it would seem likely that schools, concentrated in urban centers where coalition airstrikes were heavily attacking Houthi positions, would be negatively impacted; however, the data tell a different story, with the number of private schools increasing in most governorates in 2015-16. The net number of private schools ultimately declined by 6 percent, concealing this dispersed growth, because of a large decline in the governorate of Taiz alone, a flashpoint city which was occupied by Houthi rebels in March 2015 and heavily attacked by coalition forces, leading to the destruction of its sanitation infrastructure. Government school enrollments were also badly impacted, especially in Taiz; however, it is worth noting that state secondary school enrollments generally increased during this time. It was not until 2016-17 when trends reversed, and state secondary enrollments declined while private secondary enrollments rose sharply. In real numbers, both sectors were severely impacted by the outbreak of conflict, with no evident winners in the absence of more recent and more reliable data.

*Figure 70: Yemen - Percentage change in enrollment each year, by category, level, gender*

4. QUALITY & OUTCOMES—YEMEN

The analysis of Yemen’s publicly accessible EMIS data enabled only basic comparative data. Classroom sizes and pupil-teacher ratios in private schools were found to be on average half of that of government schools, with class sizes in 2016/17 around 22 pupils per class in private primary and secondary, compared to 37 in government primary and 44 in secondary. Over six years, this figure did not change in the private sector while class sizes increased over 10 percent in the public sector. The story is the same for pupil-teacher ratios, with the private sector ratio remaining constant while the state sector ratio increased under pressure from the conflict.

No data on school performance and outcomes were accessible for comparative analysis.

5. SUMMARY CONCLUSIONS

The ongoing conflict in Yemen has exacerbated the challenges of an already fragile education system, including its ability to accurately report on schooling indicators across territories contested by warring governments. The nonstate school sector within this profile is minimal, with around five percent private schools and enrollments, and a majority of the very limited number of ECE/kindergarten providers. The
limited data point to stark gender disparities favoring boys, particularly in private schools, and sharply lower rates of participation of both boys and girls in secondary schooling across the state-private divide. Both sectors were clearly impacted by the outbreak of conflict with likely lasting effects on net school participation and completion.
ANNEXES

ANNEX A : BIBLIOGRAPHY


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ANNEX B: NONSTATE SCHOOL PREVALENCE BY HIGH AND LOW PROPORTION STATES (UIS DATA ONLY)

Figure 71: Percentage of enrollment in primary education in private institutions (High Proportion Nonstate Schools Countries > 10%)

Figure 72: Percentage of enrollment in primary education in private institutions (Low Proportion Nonstate School Countries <10%)
Figure 73: Percentage of enrollment in secondary education in private institutions

Figure 74: Percentage of enrollment in secondary education in private institutions (Low Proportion Nonstate School Countries <10%)
ANNEX C: PRIVATE TUTORING IN NORTH AFRICA

The use of private tutoring is characterized as a pervasive and systematic problem of education systems across North Africa. In many ways private tutoring has come to symbolize the state of private education in the region as an informal and unregulated educational resource, widely stemming from state incapacity.\textsuperscript{193} This “de facto privatization”\textsuperscript{194} is problematic for educational equity as it selects among students who can afford it and drives inequality of outcomes and opportunities.\textsuperscript{195} Egypt, Morocco and Tunisia have some of the highest global rates of participation in private tutoring, with estimates at 81 percent of secondary students in Egypt, 85 percent in Morocco and 70 percent in Tunisia.\textsuperscript{196} The underlying cause of the phenomenon, who participates, and its impact on formal schooling systems vary by country.

In Morocco, participation in private tutoring is so widespread that it is characterized as "an 'almost normal' phenomenon", with near universal belief that participation is necessary for students to succeed.\textsuperscript{197} Rates are higher among private school students in terms of average weekly hours, denoting a clear correlation between affordability and opportunity.\textsuperscript{198} Like other countries in the region, teachers are reportedly motivated to conduct private lessons for additional income and see it as helping students matriculate.\textsuperscript{199} Unlike Egypt, the practice does not inflict damage to formal schooling processes despite its pervasiveness.

Egypt’s experience of private tutoring is inversely understood to be the outcome of long-term underfunding and systematic maladministration in the public sector.\textsuperscript{200} With the three-fold effect of underfunding (resulting in low teacher salaries, poor quality and large class sizes), a curriculum heavily focused on rote memorization, and the high-stakes pressures of the comprehensive school leaving exam, private tutoring emerged as "a coping strategy to compensate for the deficiencies" of the state education system.\textsuperscript{201} It is also said to be fueled by a resignation on the part of parents that it is inevitable component of schooling, and by teachers, who force it on students as a condition for matriculation.\textsuperscript{202}

Private tutoring in Egypt is so pervasive and normalized that it transcends social class. All strata of Egyptian school-age students attend in some capacity, typically with group sessions in local mosques or churches for lower-income households and one-to-one home tutoring for the wealthy.\textsuperscript{203} Its cost varies with quality and class size; importantly, it is always an informal arrangement as it is illegal for public school teachers to conduct private tutoring outside of school, although most do.\textsuperscript{204} In contrast to Morocco, participation in private tutoring is higher among state school students, as parents typically opt to pay for private tutoring over private schooling.\textsuperscript{205}

\textsuperscript{193} Akkari, 2008, p. 47-48, 52
\textsuperscript{194} Sobhy, 2012, p. 47
\textsuperscript{195} Bougguerra & Aboulkacem, 2016, p. 73; Guedira, 2017, p. 11
\textsuperscript{196} Chennaoui, 2014, cited in Bougguerra & Aboulkacem, 2016, p. 73; Rhazal et al, 2018, p. 44; Sobhy, 2012, p. 49
\textsuperscript{197} Rhazal et al, 2018, p. 44
\textsuperscript{198} Rhazal et al, 2018, p. 39
\textsuperscript{199} Guedira, 2017, p. 11
\textsuperscript{200} Ille, 2015, p. 1; Sobhy, 2012, p. 47
\textsuperscript{201} Hartmann, 2013, p. 70
\textsuperscript{202} Ille, 2015, p. 1
\textsuperscript{203} Hartmann, 2013, p. 58 & 60
\textsuperscript{204} Hartmann, 2013, p. 59
\textsuperscript{205} Ille, 2015, p. 3
The impact of private tutoring on education in Egypt is difficult to overstate. As it has become a normalized, endemic form of cost-offsetting for the national government, much of the effort of both students and teachers is shifted from schools to tutoring. Consequently, it is reportedly very common for secondary schools to have little to no students on any given day, and teacher absenteeism is rife.\textsuperscript{206} Other sources suggest that teachers exploit the necessity of private tutoring and are known to allocate grades or deny matriculation depending on whether students participate in that teacher’s tutoring.\textsuperscript{207} These practices have precipitated a complete erosion of public trust in state schools and the public education system in Egypt. Crucially, the links between private tutoring, educational attainment (via the national exam) and employment are not strong and are interceded by more determinant factors like social and cultural capital. As private tutoring is so commonplace, its advantages are distributed in such a way that its benefits are negligible.\textsuperscript{208}

\textsuperscript{206} Sobhy, 2012, p. 49-50
\textsuperscript{207} Ille, 2015, p. 2
\textsuperscript{208} Hartmann, 2013, p. 71
## ANNEX D: NONSTATE SCHOOLING DATA AVAILABILITY IN THE MENA REGION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data Source</th>
<th>Data Source Type</th>
<th>Most Recent Data</th>
<th>Relevant MENA Countries Included</th>
<th>Link to Data (if publicly available)</th>
<th>Relevant NSS Indicators / Indicator Categories</th>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Has indicators on entry, participation, progression, completion, literacy, educational attainment, school resources, and financial resources for education</td>
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<td>World Bank Databank</td>
<td>IGO Data</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td>Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, Tunisia, Syria, Yemen</td>
<td><a href="https://databank.worldbank.org/source/education-stats-%5e-all-indicators/preview/on">https://databank.worldbank.org/source/education-stats-%5e-all-indicators/preview/on</a></td>
<td>Pulls data from UNESCO’s UIS database for many indicators so same countries and indicators available as above, other databases such as SABER and the Global Partnership for Education don’t include the targeted MENA countries under study</td>
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<td>Government expenditures on education, gross enrolment ratios, literacy rates, expected years of schooling, and includes links to PISA scores</td>
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<td>Dataset</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Country(ies)</td>
<td>Source</td>
<td>Notes</td>
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<td>PISA</td>
<td>International Education Assessment 2018</td>
<td>Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco</td>
<td>[<a href="https://pisd">https://pisd</a> ataexplorer.oecd.org/ide/idepisa/dataset.aspx](<a href="https://pisd">https://pisd</a> ataexplorer.oecd.org/ide/idepisa/dataset.aspx)</td>
<td>School funding type, public or private school, PISA reading scale, PISA math scale, PISA science scale</td>
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<td>Republic of Iraq Ministry of Planning</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td><a href="http://cosit.gov.iq/en/education-en">http://cosit.gov.iq/en/education-en</a></td>
<td>Number of enrolled pupils at primary education (private) by class, sex, and age for 2016/2017 (breaks schools out by government, private, and religious)</td>
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<td>Jordan Ministry of Education</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td><a href="https://jomo.openemis.org/data/gener">https://jomo.openemis.org/data/gener</a> Overview/index.html</td>
<td>Number of institutions by type, percentage of students by authority, percentage of schools offering all grades in basic education by type,</td>
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<td>Lebanese Republic Central Administration of Statistics</td>
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<td><a href="http://www.cas.gov.lb/index.php/demographic-and-social-en/education-en">http://www.cas.gov.lb/index.php/demographic-and-social-en/education-en</a></td>
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<td>Center for Educational Research and Development</td>
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<td>Education specific statistics were found to be both incomplete and outdated, with the most recent record on primary and secondary schools published in 2011</td>
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<td>2010</td>
<td>Syria</td>
<td><a href="http://cbssyr.sy/index-EN.htm">http://cbssyr.sy/index-EN.htm</a></td>
<td>Average of household monthly expenditure on education groups by governorates, urban &amp; rural, Average of total monthly expenditure of household by education status of household head</td>
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<td><strong>Central Statistical</strong></td>
<td>Country Level Data</td>
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<td><a href="http://www.cso-yemen.com/co">http://www.cso-yemen.com/co</a></td>
<td>Number of public and private primary and secondary schools, number of enrolled students in public and private schools</td>
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<td>Organization</td>
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</table>

*can see list of indicators but cannot access the data itself on the government website, appears can access it through third party site of knoema but for a fee.*

### ANNEX E: NONSTATE SCHOOLING CALCULATIONS FOR CLASS SIZE, PUPIL-TEACHER-RATIO, DROP-OUT, AND PROMOTION RATES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Method of calculation</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Class size</td>
<td>Class sizes were calculated by dividing the total enrollments of the target school category and level by its total number of classes.</td>
<td>Wherever class size and pupil-teacher ratio figures were provided pre-calculated, the ST applied these calculation methods to confirm given the figures.</td>
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<td>Pupil-teacher ratio</td>
<td>Pupil-teacher ratios were obtained by dividing the number of pupils in the target school category and level by its number of teachers.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Promotion rate</td>
<td>Promotion rates were calculated by subtracting dropout and repetition rates from 100 percent (total) of pupil enrollment for the target school category and level.</td>
<td>Promotion and dropout rates proved more problematic as their definitions and formulations varied by country. In cases like Morocco, rates were provided for only several years, enabling the ST to test the formula and apply it to the years missing these same figures. Neither promotion nor dropout rates are perfect indicators, as they may not account for pupils transferring between sectors or schools. In the case of Morocco, the formula also does not distinguish between pupils choosing to leave school after completing pivotal cycles (end of years 6 and 9) and those who dropped out before completing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dropout and repetition rates</td>
<td>The method for these indicators depended on the data available. Where dropout and repetition data were provided as raw counts of pupils who repeated or dropped out, rates were calculated by dividing these numbers by the number of pupils enrolled in the previous year.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Where dropout data were provided as pre-calculated rates with incomplete figures for the ten years analyzed (e.g. Morocco), dropout rates could be determined using the following formula:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
|                                  | \[
|                                  | \(\frac{\text{(Previous year's total enrollments} - \text{current year's repeaters} - \text{current year's new pupils in next grade})}{\text{Previous year's total enrollments}}\)\] |                                                                                                                                                                                                      |
|                                  | This formula determined the number of pupils who should have been promoted to the next grade level but were missing from the enrollment count, once repeating and new pupils were accounted for, and therefore could be assumed to have dropped out. |                                                                                                                                                                                                      |