Background paper prepared for the Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2009

Overcoming Inequality: why governance matters

A compilation of background information about educational legislation, governance, management and financing structures and processes:

South and West Asia

UNESCO-IBE
2008

This paper was commissioned by the Education for All Global Monitoring Report as background information to assist in drafting the 2009 report. It has not been edited by the team. The views and opinions expressed in this paper are those of the author(s) and should not be attributed to the EFA Global Monitoring Report or to UNESCO. The papers can be cited with the following reference: “Paper commissioned for the EFA Global Monitoring Report 2009, Overcoming Inequality: why governance matters” For further information, please contact efareport@unesco.org
A compilation of background information about educational legislation, governance, management and financing structures and processes

SOUTH AND WEST ASIA

UNESCO-IBE
March 2008

This paper was commissioned by the Education for All Global Monitoring Report as background information to assist in drafting the 2009 report. It has not been edited by the team. The views and opinions expressed in this paper are those of the author(s) and should not be attributed to the EFA Global Monitoring Report or to UNESCO. The papers can be cited with the following reference: “Paper commissioned for the EFA Global Monitoring Report 2009”. For further information, please contact efareport@unesco.org

1 Prepared by Massimo Amadio (Italy), Programme Specialist at the IBE, with the collaboration of Hanspeter Geisseler, Research Assistant. The opinions and findings expressed in this document are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the views of UNESCO-IBE. The designations employed and the presentation of the material do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of UNESCO-IBE concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area, or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries.
Introduction

The present compilation brings together background information about: educational legislation and other basic regulations concerning education; governance, management and administration of the education system; and the financing of education.

Data have been mainly drawn from the sixth edition of the database *World Data on Education* (Geneva, UNESCO-IBE, 2007). A wide range of additional sources have been consulted in order to complement, enrich, and update the dataset (see: Sources).

Information has been organized by UNESCO Education for All (EFA) regions. The present document focuses on countries in South and West Asia. A total of 9 country cases are included.
SOUTH AND WEST ASIA [SWA]
[9 countries in the EFA region]

No. of cases = 9

AFGHANISTAN ...................................................... 4
   Laws and other basic regulations concerning education 4
   Administration and management of the education system 4
   The financing of education .................................. 10
BANGLADESH ..................................................... 13
   Laws and other basic regulations concerning education 13
   Administration and management of the education system 13
   The financing of education .................................. 21
BHUTAN .............................................................. 25
   Laws and other basic regulations concerning education 25
   Administration and management of the education system 25
   The financing of education .................................. 32
INDIA ................................................................. 35
   Laws and other basic regulations concerning education 35
   Administration and management of the education system 35
   The financing of education .................................. 45
IRAN, ISLAMIC REPUBLIC OF .............................. 48
   Laws and other basic regulations concerning education 48
   Administration and management of the education system 49
   The financing of education .................................. 52
MALDIVES .......................................................... 54
   Laws and other basic regulations concerning education 54
   Administration and management of the education system 54
   The financing of education .................................. 58
NEPAL ............................................................... 61
   Laws and other basic regulations concerning education 61
   Administration and management of the education system 62
   The financing of education .................................. 68
PAKISTAN .......................................................... 71
   Laws and other basic regulations concerning education 71
   Administration and management of the education system 71
   The financing of education .................................. 75
SRI LANKA ......................................................... 78
   Laws and other basic regulations concerning education 78
   Administration and management of the education system 78
   The financing of education .................................. 85
SOURCES ................................................................ 88
AFGHANISTAN

Laws and other basic regulations concerning education

“In addition to affirming the right to education for all citizens, the 2004 Constitution of Afghanistan obliges "the State to devise and implement effective programs for a balanced expansion of education all over Afghanistan." To fulfill this obligation and the long-term commitment made in the Millennium Development Goals, the Ministry of Education, in conjunction with its partners, has developed its first 5-year National Education Strategic Plan and will lead the delivery of an holistic education, whose content is responsive, relevant and representative, which is implemented in a sustainable, accountable and transparent manner, and which is fair and equitable in distribution across the country. The new Constitution states in Article 43 that free education is the "right of all citizens", including women.” [Source: UNDP. Afghanistan Human Development Report 2007.]

Administration and management of the education system

“Despite marked progress in primary education, over half of school age children remain out of school. The national average for attendance of children six to thirteen years of age is estimated at 37%. Provinces in the South and South-east continue to exhibit particularly low levels of enrollment for girls and boys. Zabul (1%), Uruzgan (1%), Helmand (6%) and Paktika (9%), in the South and South-east have the lowest levels of enrollment. Insecurity has become an increasingly formidable challenge to accessing education. The number of attacks on schools, teachers, and students rose considerably into 2006. The quality of education in Afghanistan remains poor and also requires concerted attention. Through its new National Education Strategy the Government is committed to increase school enrollment with a focus on expanding the attendance rate of girls, while increasing simultaneously both access to and the quality of education.” [Source: UNDP. Afghanistan Human Development Report 2007.]

“Early childhood development (ECD) programs have a relatively short history in Afghanistan. They were first introduced during the Soviet occupation with the establishment in 1980 of 27 urban preschools, or kodakistan. The number of preschools grew steadily during the 1980s, reaching a high of more than 270 by 1990, with 2,300 teachers caring for more than 21,000 children. These facilities were an urban phenomenon, mostly in Kabul, and were attached to schools, government offices, or factories. Based on the Soviet model, they provided nursery care, preschool, and kindergarten for children from 3 months to 7 years of age under the direction of the Department of Labor and Social Welfare. The vast majority of Afghan families were never exposed to this system, and most of those who were never fully accepted it because it diminished the central role of the family and inculcated children with Soviet values. With the onset of civil war after the Soviet withdrawal, the number of kindergartens dropped rapidly. By 1995, only 88 functioning facilities serving 2,110 children survived,
and the Taliban restrictions on female employment eliminated all of the remaining centers in areas under their control. At present, no programs of any size exist, facilities have been destroyed, and trained personnel are lacking. It is estimated that 2.5 million Afghan children are less than 6 years of age.

At present, no policies deal with early childhood and no institutions have either the responsibility or the capacity to provide such services. In the past, the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs was accountable for kindergartens, nurseries, and crèches, while orphanages fell within the purview of the Ministry of Education (MOE). At present, the Ministries of Education, Labor and Social Affairs, and Women’s Affairs have expressed an interest in overseeing the early childhood sector. As the Government continues to define and restructure ministerial responsibilities, the strengths and limitations of various options, including an interministerial coordination agency, should be carefully considered. While formal structures do not exist, it is not clear whether any informal childcare arrangements exist at the community level other than those provided by family members. As women enter the work force, it is likely that a market for private preschool services will emerge in urban areas.

Few data exist on the number and status of childcare providers formerly attached to the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs. These employees were high school graduates who had completed a 6-month training course in early childhood development. If they can be found and provided with refresher training, they represent a limited pool of skilled and committed service providers. Several NGOs provide a range of services to groups of mothers and young children, including Save the Children, the Aga Khan Foundation, World Vision, the Swedish Committee for Children, CARE, and OXFAM.

“An estimated 80% of school buildings at all levels have been damaged or destroyed, as well as all but two teacher training colleges, which are still partially functioning. Most of the vocational-technical facilities have been damaged or destroyed. A large number of qualified teachers fled the country, took jobs outside of education, worked in refugee camps, or have been killed.

The school system consists of 6 years of primary education, serving children aged 7–13 years. There are several delivery channels for education, particularly at the primary level, including government, community, homebased, and NGO schools. Mosque schools provide basic religious and moral instruction for boys and some girls, and madrasahs provide organized religious teaching for boys and young men. Radio instruction has been extensively used for both children and adult learners, in particular through BBC programs. Approximately one third of the estimated 3,600 primary schools are supported by NGOs, covering about 10% of the estimated primary school population in rural areas in the eastern and northern parts of the county. Only about 600 primary schools are exclusively for girls.

The government primary education structure consists of a Primary Education Directorate in the MOE, which is responsible for administrative management of the system, while teacher training and curriculum development are the responsibility of specialized directorates. A provincial education office (PEO) in each province is responsible for carrying out national policies and administering finances allocated by the central Government. The provincial education officers are historically accountable to both the provincial governor and to the Minister of Education in Kabul. District education offices (DEOs) existed in many administrative districts, although their present status is unclear.

Various reports estimate the size of the primary school teaching force as ranging from 15,000 to 50,000 teachers, excluding the large number of Afghan teachers in Pakistan and Iran. Many former teachers, particularly women, are reregistering at the
MOE. Several hundred teachers are also working in home-based girls’ schools in Afghanistan and in refugee areas. These teachers often have lower academic and professional qualifications than teachers in regular schools, but demonstrate high motivation and dedication.

Estimates of enrollment data for secondary education for 2001 range from 220,000 to 300,000 pupils, or roughly 5–11% of the school-age population. The most recent estimate of survival rates through grade 12 is from 1993, when only three students out of every 100 who enrolled in grade 1 completed the 12th grade. There is no reason to believe that the completion rate has improved since that time. Access to secondary education is constrained by a number of factors, particularly the number and location of secondary schools. In the past many district centers had one boys’ and one girls’ secondary school, catering mostly to “urban”1 students. Most secondary education facilities are located in cities rather than in villages, which is a serious disadvantage for those relatively few students in rural communities who successfully complete primary school and wish to continue their education. Geographically, the ratio of schools to school-age population is lower in the southern and western regions. For the past several years, almost no girls were enrolled in secondary school. After the Taliban closed all girls’ schools, the only secondary education available to girls was in the two northeastern provinces outside Taliban control.

The common estimate of 3,600 primary and 1,100 secondary schools may be misleading, because many schools designated as “high schools” combine primary and secondary schools, grades 1–12 inclusive. Some middle schools combine primary and lower secondary (grades 1–9). Available data do not clearly distinguish between these comprehensive schools and “stand-alone” facilities that include only the higher grades. Under the circumstances, a more useful measure of capacity might be classrooms used for secondary education. Many of the identified schools exist only in name, as many have been damaged or destroyed in the war. The exact number of usable secondary structures is unknown, but estimates indicate that 40% of school buildings are completely destroyed and another 15% are heavily damaged. Whereas several sources of textbooks and learning materials are available for primary education (including the Afghan Basic Competency learning materials and textbooks from the University of Nebraska at Omaha), little new work has been done on textbooks for secondary grades. These have roughly three sources: textbooks for science and math subjects from the International Rescue Committee, geography and history from the University of Nebraska at Omaha, and textbooks for languages from the Afghan Government before 1978. These books are now being reprinted as a measure to respond to the most urgent needs. Most of the school inventory, libraries, laboratory and science equipment, and consumables are destroyed or outdated.

The institutional base supporting secondary education in MOE includes the Department of Secondary Education, which has management responsibilities; Translation and Compilation, which is responsible for textbooks and curriculum; and Teacher Training. Some PEOs nominally include a department of science, which provides subject matter and teaching specialists in math and science, although these positions are usually unfilled. All of these offices are poorly equipped and in a state of disrepair. Outside Kabul, where the supply of electricity is poor and unreliable, electricity is either sporadic or nonexistent.

In the past, secondary school teachers were educated in teacher training colleges or pedagogical institutes. Most of the 14 teacher training colleges are no longer functional and no new teachers have been trained in years. In 1994, UNESCO estimated the number of teachers for secondary schools at 17,548.
Higher education in Afghanistan has deteriorated dramatically over the past 2 decades. From 68 colleges with well-equipped campuses in all major cities, the higher education system has been reduced to empty campuses with no faculty, students, or equipment. Although higher education may be seen as elitist and serving only a small minority of the population, reestablishing higher education will be a crucial element in the effort to rebuild Afghanistan. Decades of war and refugees have almost destroyed Afghanistan’s professional and technical base of educated people, including teachers, administrators, managers, engineers, doctors, and other technocrats and professionals.

The Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE) has begun to receive assistance to revitalize the system. Kabul University is receiving support from UNESCO to develop its College of Journalism, and 10 short-term fellowships in Germany have been awarded to update the knowledge and skills of its faculty. In addition, a global appeal for books is underway to benefit the College’s library. Purdue University, financed by USAID and independent sources, will provide assistance to Kabul University by reconstructing the School of Engineering and Agriculture. It will also establish a technical center and a management department.

Higher education is administered by MOHE. It comprises 12 institutions spread around the country, led by Kabul University. The universities and institutes are composed of 68 colleges, specializing in agriculture, economics, education, engineering, fine arts, geology, journalism, law, literature, medicine, natural sciences, pharmacy, social sciences, theology, and veterinary medicine. However, as a result of the restrictions imposed by the Taliban, very little installed capacity still exists in areas other than Islamic studies.

The prewar teacher education system in Afghanistan was based on a network of 14 2-year teacher training colleges in 11 provinces. With the Soviet invasion, six of these colleges were transferred to the MOHE and converted to pedagogical institutes with 4-year programs of study, and the remaining colleges were not supported. By 1984, only three teacher training colleges were functioning; and after 6 years of the Taliban, two of these institutions still functioned—but only partly: they have suffered physical destruction and neither has active staff, although several have applied to accept students in 2002 from among those who take the higher education entrance examination.

The central MOE is organized into 22 departments, including a General Secretariat. These are coordinated by two deputy ministers, one for operations and one for program. At present, the deputy minister for operations is performing both functions. All 22 departments are on the same organizational level and all report directly to the minister. They are grouped into five categories: Coordination and control: deputy ministers, General Secretariat, audit and inspection; Planning, international relations, and construction; Management structures: personnel and administration; Subsector structures: primary education, secondary education, vocational education, literacy, health, religious education, sciences education, sports, scouts, and orphanages; and Pedagogic structures: teacher training, translation and compilation (curriculum and textbooks), printing and publication, and distance education.

In addition, a Kabul City department is attached to the ministry, which administers the schools of Kabul. The other districts of Kabul are attached to the Provincial Directorate of Education under the governor of Kabul Province. The distribution of roles and responsibilities among the central departments is fragmented by functions. The subsector departments, such as primary and secondary education, have only administrative responsibilities, and have no role in the issues of curriculum, teacher training, or planning related to their subsectors; these are responsibilities of the technical departments, which handle them without consultation with sector departments.
Realignment of these roles and the promotion of coordination between departments are needed.

The PEOs are responsible for supervising primary and secondary education, as well as literacy. The activities of central departments, such as vocational and technical, are not channeled through PEOs or DEOs, which number about 535. The detailed organization of PEOs may differ from one province to the next, but the general structure remains the same. A quick survey of the 10 provinces in the central region indicates that, generally, the provincial offices have two or three deputies (administration, technical affairs, and religious affairs), an inspection and supervision department, a student affairs department, a literacy department, and operational departments such as planning, personnel, administration and finance, accounting, services, and supplies. Only one out of the 10 provinces has a construction department. For these provinces, PEOs have about 50 staff. MOE’s overall organizational model is a centralized system, although historically provinces have had an important role. PEOs have had substantive responsibilities over the years, including the assignment of teachers, financial management, student assignment and management, and even some purchases of materials. Because of the lack of communication with provincial and local levels over the past 10 years, the PEOs’ functional autonomy has increased.” [Source: Asian Development Bank. A new start for Afghanistan’s Education Sector. Manila, 2003.]

“Afghanistan was devastated by three decades of conflict which destroyed physical and institutional structures and tore the social fabric of the nation. The education and training infrastructure in the country was at the frontline of this devastation in terms of physical infrastructure, ideology and trained/qualified human resources. The situation reached its lowest point under the Taliban regime. Since the ousting of the Taliban in 2002, the Government of Afghanistan (GoA) has begun to formulate new policies and has taken major steps towards the rebuilding of these institutions.

A comprehensive policy on education and skills is currently being drafted as the education sector strategy. Specifically, for TVET the GOA does not yet have a clear framework or strategy, and it is expected that both will be developed as part of the proposed project. However, several major initiatives have already been taken in this regard over the last several years including the launch of the National Skills Development Program (NSDP) in 2004 as one of four key National Priority Programs to provide training to build the capacity of the labor force. The NSDP is a program under the overall leadership of the Ministry of Labor, Social Affairs, Martyrs and Disabled (MOLSAMD), but functions relatively autonomously within this framework. Two further developments include the Afghanistan Compact benchmarks emerging out of the London Conference (January 2006) which identified benchmarks related specifically to vocational education and training.

Currently, provision of vocational education and training happens through the Ministry of Education (MOE) and MOLSAMD. The MOE has roughly 12000 students under training at the postbasic level and admits students into their programs upon the completion of Grade 9. These programs are offered through 44 institutions around the country of which nearly half are in Kabul. The training provided by MOLSAMD, and facilitated by NSDP, has about 15000 trainees in nearly all the provinces of the country. These trainees are formatively monitored and assessed by the NSDP. However, most the programs currently being offered suffer in terms of quality and relevance, with most programs having little or nothing to do with the needs of the market. The programs tend to be very supply driven. Furthermore, the fragmentation of the sector across a wide range
of providers, public and private, makes it develop coherence across various levels of education and training, and thus making it difficult for training to provide the right signals to potential employers.” [Source: World Bank. *Project Information Document. Afghanistan Skills Development Project*. Report No.: AB3373, November 2007.]

“There are 34 provinces in Afghanistan. MoE has established one provincial education office for each of the 34 provinces and one provincial education office for Kabul city due to the large number of students in Kabul city.

Nationwide, there are a total of 9,476 schools. General Education has 9,062 schools: 5,024 Primary (grades 1-6), 2,506 Lower Secondary (grades 7-9) and 1,532 Higher Secondary (grades 10-12) schools. There are 336 Islamic Schools, 34 Teacher Training Centres and 44 Technical Vocational schools (of the latter, 17 are in Kabul City alone). Of the 9,062 General Education schools, 1,530 (16.88%) are found in urban areas and 7,532 (83.12%) in rural areas. These schools support total student populations of 2,002,341 (35.28%) in urban areas and 3,673,610 (64.72%) in rural areas respectively.

Within General Education the vast majority of students are in Primary school – 4,669,110 (82.26% of the total student population). Among Primary students, 2,930,784 are male and 1,738,326 are female. In terms of Lower Secondary, the total student population is 735,697 (12.96% of the total student population). Of these students, 533,834 are male and 201,863 are female. Kabul City has the largest number of Lower Secondary students at 147,040. In Higher Secondary there is a total student population of 271,144, of which 203,244 are male and 67,900 are female. Once again, Kabul City has by far the largest number of Higher Secondary students – 77,042.

The total number of employees working in the education sector is 199,948—191,603 staff are paid by the MoE and 8,345 are paid by the community, NGOs or work voluntarily. Of those paid by MoE, a total of 12,598 employees were not included in the survey - 6,801 did not fill in survey forms (had not been recruited at the time of the survey) and 5,797 staff working in literacy department. Of the 8,345 staff not paid by MoE, 5,000 teachers are working in the CBE programme and 3,345 are working in General Education or Islamic Education. Of the 182,350 staff who were surveyed, 168,791 are employed in General Education (92.56%), 4,488 in Islamic Education, 658 in Teacher Training, 1,445 in Vocational and Technical, and the remaining 6,968 are employed in the MoE Central Office, provincial and district departments. In total, 81.94% of MoE staff who were surveyed are teaching staff and,18.06% are non-teaching staff (5.81% are administrative staff and 12.25% are *ajirs* (*ajirs* are service support staff comprising cleaners, office boys and drivers).

The level of all staff members’ education was collected but was not disaggregated between teaching and teaching/admin staff in schools. Of the total of 160,007 employed in these two categories, 1,247 are classified as illiterate (mostly men, mostly within the General Education programme—the largest number being in Badakhshan with 91 (Table 46)). Since these are both professional categories, the number classified as illiterate is worrisome. In addition, 3,741 in these two categories have Primary education, 18,478 have Lower Secondary education, 74,418 have Grade 12, 24,843 have Grade 14, and 1,388 have completed university (typically, a bachelor’s degree).

Within the General Education programme, nationwide in 1386 [2007] there were 5,675,951 students in 157,537 classes. These students attended classes in 3,704 schools with buildings and 4,956 schools without buildings (the status of a further 402 schools is unknown). Nationwide, the number of classrooms available is 42,003, while the number needed is 73,208. Nationally, for both General and Islamic Education, there are 22,080
classrooms with light damage requiring rehabilitation and 1,713 with heavy damage that would need to be rebuilt. In addition, 1,100 schools nationwide have surrounding walls that need rehabilitation and there are a further 935 girls’ schools which lack surrounding walls. Within the General Education programme, 70 schools have televisions. (nationwide, there are 96 functioning and 9 non-functioning televisions available). 432 schools have computers (nationwide, 1,599 functioning and 289 non-functioning computers).

With regard to sanitation, nationally there are 22,728 toilets available at school facilities. Of these, 3,374 require rehabilitation. There is also a need for 28,805 new toilets. With regard to water, there are 4,441 schools nationwide that are without a well or hand pump and another 1,371 schools with a well but without a hand pump.

Within the General Education programme, only 311 schools have electricity generators (a total of 309 functioning and 66 non-functioning). Within the Islamic Education programme, only 20 schools have generators (a total of 20 functioning and 5 non-functioning).” [Source: Ministry of Education. 2007 School Survey. Summary report (Survey period: May to August 2007). EMIS Department and Department of Planning. Produced for presentation at the first Education Development Forum. January 2008.]

The financing of education

“The most recent data from Afghanistan on education as a percentage of GNP, dating from 1981, indicated a very low investment in education of 1.8% of gross national income—well below the already poor regional average in South Asia of 3.1%. It is reasonable to assume that education will be an important priority for Afghanistan and, as such, will merit an investment of at least 3% of GNP. However, it is difficult to project a meaningful GNP for Afghanistan, where virtually all productive assets have been damaged. Some proportional estimates can be made. The last reasonably reliable estimate of gross domestic product (GDP) in Afghanistan was $3.7 billion in 1979, when the population was estimated at 15 million. Recurrent expenditures of $90 million in education would represent 3% of a projected GDP of $2.9 billion for 23 million people, or less than half of the equivalent per capita income of 1979, when Afghanistan was one of the poorest countries in the world.

Recurrent costs will be the largest single expense of the education sector, exceeding development and capital expenses by a considerable margin in any given year. As in many developing countries, MOE is the largest civil service employer, so changes in employment or salary levels in education significantly affect the level of government spending. A budget planning exercise is currently underway by the Civil Service Commission to estimate a sustainable recurrent budget level for Afghanistan. The two major elements affecting the budget are salaries and the number of employees, both of which are in flux.

The present system is a remnant of a prior salary structure in which salary was supplemented by non-salary remuneration, such as allowances for food, transportation, and other costs. Originally, salary represented the largest part of the remuneration, but over the years, it has shrunk to a small fraction of the total. A current teacher’s salary, which has not been paid for more than 6 months, averages about $41.00 per month, of which $2.46 is salary and $38.54 are for food and other allowances. Professional personnel currently receive about $44.67 per month, while service workers

“Public expenditures are extraordinarily high. Total budgetary expenditures in 2004/05 were equivalent to 57% of GDP (excluding the drug economy from the denominator). Most spending occurs outside Government channels. Around three-quarters of expenditure in 2004/05 was donor-executed, in the external budget, with very limited Government oversight. The security sector is a major driver of overall spending. Security spending has been growing rapidly and accounts for 39% of total expenditure. A disproportionate share of public spending occurs in Kabul. Most notably, only 30% of non-wage O&M (Operation and Maintenance) expenditures are made outside Kabul.

Afghanistan’s municipalities constitute the only semi-autonomous level of government and should play a very important role in urban service delivery. They have their own budgets, but levels of municipal taxes and fees are determined by the central Government, which also approves municipal budgets. Since municipalities are supposed to live within their means (i.e. expenditures are constrained by resources), they do not directly contribute to fiscal deficits. However, there are important issues related to future municipal expenditure liabilities associated with public investments (which often are decided on and executed by central ministries rather than by municipalities themselves). Similar potential issues arise with respect to staffing, although there is no indication that municipalities have gone on hiring sprees, probably due to their relatively hard budget constraints. There are serious weaknesses in the basics of public financial management at the municipal level – budget formulation, budget execution, accounting, and auditing. And there are widespread perceptions of corruption in municipalities. Kabul Municipality is much larger than all other cities in Afghanistan (accounting for something like 15% of the total national population) and currently has a special status (more-or-less akin to that of a ministry) in the overall structure of the Government.

Afghanistan’s budgetary expenditures can be classified along programmatic lines, and divided into four broad pillars established by the Government in its strategy documents (Figure 5.1): human capital development (25% of total spending in 2004/05), physical infrastructure (27%), general administration (9%, including trade and investment and public administration and economic management), and security (39%). Aside from the fact that security is the dominant sector, with a rough balance between the human capital and infrastructure pillars and much less going into the fourth pillar, it is not possible to say much at this very aggregated level. However, the pattern of expenditures differs significantly as between the Core Budget and the External Budget. Human capital development is the largest pillar in the Core Budget, reflecting substantial spending in the recurrent budget on teachers’ salaries and in the development budget on the National Solidarity Program (NSP) and on basic health services (contracted out to non-government providers).

The 2004 Constitution provides the legal authority for preparing, approving, and executing the national budget. The Public Finance and Expenditure Management (PFEM) Law, approved in June 2005, further specifies the processes and responsibilities. The Government is responsible for preparing the budget (and executing it), with MoF leading the process. The budget is then to be presented for approval to the bicameral legislature no later than 45 days before the start of the fiscal year, and approval is required no later than a month after the start of the fiscal year. In previous years, as the Parliament had not yet been established, the Cabinet approved the national budget through a Presidential Decree.
The “traditional” service delivery model in Afghanistan is that the State itself provides services through its centralized bureaucracy (Figure 8.2). Ninety-seven percent of Afghan students are enrolled in public schools operated by civil servants under the management of the Ministry of Education (MoE). This model directly links the Government with the population and thereby may enhance the former’s perceived legitimacy; it facilitates propagation of nationwide service content (e.g. curriculum); and it may be able to exploit economies of scale. Certainly Afghanistan has seen an unprecedented expansion of elementary education since 2001, based on the application of this centralized model. Both girls’ and boys’ enrollments have reached levels far higher than at any time in Afghanistan’s history, including prior to the conflict.

The centralized service delivery model has major weaknesses, however. Management of the primary education system, for example, is highly centralized. All important decisions, and even relatively less important decisions like appointments of teachers, are made by MoE in Kabul, often a very long distance and at least three management layers away from the schools and the students they serve. Schools have very little access to non-salary budget allocations, and many inputs are provided in-kind by donors and NGOs–leading to disadvantages associated with the “outside government” mode of service delivery discussed later. The distribution of expenditures, especially non-salary expenditures, between Kabul and the provinces is skewed against the providers, and there are major gaps in service delivery between urban and rural areas (which when combined with gender and regional disparities become enormous). The needs of each school are not effectively responded to by distant decision-makers. The efficiency of the centralized system is reduced by management difficulties, in particular how to hold teachers and principals accountable for their work from a distance. Another issue is the role of donors, who may provide financing to the State for education (through ARTF or project financing), but also may provide salary top-ups, direct payments, and in-kind contributions directly to schools. The result of all of these shortcomings is poor quality of education and serious geographical as well as gender disparities, reducing the returns to the large investments being made in education.

Given its enormous needs and the high socio-economic returns to investments in elementary education, this is being prioritized in terms of budgetary allocations (see Chapter 5). But delivering quality higher education services leading to significant numbers of well-qualified graduates will be essential for state-building and capacity development in both public and private sectors. While charging fees for higher education is not popular in any country, the private returns to higher education are substantial enough that partial cost-recovery is well-justified, with scholarship or loan programs for those unable to afford fees. Moreover, an astonishing 40% of the recurrent budget of the Ministry of Higher Education is spent on running costs and food at university dormitories. Since another 50% of the operating budget of the Ministry goes for salaries, very little is left for indispensable pedagogical inputs such as internet access, textbooks, journals, lab materials, etc. Even if charging fees for higher education is not possible in the short run, expecting students to cover part of living costs – at least food – would be reasonable and would free budgetary resources to improve the quality of higher education.” [Source: World Bank. Afghanistan. Managing Public Finances for Development. Main Report. Report No. 34582-AF, December 2005.]
BANGLADESH

Laws and other basic regulations concerning education

Article 17 of the Constitution of Bangladesh, which relates to education, reads as follows: “The State shall adopt effective measures for the purpose of: (a) establishing a uniform, mass-oriented and universal system of education and extending free and compulsory education to all children to such stage as may be determined by law; (b) relating education to the needs of society and producing properly trained and motivated citizens to serve those needs; (c) removing illiteracy within such time as may be determined by law.” The Constitution provides for establishing a uniform, mass-oriented, universal system of education, and extending free and compulsory education to all children. It also provides for relating education to the needs of society, producing trained and motivated citizens to serve the needs of society and removing illiteracy.

The Non-Government Universities Act No. 34 of 1992 regulates the establishment of private universities. The Open University was created under the Act No. 38 of 1992.

Primary education has been made compulsory for children aged 6-10 years by the Compulsory Primary Education Act of 1990, which states that “unless there is a valid ground, the guardian of each child living in an area where primary education has been made compulsory shall [...] have his/her child admitted to the nearest primary education institution located in that area.”

Administration and management of the education system

The principal management institutions in the education sector are: the Primary and Mass Education Division under the Prime Minister; the Ministry of Education; the Directorate of Primary Education; the Directorate of Secondary and Higher Education; the Directorate of Technical Education; the Directorate of Inspection and Audit; the National Curriculum and Textbook Board; the Boards of Intermediate and Secondary Education; the Madrasah Education Board; the Technical Education Board, the National Academy for Primary Education; the National Academy for Educational Management; the Bangladesh Bureau of Educational Information and Statistics; the Facilities Department; and the University Grants Commission.

The Ministry of Education (MOE) has overall responsibility for planning, guiding and controlling the development of education. There is a growing feeling among educators that, as the principal policy-making body in education, the MOE should focus its efforts on developing policies and programmes rather than routine matters. While post-primary and post-secondary education continue under the MOE, the Primary and Mass Education Division was established in August 1992 and upgraded as a Ministry in 2003. It is responsible for policy formulation, planning, evaluation and execution of plans and
initiating legislative measures relating to primary and mass education, as well as non-formal education. Mass education in Bangladesh refers to non-formal education for out-of-school children, youth and adults in basic literacy, simple numeracy and life skills.

At the central level, the Directorate of Primary Education (DPE), headed by a director-general, executes the policy decisions and controls, co-ordinates and regulates the field administration of primary education. Under the DPE there are five divisional offices headed by deputy directors, sixty-four District Offices headed by district primary education officers, and 481 Thana (Upazila) Education Offices headed by thana (upazila) education officers. The Directorate of Non-Formal Education, headed by a director-general, executes the programmes of non-formal education. It controls and regulates the field level administration of non-formal education.

The Directorate of Secondary and Higher Education (DSHE) is the principal agency for implementing government policies in secondary education. It has under its control secondary schools (including junior high schools and colleges—intermediate, degree and madrashas). In addition, there are ebtedayee or primary-level madrashas under its administrative jurisdiction. In recent years, there has been a noticeable increase in the number of educational institutions. The increasing number of institutions not only creates pressure on the public exchequer but also brings in its wake administrative and management problems and increased workload. In addition, problems have resulted from the nationalization of a number of secondary schools and colleges in the recent years. The DSHE is headed by a Director General who is assisted by four Directors and a number of other officials at the center, zone and district levels. The country has been divided into 9 educational zones for effective management of secondary education at the field level. Under these zones there are 64 District Education Officers (DEOs) and an equal number of Assistant District Education Officers (ADEOs) to monitor and supervise the secondary schools. One of the most difficult tasks of DSHE is the central administration of salary subsidy payment to nearly 250,000 teachers and employees of non-government secondary schools, colleges and madrashas.

The National Academy for Primary Education (NAPE) is the principal institution of primary teacher education, conducting training and research in the field of primary education. NAPE also looks after the academic programmes of the Primary Training Institutes (PTIs) and conducts the final examination for the one-year certificate in education course. There are fifty-three Primary Training Institutes spread over the country. The annual intake capacity of the PTIs is around 10,000. The PTIs offer a certificate in education course for primary school teachers. The PTIs also conduct action research. The National Academy for Educational Management (NAEM) is responsible for in-service training of senior administrators and teachers at the secondary and higher secondary levels.

The National Curriculum and Textbook Board (NCTB) is responsible for curriculum development, printing and supply of all textbooks for the primary, secondary and higher secondary levels. The Bangladesh Bureau of Educational Information and Statistics (BANBEIS) is responsible for the collection, compilation, publication and dissemination of information and education statistics at all levels.

The seven Boards of Intermediate and Secondary Education (BISE) independently administer the Secondary School Certificate (SSC) and the Higher School
Certificate (HSC) Examinations in their own regions. The Madrasah Education Board administers the Madrasah system of education (see the chapter ‘private education’ below).

The Technical Education Board has full academic control over the technical and vocational institutions. The Institute of Marine Technology and eleven Technical Training Centres, run by the Ministry of Manpower, are affiliated to the Board for academic purposes. Public examinations are held for various types of courses under the auspices of the Board. The Ministry of Agriculture operates eleven Agricultural Training Institutes affiliated to the Board.

Traditionally, the management role in education has been performed exclusively by the public sector. However, since 97% of the secondary schools are privately-managed non-governmental institutions, their involvement in planning, execution and management has to be secured, in order to ensure their participation in the development efforts.

Pre-school education is available mostly in the cities and some of the district headquarters; it is not part of the formal education system. Pre-school education (baby class, playgroup, KG-1, KG-2) caters to children aged 3-5. The government is committed to improving child health care, nutrition, living environment, etc. Most of these activities in this regard are carried out under the supervision of the government agencies through various ministries; non-government and community service organizations are also involved in the delivery of these services.

In Bangladesh, the concept of Early Childhood Development (ECD) and the need for Early Childhood Education (ECE) as well as other supportive activities for the development of the child has not been well established. There are many primary schools that have ‘baby’ (or pre-school) classes and many privately-owned kindergartens that have playgroup/nursery group sections, but their impact on the children’s development has not been studied in details. The ‘baby class’ is a pre-primary education arrangement attached to primary school. Although this arrangement is recognized by the government, this type of education is not properly administered, nor is systematically supervised. Teaching-learning materials are not designed through any scientific process. This is a sort of loose form of education arrangement, helping children become school-oriented. The child development focus is not obvious in this arrangement.

Thus, the existence of the ‘baby class’ as a form of pre-primary education is the weakest part of the education system. At its best, it is an activity for familiarizing children with schooling; but its weakness is that it is not carefully managed. Moreover, in its nature it is not oriented toward child development in the true sense of the term.

ECE/ECD is identified as one of the major intervention in the National Plan of Action (NPA) III approved by the government in June 2005. There are four ministries that provide early childhood services: the Ministry of Primary and Mass Education (baby class in primary schools and playgroups); the Ministry of Women and Children Affairs (day care centers and pre-primary education); the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare (immunization and nutrition); and the Ministry of Social Welfare (Orphanage and children’s home). There is no national mechanism set up specifically to coordinate the different sectors for early childhood. No major initiatives have yet been taken to promote sectoral coordination. Recently, however, the Ministry of Women and Children Affairs has made an effort to mobilize actors across different sectors in the government as well as actors in the field to implement the Shishu Academy, which runs integrated pre-primary education for 4-5-year-old children.
The Madrasah system represents an alternative to government education. The origin of the Madrasah system can be traced back to 1780, when the Calcutta Madrasah (the first government college in the Indian sub-continent) was set up. The original purpose of establishing the Madrasah was to produce officials well-versed in Islamic laws. Over the years the number of madrasha operating as religious institutions increased, although the original purpose of establishing them has been lost.

Madrasah education, as a parallel system, has drawn considerable attention in recent years. The number of madrasahs has grown as a result of increased government salary subsidies to non-government institutions. The Ministry of Education issued circulars equating the Ebtedayee, Dhakil, and Alim madrasah levels with the primary, secondary, and higher secondary levels, respectively. It is possible for a student passing the Dakhil Examination of the Bangladesh Madrasah Education Board to be admitted to the HSC course in a college. Similarly, a student passing the Alim Examination with science subjects can pass an admission test to be admitted to an agricultural college, a medical college, or an institute of technology. The Madrasah system includes two additional stages: Fazil (two-year course, equivalent to bachelor’s degree level) and Kamil (two-year course, equivalent to master’s degree level).

Primary level institutions had an average of 2.94 classrooms per school in 1987 (129,880 classrooms in all). The situation had improved by 1999, the rural primary schools had an average of 3.5 rooms and urban schools, 5.5 rooms; 53% of schools had tolerably acceptable accommodation compared to 42.8% in 1990. The classrooms are constructed to accommodate 60 students, or 0.725 square meters per student, much less than standard size (a minimum of 8 square meters). All schools do not have equal number of classrooms or equal sizes of classrooms. Some 47% schools have less than the minimum space and all schools less than standard accommodation. Between 1990 and 2000 the government has reconstructed a total of 31,011 schools and repaired 14,570 to ensure minimum facilities and also to double as storm shelters in cyclone-prone areas. However, funds for minor repairs remain extremely limited and such work cannot be undertaken as and when required. More than 60% percent of the primary schools have water and toilet facilities though inadequate, the gap of about 40% is still quite high.

Generally, curriculum reforms have been without a research base. Although the National Curriculum and Textbook Board (NCTB) is an autonomous body, the Ministry of Education has control over these matters. The textbook, being the principal instrument of curriculum implementation, is supposed to reflect instructional objectives as embodied in the curriculum. The need for designing content in keeping with the curriculum objectives is generally recognized and appreciated.

The Non-Formal Education (NFE) Programme provides for out-of-school children aged 8-10, adolescent boys and girls aged 11-14, adults aged 15-35, and neo-literates. In order to stop neo-literates relapse into illiteracy, libraries have been put into operation to provide opportunities for lifelong continuing education. Centre supervisors and teachers have been trained. Primers, teachers’ guides, teachers’ training manuals and supervisors’ training manuals have been printed. All these programmes are being implemented by NGOs, as well as by the Government. NGOs are also organizing non-formal education courses for about half a million out-of-school and drop-out children, youth and adults.

NFE is found highly effective in Bangladesh in addressing the problem of large-scale adult illiteracy. NFE is meant to reach large numbers of people where they live and
work. Its objective is to impart useful knowledge and skill without removing people from their normal environment and responsibilities. It is sufficiently diverse and enjoys adequate flexibility in organization, funding and management; it emphasizes local initiative, self-help and innovation on the part of large number of people and their local institutions.

The Total Literacy Movement (TLM) was launched in 1994 in the district of Lalmonirhat with the active participation of the community. The District Administration provides the leadership for social mobilization. On the basis of the experience gained in Lalmonirhat, TLM is expanding wherever appropriate local initiatives have been taken.

In addition, an integrated non-formal education programme to cover two million out-of-school children, adolescents and adults is currently under implementation.

Mass communication and publicity media (radio and television) are used to create awareness regarding primary and mass education programmes. The programmes are also continuing through posters, short films, dramas and musical sessions organized by the Department of Mass Communication. The Primary Education Fortnight and International Literacy Day are observed every year in the months of January and September, respectively, when numerous awareness activities receive social emphasis.

Shishu Kallayan (child welfare) primary schools for working children are in operation throughout the country. In these schools there is provision for studying from Grade I to Grade V. Of these schools, six are in Dhaka and Narayangongj, and forty are in different districts of the country. These schools are being administered by Shishu Kallayan Trust.

The government policy requires that 60% of the new teachers recruited be female (for whom the education qualification has been relaxed). The entry qualification for a newly recruited teacher is the Secondary School Certificate (SSC) for females and the Higher Secondary Certificate (HSC) for males. The salary, status and opportunities for promotion of male and female teachers are the same. Teachers have a respectable position in the society and female teachers are widely revered in the family and society, which helps ensure greater enrolment and retention of girls. Only 20% of the teachers were female in 1990. This figure increased to 27% in 1995. Assistant teachers have opportunities for promotion to the post of headteacher on the basis of seniority, and a 20% quota has been established for recruitment of headteachers to the post of Assistant Thana Education Officers. Like other government employees, teachers in government schools receive a monthly salary based on the national pay scale. Teacher salary subventions are provided to non-government registered primary schools and selected Ebtedayee madrasahs.

Inspection and supervision play an important role in improving the quality of education. Field level officers have been given inspection targets. An inspection cell has been set up in the Directorate of Primary Education for the regular monitoring of inspection and supervision functions of field officers. The inspection performances of field officers have been linked to their promotion. Increasing responsibilities are being devolved to the local level committees, such as the school management committee, Thana Education Committee, etc.

In-service training of teachers has been recognized as one of the important means to upgrade the quality of primary education in the country. With this objective, a mechanism has been established to run an effective, sustainable national in-service primary teacher training system and to raise the quality of instruction with a cluster of fifteen to twenty schools under the direct supervision and guidance of an Assistant Thana Education Officer (ATEO). The training programme at the cluster has been modified to
make its operation more practical and effective and is held at sub-cluster level. Under this programme, about fifteen to twenty teachers from four to five schools assemble every two months in a particular school. The concerned ATEO conducts a one-day training session based on educational science modules. A long-term training programme of one year’s duration—known as the Certificate in Education—is also ongoing in the Primary Training Institutes of the country. The course content has been revised along the lines of the newly introduced primary school curriculum.

The education sector is no longer able to attract qualified personnel in science teaching, due to the lack of incentives and the limited facilities available for teachers in general, and science teachers in particular. As teachers pursue private tuition as a means of supplementary income, the quality of service deteriorates and absenteeism rises.

[Source: WDE]

“Students' attendance rates are low (62 percent), teacher absenteeism is high (5-20 percent, depending on the type of school), the curriculum is of limited relevance (particularly at the secondary level), and teacher-pupil contact time is very low. Together with the poor quality of instruction, these result in low learning achievements as well as low passing and completion rates. Data from the 2000 Household Income and Expenditure Survey (HIES) show that only 56 percent of all children 11-19 years old complete grade 5. In addition, survey-based estimates indicate that primary enrollment stagnated during the last five years and that poor children are less likely to be enrolled in school at all levels.

In primary education (grades 1-5), the Government, involved as financier and provider, directly operates about half of all schools, accounting for 60 percent of overall enrollment. Registered non-government primary schools account for 25 percent of primary schools and 24 percent of enrollment. Another large group of schools, the ebtedayee madrasas (religious schools), accounts for an additional 9 percent of primary schools and 5 percent of enrollment. Most of these schools are heavily subsidized by the Government, which provides on average 80 percent of teacher salaries and free textbooks. All primary schools adhere strictly to the national curriculum developed by the National Curriculum and Textbook Board (NCTB), which is also responsible for preparing, printing, and distributing all textbooks at the primary and secondary levels. NGO-run schools (not supported by the Government) provide non-formal primary schooling to about 2 million children (about 10 percent of total enrollment in the 6-10 age group).

The mass education system is designed to provide (i) non-formal education for children ages 8-14 currently out of school, to enable them to transition to the formal schooling system upon completion of their non-formal course, and (ii) adult literacy training. In adult literacy about 330 NGOs directly implement the non-formal education programs of the Government, which aim to cover nearly 30 million adult learners.

Most secondary schools (covering grades 6-10 and 11-12) are privately managed (98 percent of all secondary schools, 94 percent of enrollment), but a substantial part of their expenses is covered by government salary subvention payments for teachers and staff and block grants for construction and maintenance. The Government also supports the religious secondary schools known as dakhil (grades 6-10) and alim (grades 11-12) madrasas.

The tertiary education system is intended to prepare high-level manpower for professional, technical, and administrative positions in the labor market; generate new knowledge through research; and extend that knowledge to the society at large. Pressed
by lack of employment opportunities at lower levels and attracted by high rates of return (over 10 percent annually), about three out of four students who pass the higher secondary certificate (HSC) examination go on to some form of higher education. About 15 percent of the entrants are admitted to the universities, and the rest are channeled into the nearly 900 degree colleges, most of which are non-government. The Bangladesh Open University was established in 1992 in order to make university education more accessible. In 1999 it enrolled nearly 0.18 million students. There are currently 29 private universities, permitted for the first time in the 1990s, and 13 government universities. Private universities are not subsidized by the Government.

Bangladesh's Technical and Vocational Education (TVE7) system is relatively small, absorbing about 2 percent of the education budget and enrolling only 30,000 students at the certificate and diploma levels combined. There are a few reasonably good-quality public training institutions, including some technical training centers (TTCs) under the Ministry of Labor and rural training centers under the Ministry of Youth. Good models for skills training are provided by some NGOs. The Technical Education Board is a small, self-supporting, and relatively effective organization for curricula, teaching materials, and trade tests.

There is growing public dissatisfaction with the quality of governance in education. Perceptions of corruption and negligence, concerns about the influence of wealth on access to schooling, and complaints about teachers giving private students priority over public ones are on the rise. Recent surveys report the public's frustration with the delayed supply of textbooks and the need to buy primary-level textbooks instead of getting them free of cost. Many teachers do not teach in school unless they are also engaged as private tutors at home. There are also widespread allegations of corruption regarding school registration.

In Bangladesh the central Government carries out a combination of functions emphasizing regulation, supervision, and implementation of policies. Since the line ministry manages the overall education budget, it has an incentive to recommend expansion and construction as a solution to most education problems. This is in contradiction to the expected role of the central Government, which in basic education should be confined to the provision of technical services, including transparently allocating resources among districts, setting standards, establishing sector policy and curricula, conducting research, and disseminating research results and other education-related information to local governments and to the general public. The task of creating an effective, decentralized management of primary and secondary education will require several years.

As far as local participation is concerned, there is little delegation of authority to School Management Committees (SMCs) or local government. Even when SMCs are established, local elites often dominate, leaving little room for real representation by parents and objective community members. At the secondary level the Government provides its subsidies directly to a "qualified" set of private schools. Once the schools have attained their eligibility to receive government subsidies, however, the subsidies continue to flow regardless of performance or community satisfaction. The Government has little leverage beyond periodic non-renewal of accreditation and discontinuation of subventions, measures it rarely employs. SMCs are comprised predominantly of male elites and are not always representative of their communities. There are few ministry staff at the field level to monitor the quality of the services they are essentially purchasing. Bangladesh's education administration at the central level and the policy planning and implementing agencies are not adequately equipped to perform their oversight role. They have minimal capacity to conduct policy research, do planning and budgeting, monitor
and evaluate programs, and assess school performance. The ministries do not have sufficient capacity to monitor the financial aspects of the subvention system, not to speak of the quality of instruction. They have little control over the collection of information from schools, resulting in substantial delays in the production of basic statistics. Information about student and school performance and about finances is not always reliable, nor is it available to the public.

Teachers’ wages are not related to performance. While teacher salaries are low, it is not clear that this is the reason for their poor performance, as manifested by their high rate of absenteeism. It appears that misgovernance in teacher recruitment, training, assignment to schools, salary payments, and supervision are some major factors behind the very low motivation on the part of the teachers to teach. Only these can explain why, despite being paid less than their counterparts in the government and government-aided schools, teachers in NGO schools seem to do better in classrooms.” [Source: World Bank. Bangladesh. Public Expenditure Review. Report No. 24370-BD, May 2003.]

“Once a school is recognized, it receives monthly government subventions - mainly in the form of teacher salaries. The government now finances 90 percent of the salaries of teaching staff in non-government schools. This payment scheme is known as the Monthly Pay Order (MPO). To ensure that schools have an incentive to maintain high levels of performance, the subventions were supposed to be linked to performance criteria. However, these criteria were not clarified in the past, and in practice, till recently, once schools attained eligibility to receive the MPO, subsidies flowed regardless of performance.

The medium-term framework is detailed out in the Government’s recently drafted (September 2005) Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP), titled “Unlocking the Potential: National Strategy for Accelerated Poverty Reduction.” The PRSP has benefited from a comprehensive participatory process, including consultations at the regional levels with representations from a wide spectrum of the society. The Government has owned the PRSP process, welcoming the donors’ interest but managing and financing the process almost entirely on its own.

With respect to secondary education, the MoE convened a 51-member expert committee in 2002/03 to recommend areas for reform in the sector. The committee’s recommendations were aimed at establishing a cost-effective, high quality and equitable education system through governance reforms. To flesh out these recommendations, MoE commissioned in-depth studies in selected areas. Based on this information, as well as relevant work undertaken by development partners, MoE finalized its medium-term framework. The development of this framework benefited from an extensive range of consultations/workshops with government officials and other stakeholders at the central, zonal and district levels.

A funding formula which links financing of schools to their performance has been developed and is being rigorously implemented. The MPO system has been revised to clearly link subventions for teachers’ salaries to outcomes on standardized examinations in grades 10 and 12. Poorly performing schools (with less than 40 percent students passing standardized examinations in grades 10 and 12) are being given a two-year period in which to improve their performance, failing which the subventions will be suspended. Given that over 60 percent of the schools would fall into this category, and stopping MPOs for these schools would seriously disrupt the secondary education system, the Government is implementing this order gradually. Simultaneously, the government has developed and is implementing an incentive package for well performing schools.
In the current centralized structure, it is imperative that School Management Committees (SMCs) or College Governing Bodies (GBs) be empowered, as they are the only entities that exist at the local level to monitor schools, attendance of teachers and students, upkeep of physical infrastructure, and performance in examinations. Reforms have been aimed at streamlining the composition and strengthening the role of SMCs/GBs with greater emphasis placed on the monitoring role. District and upazilla advisory committees were also established with the authority to monitor school performance and ensure public disclosure of information (e.g. SSC pass rates, teacher absenteeism, class sizes, etc.) related to school quality.

Parliament has approved setting up a Non-government Teacher Registration and Certification Authority (NTRCA) which would screen and certify a pool of individuals eligible to be hired as teachers in non-government secondary and higher secondary institutions. While SMCs/GBs, on behalf of the communities, would still recruit the teachers, it would be mandatory for them to choose from this pool in order to qualify for government subventions. The first set of examinations for the potential pool of incoming teachers was held in November-December 2005, in which 61,000 applicants participated.

All new teachers will now be hired from the pool of NTRCA certified teachers and a third party evaluation of NTRCA registration and certification process will be completed by 2006.” [Source: World Bank. Program document for a proposed second programmatic education sector development support credit to the People’s Republic of Bangladesh. Report No. 35015-BD, February 2006. DISTRIBUTION RESTRICTED.]

The financing of education

As a share of GDP, government expenditure on education averaged 1.2% during the First Five-year Plan (FYP, 1973-78); 1.3% during the Second (1980-85); 1.8% during the Third (1985-90); and 2.2% during the Fourth FYP (1990-95). In 1994/95, the share of GDP rose to nearly 3%. Despite this steady pattern of growth in allocations, Bangladesh’s public investment in education as a share of GDP is among the lowest in South Asia. Educational expenditure as a share of total government expenditure averaged 9.4% during the First FYP (1973-78). It rose to 13.6% during the Fourth FYP (1990-95), a level of allocation that compares favourably with that of most South Asian countries. The government’s recognition of the importance of primary and mass education is reflected in the share of development expenditure allocated to this education sub-sector, which was 58% of the education sector budget in 1996. The government committed itself to develop and improve the quality of primary education. Subsequent increases in allocation to the sub-sector will ensure that gains already made are sustained, the quality of schooling improved, and basic and mass education are provided nationwide.

The proportion allocated to the primary and mass education sub-sectors from the combined revenue and development budgets remained more or less constant—an average of about 51% during the period from 1990/91 to 1995/96. External resources (loans and grants) supported about 16% of the total educational expenditure during the 1990-95 period. Over 75% of these resources were spent on primary and non-formal education, reflecting both the government and its development partners’ priorities in the sub-sector.

Generally, teachers’ salaries and allowances constitute a major part of the total public expenditure on education. In Bangladesh, classified expenditure data on education
are not available. The available data, however, suggest that per-student public expenditure in government institutions (secondary schools, colleges and madrashas) is significantly higher than in non-government institutions. Per-pupil recurrent expenditure in urban secondary schools greatly exceeds per-pupil expenditure in rural secondary schools.

Although non-government secondary schools are managed by their respective managing committees, the main source of their expenditure is the government salary subsidies for teachers and non-teaching employees (49.2%). The next important sources are tuition fees (24.3%) and other student charges (18.5%). Tuition fees for girls in grades 6-8 in the rural areas have been abolished since January 1990. Consequently, a subsidy for tuition fee exemption for girls is paid by the Government to the concerned non-government secondary schools.

The total public expenditure on education has tended to more than double every five years. Perhaps sustaining this trend will be a difficult task. However, to achieve Universal Primary Education by the year 2000, increase the literacy rate and enhance the quality of education at all levels, additional resources must be created. Based on the present socio-economic scenario, rough estimates of public expenditures on education are on the order of Tk34,523 million by the year 2000/01 and Tk89,542 million by the year 2010/11.

In recent years, a number of educational finance issues have been raised. One of these is the nationalization of non-government secondary schools and colleges. Nationalization benefits two groups—the teachers and the students. The government-teachers and employees have a higher salary and retirement benefits, which are not currently available to teachers and employees of non-government institutions. The students’ benefit comes in the form of the lower tuition fees paid in government institutions. While successive governments have nationalized a number of institutions, there has been no debate on the issue and the Parliament did not have the opportunity to discuss it. The Planning Commission, however, has boldly raised the issue. Even if the nationalization policy is not abandoned, it can be linked with quality-enhancement measures. An alternative to the nationalization policy would be to develop selected existing schools, government or non-government, as institutions which would develop and disseminate sound educational practices and innovations and serve as resource centres for other schools in the thana.

Another important issue in the financing of education is the recovery of costs. Tuition fees in the universities have remained at the 1960 level. In the government schools and colleges, tuition fees are substantially lower than those in the non-government institutions. Mobilizing additional resources for education, however, is unavoidable. In this process, the possibility of enhancing user fees and allowing the setting up of institutions of higher learning in the private sector can be considered.

As a percentage of GNP, expenditure on education during the period 2000-2004 is estimated at about 2.2%, which compares favorably with an average allocation of less than 1% during 1973-1980. The current trend in public expenditure is consistent with the government’s commitments for giving highest priority to the education sector. Allocations for education sector over the last ten years (1997-2004) were around 18% and 12% of the revenue and development budgets respectively. Within the education sector, primary and mass as well as secondary and higher education have been given priority
over post-higher secondary university education. The budget for the fiscal year 2002/03 allocated 37% of total revenue budget for primary and mass education while 51% was allocated for secondary and higher education. Development budget however gave higher allocations to primary and mass education (59%) while 34% was allocated to secondary and higher education. Universities normally receive about 8% of total public sector allocations.

[Source: WDE]

“The Government produces a Five-Year Plan (FYP) that sets out, in considerable detail, its development objectives and strategies for the medium term and makes indicative investment allocations. However, the sectoral strategies contained in the plan document are so broad that they provide a pass-through to almost every project that is presented for consideration. As a result, scarce resources are spread thinly across a large number of projects, many of which have very little public good content. The broad strategies also preclude giving attention to the likely multi-year recurrent cost implications of the large number of investment projects included in the development budget.

Expenditure estimates are largely prepared on an incremental basis from previous years' allocations. This lack of a medium-term strategic framework, combined with extensive political interference in the prioritization of projects within sectors and little participation by line ministries in the planning process, has resulted in a situation where resources are spread thinly across a large number of projects.

It is accepted practice in Bangladesh to spend resources on initiatives that are considered to be of national importance even if these have not been included in the approved budget. Several projects of this nature are then "regularized" ex post through parliamentary approval of a supplementary budget.

Uncoordinated assistance from multiple donors has been an issue in budgetary management in Bangladesh, notwithstanding the existence of a fairly active mechanism for donor coordination in the form of the Local Consultative Group (LCG) and its various thematic and sectoral subgroups. While the share of foreign financing has been declining over time, external resources still finance around 50 percent of Bangladesh's ADP (Annual Development Program). Although donor activity is coordinated by the External Relations Division (ERD) of the Ministry of Finance, and line ministries generally keep ERD informed about donor-related initiatives, the sectors tend to enter into bilateral deals for enclave-type project financing, often not linked to sector strategy, in order to alleviate their budget constraints. From the donors' perspective, Bangladesh's development projects suffer from insufficient scrutiny at the entry level, a slow rate of disbursement, and institutional handicaps at the implementation stage.

The household sector represents the most important source of education financing in Bangladesh. Starting from the primary level, schools collect fees or contributions to cover costs, and households pay supplementary educational materials, private tutoring, and other education-related expenditures. Households' annual expenditures per student equal government expenditures per student at the primary and tertiary levels. At the secondary level, however, private expenditures exceed government spending by a large margin. Secondary education in Bangladesh is not free, and households incur extremely high costs for private tutoring geared toward passing the public secondary school certificate (SSC) and higher secondary certificate examinations.

Three key public policies underpinned Bangladesh's education successes. These include (i) sustained injections of public resources; (ii) effective partnerships with the
private sector for service delivery; and (iii) provision of subsidies to influence the demand for education in favor of the poor and girls.

Bangladesh's public policy and expenditures have consistently emphasized education, and the sharp increases in education spending that occurred during the mid-1990s have been sustained. Education is by far the largest recipient of budgetary funds in combined Annual Development Program (ADP) and recurrent budgets. Total government expenditure on education is currently about 2.2 percent of GDP and 15-16 percent of total government spending.

Most government expenditure on education is directed to basic education-primary and mass education and secondary education. However, during the past decade there has been a significant shift within basic education from the primary to the secondary level. For example, primary education's share of the recurrent education budget decreased from 48.5 percent to 39.5 percent over the course of the 1990s, while secondary education's share increased from 36.8 percent to 48.4 percent. While the pressure to accommodate the increasing demand for continuing education from the cohort that finished primary school contributed to this trend, it also reflected a policy shift to widen the provision of secondary education, particularly to girls.

Public resources cover roughly half of education costs, and since expenditure is less equitably distributed relative to income than is public expenditure, the distribution of total expenditure in education is considerably less equitable than the benefit incidence of public expenditure.

A high share of government education expenditure at all levels is directed to teachers' salaries and salary-related subsidies to non-government institutions. In 1999/2000 salaries and salary-related subsidies accounted for 97 percent of recurrent expenditure at the primary level and 80 percent at the secondary level. Thus little funding is available for other inputs such as teaching materials, supplies, in-service training, and maintenance. Construction is another large item in education budgets. For example, although the number of government and government-supported primary schools has been largely stable for several years (there were 37,710 government primary schools in 1996 and 37,677 in 2000), construction of government-aided schools absorbed 28 percent of the capital budget in 1999-2000.” [Source: World Bank. *Bangladesh. Public Expenditure Review*. Report No. 24370-BD, May 2003.]
BHUTAN

Laws and other basic regulations concerning education

Though the country at the moment has no legal framework or an education act, the government has strong commitment to pursue universal basic education. Education is provided free to all the children even beyond the basic education level. More importantly, education is considered as one of the fundamental needs required to achieve Gross National Happiness, e.g. the framework for the overall development of Bhutan.

[Source: WDE]

“The draft constitution, which will be enacted in 2008, clearly highlights the responsibility of the government vis-à-vis education. Article 9, Principles of State Policy, 15, of the constitution states, “The State shall endeavour to provide education for the purpose of improving and increasing knowledge, values and skills of the entire population with education being directed towards the full development of the human personality.” and 16 has, “The State shall provide free education to all children of school going age to tenth standard and ensure that technical and professional education is made generally available and that higher education is equally accessible to all on basis of merit.” From these clauses it would imply that education will be “right” based, though this principle is applied already (RGOB 2003). Although education is termed to be free, a better clarification may be to describe it as being highly subsidized. The government provides free tuition, textbooks, sports equipment, meals and boarding, and free stationery to the rural schools. However, there are nominal fees, such as Nu. 5 charged for every child enrolling in PP. Parents are also required to contribute Nu. 30 per child annually to the school development fund at the primary level. The school development fund contribution is Nu.100 each for the lower secondary and Nu.200 for the middle and higher secondary school levels.” [Source: Bhutan: EFA Mid-decade Assessment. N.d., presumably 2007.]

Administration and management of the education system

The Ministry of Education (formerly, the Ministry of Health and Education) stands at the head of the educational administration. The Minister is supported by the Ministry Secretariat, which is headed by a Secretary. The Secretariat is organized into the Policy and Planning Division and the Administrative and Finance Division, each headed by a Deputy Secretary. The Bhutan Board of Examinations, School Planning and Building Division (SPBD), Education Media (previously known as the Audio Visual Unit) and the National Commission for UNESCO are also a part of the Secretariat, and are directly accountable to the Secretary. The Internal Audit Unit headed by a Chief Internal Auditor reports directly to the Minister.
There are four Departments under the Ministry of Education; the Department of School Education (DSE), the Department of Adult and Higher Education (DAHE), the Department of Youth, Culture and Sports (DYCS) and the Dzongkha Development Authority (DDA). Each Department is headed by a Director, (Director General in the case of DDA), who is responsible for the implementation of the plans and policies of the department. Each Director is supported by Joint Directors who head the various divisions under the department.

The Department of School Education is organized into 4 Divisions as follows: Curriculum and Professional Services Division, Education Monitoring & Support Service Division, Programme Division and Teacher Development Division. The Programme Division administers the following programmes: School Information Technology, Special Education, Early Childhood and Care Development (ECCD), School Agriculture, School Nutrition and Feeding and Private Schools development. A School Liaison and Coordination Unit also support the Department. The Department of Adult and Higher Education is also organized into the Tertiary Education Division, Scholarship Division and Non-Formal and Continuing Education Division. The Department of Youth, Culture and Sports is organized into the Career Education and Counselling Division, Games and Sports Division and Scouts and Culture Division. The Dzongkha Development Authority (DDA) is organized into the Literacy Promotion Division and the Research and Development Division.

The central level is responsible for the content and standards of all educational levels within the general education system, and for providing comprehensive supervision and guidance at the primary and secondary levels. It is also charged with improving the designs of schools, setting up standards for physical facilities, distributing essential supplies such as stationery, textbooks, sports equipment and other teaching materials to the schools, changing the school curriculum and organization, and providing support to the Dzongkhags in developing their schooling infrastructure. Teacher recruitment, pre-service and in-service teacher training in selected areas, initial deployment, inter-Dzongkhag transfers, promotions and termination of services are also responsibilities of the central division. In addition, the central level co-ordinates resource mobilization and distribution with the Ministry of Finance and reviews and approves plans of the Dzongkhags. It also provides assistance to the Dzongkhags and institutes in implementing national policies and plans.

The tradition of community contribution existed well before the advent of modernization when extensive use of community labour was used for building and maintaining dzongs, religious edifices and service facilities. During the last ten years, the government has also made concerted efforts to shift the focus of decision-making from a centralized system to a more active community participation system. As a result, more than 150 schools have been constructed by communities over the last decade, on their own initiative and mainly using local resources. In addition, more parents are now involved in the management of schools.

To facilitate community participation, every school has a School Management Board. The members of the Board consist of the gup (head of Gewog—block or village headman), the chimi (people’s representative in the National Assembly), the headmaster, representatives of parents and members of the Block Development Committee (Gewog
The Board is responsible for all aspects of management of the school, including mobilizing community participation.

The concept of community participation has also extended to the NFE programme. All NFE centres are managed by the NFE committee consisting of the school headteacher and village elders under the chairmanship of the gup, who is directly responsible for planning and management of literacy programmes in the community.

Bhutan’s five-year planning processes are initiated with policy directives and guidelines provided by the Planning Commission. The guidelines are the result of a situation analysis carried out by the government including the line ministries. Policy directives filter to the grass-root level through the District Development Committee (Dzongkhag Yargye Tshochug—DYT) and the GYT, which constitute two important development fora for the people. These fora also discuss activities proposed by communities and local authorities. Therefore, the establishment of a school or a NFE centre in a village has to be formally approved at the Gewog (block) level before it is submitted for approval at the Dzongkhag level, where the authority has to prioritize the programmes and budget the proposals for further submission to the Division of Education or the Planning Commission.

The Bhutan Board of Examinations is responsible for organizing and monitoring national examinations, i.e. the All Bhutan Primary Certificate Examination at the end of Grade VI and the examinations at the end of the basic education programme (Grade VIII) and at the end of Grade X. The latter examination is conducted jointly with the Council for Indian School Certificate Examinations in Delhi.

The Information, Education and Communication for Health Bureau was created in 1992, primarily for educating the public on basic health, hygiene, nutrition and family planning. The Bureau publishes pamphlets, leaflets and flip charts for distribution to the public. It also organizes health festivals, exhibitions and plays to enhance awareness.

The responsibility for general education, technical education and higher education is now divided between the Ministry of Education, the recently established Ministry of Labour and Human Resources and the Royal University of Bhutan.

Bhutan has a national curriculum. The Curriculum and Professional Support Division carries out curriculum related functions. Presently a review and restructuring of the curriculum—especially English language and mathematics—is in progress. Through this exercise the Ministry hopes to make the curriculum more responsive to the social and economic environment, including a greater role in information communication technology.

A greater focus is being provided to the reading programme and linking this to the development of language skills among students. Continuous assessment is being introduced as part of teaching-learning program in schools through series of in-service workshops for teachers and also is integrated into the pre service teacher training. Piloting of resource centers for disseminating new ideas as well as for accessing education resources for curriculum implementation has been successfully completed and is being expanded. Environment and Value Education, counseling and youth related issues such as substance abuse and reproductive health are being integrated within the formal school
curriculum and as extra-curricular activities. Examination systems are being reviewed and standardized tests are being piloted to provide meaningful feedback on the quality of education to the educators and the general public. A major policy shift in recent times is to make secondary education more relevant by introducing a basic skills training programme in the form of clubs and introducing career counselling to orient youth to the world of work.

With a purpose to produce citizens with spiritual and social values, the concept of all round and wholesome education has been an established philosophy of education in Bhutan. The enhancement of formal education curriculum with the introduction of the basic skills development programme and youth programmes has far reaching impact. The incorporation of basic knowledge on health, nutrition, sanitation and reproductive health in the school curriculum not only improves the personal hygiene and health of the students but sensitized students on the important emerging issues such as HIV and AIDS.

For early childhood care and development, there exist no special programmes and facilities, except for nursery education services provided by a few private schools. However, the government has addressed the issue through sectoral inputs in the areas of health, nutrition and education. Nurseries and day-care centres are now being established by the private sector in urban areas. Programmes are now underway to include this dimension in NFE courses so that parents are better prepared to undertake this task. Pre-primary education is a formal, one-year programme offered in primary and community schools and it is considered as being part of primary education. Children are admitted into the pre-primary class (PP) at the age of 6.

While parental contribution for establishing new primary schools has increased over the past decade, the costs of teacher salaries, materials, stationery and textbooks continue to be largely borne by the government. This has led the Division of Education to look closely at the cost effectiveness of the system and to review its free education policy, which was originated at a time when few students were enrolled and when most parents did not have the capacity to financially contribute to education. With the rapid expansion at the primary level and the foreseen growth at the other levels of education, it has become difficult to sustain the system. Therefore, since 1994 the provision of free stationery has been removed from primary schools located in urban areas. Similarly, boarding places of primary and junior high schools (Grade VI and below) have been phased out and are available only for children qualified to continue to higher grades and where there are no such schooling facilities near homes. However, such initiatives are being implemented cautiously and are closely monitored to ensure that this does not affect the enrolment of any particular groups of population.

Before the advent of the modern education system, Bhutan had a well established monastic education system dating back to the eighth century. These schools still play an important role in the Kingdom’s social and religious life and are instrumental in giving access to an alternative form of education. While the institution of the modern education system has pushed this programme to the background, it is still crucial in providing education to those who opt to take up monastic and ecclesiastic calling. In the Bhutanese context, such decisions are made quite early in life and a significant proportion of the population continue to be beneficiary of this form of education. It was estimated that in 1990, at least 15,000 monks and gomchens (lay monks) were enrolled in monastic schools. Although no direct investments were made for this programme, the government
nevertheless recognized the importance of this form of education in complementing the efforts of the modern education system.

There are numerous types of programmes provided by different monastic institutions. The most important is the programme which is directly administered by the Central Monastic Body. While Tashi-Chhodzong remains the headquarters, this monastic order commands similar institutions in all the twenty Dzongs. These institutions also provide patronage to numerous Gomdeys (Lay monk’s monasteries), Drubdeys (Meditation centres), Shedras (School for language and arts), Lobdras (Monastic schools) and nunneries. It is estimated that enrolment in these institutions amounts to 5,289 students.

A less well-organized institution but nevertheless covering a wider expanse of the country are the Goenpas (village temples) which also may house a respected Lama and his lay followers who study to become lay-practitioners of religion. The record of the Special Commission for Cultural Affairs indicate that there are about 2,000 monasteries and temples spread throughout the country. Even assuming a modest number of five gomchens in these places, one would get to a total of 10,000 throughout the country. In addition, there are nunneries with an estimated enrolment of 500 nuns.

A significant effort has also been made to enhance the knowledge and skills of teachers through in-service training programmes. A comprehensive system of updating and keeping teachers abreast about the changes in curriculum and development issues has been instituted at the national and school levels. A system for the Dzongkhag level was also tried out for two years, but this was abandoned due to difficulties for Dzongkhags to mobilize human and financial resources. Each year, over 1,000 teachers (over half of the total teaching force) are engaged in national workshops. These workshops are continued at the school level in the form of School-Based In-Service Programmes (SBIP), during which the new methods and information are disseminated to the other teachers. SBIP are also an important forum where teachers can share experiences with their colleagues.

Professional support to schools and teachers is another important component which is crucial for improving the teaching/learning processes in the schools. The Dzongkhag Education Officers (DEOs) and the School Inspectors have always been responsible for providing such crucial support. However, because of the lack of adequate staff, this has been one of the most difficult and perhaps neglected aspects of the educational programme in Bhutan. For example, a DEO does not even have an assistant to help him/her in his/her tasks, which also include planning, administration as well as looking after new school construction programmes. Similarly, there are only ten officers in charge of the Inspectorate.

A far reaching decision made recently in this regard has been to change the image of the Inspectors and their title to Education Monitoring Officers (EMOs). In line with this, EMOs also receive help from qualified teachers and professionals who are appointed as ‘focal persons to assist in their work. In 1998, there were seven focal persons while in 1999 this has been increased to twenty-one.

[Source: WDE]

“While no systematic research has been undertaken, the MOE’s own assessment of students’ performance in public examinations indicates a decline in learning outcomes over recent years. This is supported by informal feedback from parents who point to insufficient competency levels of school leavers, particularly in languages and
mathematics. Employers are also questioning the responsiveness of secondary and higher education to labor market demands. According to a recently completed private sector survey, employers consider the lack of skilled labor as one of their biggest business problems. A recent assessment of the institutional capacity of the DOE to implement the 9th Plan highlighted a number of constraints and one bottleneck. The constraints are mostly in the areas of division of labor, leadership and management, and work practices, while the bottleneck is inadequate human resources. Human resource development in the DOE, which underpins effective management structures and processes, has unfortunately not kept pace with the rapid expansion of the education system.

Recognizing this, the Government made a policy decision to shift responsibility for school management from the center to dzongkhag and geog (sub-district block) administrations. A human resource development (HRD) master plan has been developed to build the capacity for a more decentralized management system. Implementation of the HRD plan will, however, take time and considerable effort before staff turnover and skill gaps at the central ministry and dzongkhag education offices can be addressed in a more systematic manner. Until this happens, the center’s capacity for policy formulation, program planning, and monitoring and evaluation of education outcomes, will remain constrained, as will be the capacity at the dzongkhag and geog levels to take on local school development and management responsibilities.

To ensure the stock of Bhutanese teachers needed for expansion of both primary and secondary education, the Government has increased teacher training places in the National Institutes of Education (NIE), and raised salaries to make teaching more competitive with other public service jobs. While teacher absenteeism and poor quality at entry are generally not problems in Bhutan, rural schools suffer from a shortage of qualified teachers. To address this concern, the Government has begun to provide incentives to attract qualified teachers to rural areas in the form of better staff housing, faster promotion, and more in-service training opportunities. Until sufficient numbers of Bhutanese teachers have been trained, the Government will continue to contract teachers externally from India.

A new Ministry of Labour and Human Resources has been established to give specific attention to the mismatch between the supply of school leavers and demand by employers for specific skills. This ministry currently provides counseling and career information to students, and has been negotiating with employers, ways to increase job opportunities for school leavers.

Most of the provision of secondary and higher education remains in the public sector. Less that one percent of students at the junior high and the high school level are enrolled in private schools. However at the higher secondary level (grades 11-12) there has been a substantial growth in the private sector - close to 30 percent of total enrollment is in private institutions and four such institutions cater to the needs of individuals whose grades are too low for entry to government schools, and who can afford to pay the fees. There are no full-time private tertiary institutions, although some short courses are offered in areas that are not capital intensive, e.g., computer training.” [Source: World Bank. Project appraisal document for a proposed credit to the Kingdom of Bhutan for an Education Development Project. Report No. 25802-BHU, June 2003. FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY.]

“The responsibility for the administration of education in Bhutan is shared by several organizations: the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Labor and Human Resources, the Royal University of Bhutan, the Dzongkhags and the Gewogs. The central monastic
body and independent monasteries are responsible for the administration of the monastic education. The Ministry of Education is responsible for policy, planning, curriculum development and administration of Basic (Primary up to Middle Secondary), Higher Secondary and Continuing Education, including the non-formal education. For tertiary education the Ministry of Education is responsible for selecting students for international scholarships, for designing and implementing Higher Education policy and for liaising with the Royal University of Bhutan.

As a result of decentralization, Dzongkhags and Gewogs are now entrusted with a range of responsibilities for Basic, Higher Secondary and continuing education, mainly focusing on school construction and maintenance, and the implementation of national policies. To fulfill these responsibilities every Dzongkhag employs Dzongkhag Education Officers (DEOs), supported by one or two assistant DEOs. They report to the Dzongda and to the Ministry of Education. The Ministry of Labor and Human Resources is responsible for vocational training after class X, while the Royal University of Bhutan (RUB) is responsible for all tertiary education after class XII.

In 2006, the Ministry of Education piloted a Continuing Education programme in one of the private schools in the capital, Thimphu. This programme has now been extended to Paro and Phuntsholing. The classes are held in private schools that also provide the teachers and get paid a sum of Nu.8,500 per student per annum as tuition fees, while the books are supplied free by the Ministry of Education. Adults who have missed out on class X and XII now have the opportunity to finish their schooling under this programme. Starting with classes IX and XI, the programme prepares students for classes X and XII over a two year period. Although classes are held in the evenings and at week ends, a minimum attendance rate has to be met in order for students to be eligible to sit for the examination set by the government. Most of the students in the pilot programme have been in-service people.

Since the introduction of internet into the country in 1999, the use of ICT has seen a phenomenal growth among the various organizations in the country. New technologies have offered vast opportunities both as educational tools and as a means to knowledge and learning. Therefore, all Higher and Middle Secondary Schools have a computer laboratory with a minimum of 15 to 20 computers each. In addition, some of the Lower Secondary Schools and Community and Primary Schools have also been supplied with computers. Teachers and students who finish the Basic Education (class X) are expected to be IT literate. Free internet access has been given to all schools in the week ends and 50 per cent discount for the rest of the week.

Since 2003, Bhutan has established the Royal University of Bhutan, with nine publicly funded tertiary educational institutes accredited to it. Currently, there are 3,553 full time students (35 per cent females) and 521 part-time students (24 per cent females) studying at the different institutes.

An ECCD section has been established under the Department of School Education, Ministry of Education, and currently has one external advisor-cum-trainer and two national staff. A draft ECCD policy and guidelines was formulated in 2003 and has been incorporated into the Guidelines for Establishment of Private Schools in Bhutan. This paper highlights the minimum facilities required for Day Care Centres and the criteria and procedures for starting one, including class room size, fees, teachers and management board etc. A total of 9 licenses have been issued for the establishment of private Day Care Centres since 2005 but three have closed down due to non-availability of children. The ones closed down were located in Thimphu, Paro and Haa. There were 245 community primary schools in 2006, compared to 151 in 2000, a 62 per cent increase in numbers. As new frontiers are opened for education, the need for
community schools has become imperative although the increase in number may not necessarily signify an increase in enrolment, as sometimes community schools are upgraded and merged with lower secondary schools with boarding facilities. However, in this case, the number of students enrolled in community schools has gone from 17,335 in 2000 to 29,132 students in 2006. This represents about 28 per cent of the primary student body or about 20 per cent of the student population up to higher secondary level.

In 2000 there were 8 private schools with 1,460 primary students enrolled, but by 2006 the numbers have increased to 16 private schools with 5,421 students.

In 2000 there were 3,045 teachers, including those in private schools and government institutes and this number had doubled to 6,094 in 2006. Furthermore, although the number of non-national teachers had gone up from 577 in 2000 to 613 in 2006, the percentage had gone down, from 19 to 12 per cent respectively.

When we examine the qualifications of teachers between 2000 and 2006, there is a significant difference in numbers and their qualifications. The number of Masters Degree holders had increased by 92 per cent between 2000 and 2006, although the number of trained teachers had gone down by 14 per cent. This is attributable to the high number of non-national teachers with Masters degrees, who numbered 315 (85 per cent) but did not have a teaching certificate. There is a phenomenal increase in the number of teachers holding Bachelors degrees, from 452 in 2000 to 1,789 in 2006 and in addition, the percentage of trained teachers had increased from 17 per cent to 74 by 2006. The current high percentage of trained teachers (92 per cent) is certainly remarkable considering the overall increased number of teachers.

While schools have been given greater flexibility, in order to maintain the uniformity of standard and quality, examination papers are still being set by the Bhutan Board of Examinations. In the past, examinations for classes VI and VIII were set and assessments done by the Bhutan Board of Examinations. Then class V1 was delegated to the individual schools. Until 2005, the class VIII examination was conducted centrally but with the increasing of basic education to class X the class V111 examinations are now conducted in the same manner as class VI. [Source: Bhutan: EFA Mid-decade Assessment. N.d., presumably 2007.]

The financing of education

Between 1992 and 1997, and during the Seventh Plan, the government allocated 1,738.87 million Ngultrum (NU) for the education sector. The estimated expenditure at the end of the Plan was recorded as NU1,799 million for the whole education sector, out of which NU559 million was spent on developmental projects (capital). Out of capital works, it was estimated that NU248 million, or 44% of the total, was spent on development of infrastructure related to primary education. On average, therefore, the government spent NU50 million per year on capital development programmes for primary education. Furthermore, annual costs per child at the primary education level in the period 1991–98 range form NU2,500 to 2,800. Out of this, 72% is spent on teachers salaries and related expenses, 9% on books, stationery and other learning materials. Food represents about 8% of the expenditure, while maintenance of infrastructure and in-service teacher training absorbs about 2%.

It is estimated that the government spent NU126 million on primary education in 1991. This has doubled to NU277 million in 1998. However, as a percentage to the total
current expenditure on education, the share of primary education saw a gradual decline from 67% in 1991 to 61% in 1998. A reliable assessment of community contribution is not available, but it is generally assumed that there has been an increase in the level of contributions over the last decade.

With respect to the NFE programme, the major costs incurred during the period 1992–98 have been related to development of materials and teacher training. Very little costs have been incurred on capital development, as classes are mostly conducted in existing formal schools. Teachers’ remuneration has also been minimal as the NFE programme utilizes the services of the formal school teachers on very nominal charges. Total expenditure incurred on the NFE programme is estimated at NU2 million per year.

The present accounting system makes it difficult to provide a clear cut statement of expenditure, particularly when many of these activities cut across sectors such as health, agriculture, communication, etc. This is also complicated by the fact that even within the education sector the budget may be allocated by institutions and not by programmes.

Although the government allocates the highest budget to the social sector (health and education), in each development plan period funds are insufficient to address problems such as teacher shortage, lack of facilities and maintaining the quality of education. Hence, during the last decades almost the entire capital development component of the budget—which covers construction of facilities and enhancing the school environment in terms of providing furniture and equipment and developing libraries, science laboratories and sports fields—has been met through international cooperation. The need for funds however far outstrips the volume of aid from bilateral and multilateral partners. Nevertheless, it is to be noted that without their support, Bhutan would face serious constraints in providing quality education to all.

Major partners in education development since 1990 include UNICEF, the World Bank, the Governments of India and Switzerland, the United Nations Capital Development Fund, the Asian Development Bank and the World Food Programme. Other organizations that are supporting education development through smaller projects are UNDP, UNFPA, UNESCO, and the Governments of the Netherlands, Denmark, Canada and Japan.

A study by the Division of Education (1994) indicates that community inputs are proportionately greater in community schools than in primary and junior high schools. They are also proportionately greater in rural than in urban schools. The report also highlighted that community interactions are not necessarily confined to the above lists but are used in some cases to recruit temporary teachers. In addition, many schools collect funds in order to organize cultural and social activities not covered by the government’s regular budget.

The proportion of the education budget within the Government budget during the last nine Five-Year Plans has continued to be around 10%, even in the face of other emerging priorities and competing demand from other areas.

[Source: WDE]
In view of the substantial needs of the sector, the Government has earmarked 15% of the 9th Plan budget to education. This will enable education spending to increase by 50% in real terms by 2008-09, demonstrating the Government's continued commitment to a sector that is considered to be critical for improving national productivity and the quality of life of the Bhutanese people. In addition to domestic resources, the Government has mobilized significant support from its main development partners (India, Switzerland, Denmark, Japan, Canada, UNICEF, IDA) to implement a sector-wide program reflecting Plan priorities. With rapid growth in Gross Domestic Product (GDP), the total government budget is expected to increase by about 50% between 2002/03 and 2002-09, from US$229 million in 2002-03 to US$343 million in 2008-09. Education is a priority for the government. As a result of the increase in overall government budget, the allocation for education, which is projected to be around 15% of government expenditure as compared to 13.6% currently, is expected to increase by approximately 65% over the period 2002/3-2008/9, from US$31.0 million to US$51.0 million. Recurrent expenditures are estimated at around 65% of total education expenditures, or in the magnitude of about US$33.5 million in 2008/9.” [Source: World Bank. Project appraisal document for a proposed credit to the Kingdom of Bhutan for an Education Development Project. Report No. 25802-BHU, June 2003. FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY.]

In the current Ninth Plan period, the budget of Nu.10, 209.4 million for the education sector was further divided between the centre, Dzongkhags and Geogs. Out of this outlay, 48 per cent was earmarked for capital expenditure. During the Ninth Plan period, the government has placed a lot of emphasis on participatory planning, with the Geog as the lowest administrative unit. In addition to the Geog Yargye Tshogchung (GYT, Block Development Council) at the block level, there is also the Dzongkhag Yargye Tshogdue (DYT, District Development Council) at the district level, and both are important tiers in the decision making process of development in Bhutan. Although the allocations show that as much as 72 per cent of the education budget went to the Dzongkhags and 3 per cent to the Geogs, there is more of an administrative decentralization than an actual devolution of power. There were no discretionary funds or block grants allocated to the Dzongkhag or Geogs, although the actual needs were articulated by the people at the grass roots. The planning and priorities were still set by the central agencies in conjunction with the Planning Commission. The major portion of the budget was allocated for secondary schools (59.9 per cent) and primary schools (15.7 per cent), which is not surprising as over 50 large secondary schools and 137 new community primary schools were to be constructed, in addition to others being upgraded.” [Source: Bhutan: EFA Mid-decade Assessment. N.d., presumably 2007.]
**INDIA**

**Laws and other basic regulations concerning education**

India’s commitment to the spread of knowledge and freedom of thought among all citizens is reflected in its Constitution, promulgated in January 1950. The Directive Principle contained in Article 45 ensures that “the State shall endeavour to provide within a period of ten years from the commencement of this Constitution, for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of fourteen years.” Article 29 (1) ensures that any citizen having a distinct language, script or culture will have the right to conserve it. Article 350-A stipulates that “it shall be the endeavour of every state and of every local authority within the state to provide adequate facilities for instruction in the mother tongue at the primary stage of education to children belonging to linguistic minority groups.” Moreover, special care of the economic and educational interests of the underprivileged sections—in particular the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes—is a declared obligation of the State under Article 46. Article 29(2) ensures that no citizen shall be denied admission into any educational institution maintained by the State or the receipt of aid from State funds on grounds of religion, race, caste, or language. The expression “the State” includes the Government and Parliament of India, the government and the legislature of each of the states and all local or other authorities within the territory of India or under the control of the Government of India.

In accordance with the principles contained in the Constitution, the Government has to provide free and compulsory education for all children in the age group 6-14 years.

One of the major developments during the 1990s has been the decisive step to decentralize the management of education through two Constitutional amendments made in 1993. They mandate states to enact laws devolving powers to elected bodies at urban, district and village levels for developmental administration.

The eighty-sixth **Constitutional Amendment Act** of December 2002 has made elementary education a fundamental right for all children in the age group of 6-14 years.

**Administration and management of the education system**

The Government in India is federal in character. Although under the Constitution, the central and the state governments have joint responsibility for education, it is essentially treated as a state matter, except in some well-defined areas. The responsibility of the central government is for educational planning and policy, for co-ordination and maintenance of standards in higher and technical education, for promotion of research and training relating to school education, adult education, promotion of languages, and so on. The Ministry of Human Resource Development, which comprises the Department of Education, has the principal responsibility in respect of education.
For the purpose of governance, India is divided into thirty-two States and Union Territories, the latter being administered under the direct control of the central government. A major challenge in national planning is to reconcile the planning priorities of states with the national plan frame. The National Development Council imparts a national character to the entire process of planning. In the education sector, the Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE) plays a leading role in the development and monitoring of policies and programmes. In some of the States, local self-government bodies—panchayati raj institutions in rural areas and municipalities in urban areas—have been associated with school education in order to make the system of administration sensitive to local conditions as well as to facilitate the participation of the community.

The principle of decentralization has been extended to the management of primary education and Village Education Committees (VEC) have been set up in many parts of the country. These Committees are responsible for the enrolment and retention of children in schools; they supervise the functioning of schools, check teachers’ absenteeism and mobilize additional resources. Attempts have been made to ensure communities’ participation not only in the preparation of educational plans, but also in the administration of education including the mobilization of additional resources.

District Boards of Education (DBE) plan and administer education at the district level. District plans have been developed to increase infrastructural facilities, develop instructional material, train teachers, etc.

At the state level, it is usually the State Department of Education that administers secondary education. At the national level, the Kendriya Vidyalaya Sangathan, New Delhi, runs the Kendriya Vidyalayas (central schools) while the Navodaya Vidyalaya Samiti, New Delhi, runs the Navodaya Vidyalayas (i.e. schools for talented rural children).

The Central Board of Secondary Education (CBSE), New Delhi, functions under the overall supervision of the Department of Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India. It deals with activities related to affiliation, academic matters and examinations, and develops innovations and reforms to be introduced at the secondary and higher secondary levels in order to bring education at par with international standards. There are more than 4,300 schools affiliated to the Board. There are Boards of Secondary Education in each state as well.

At the higher education level, the following bodies determine and maintain standards and funding at the national level: the University Grants Commission, the All India Council for Technical Education, the Medical Council of India, the Indian Council of Agricultural Research, the Veterinary Council of India, and the National Council for Teacher Education. Some states also have Higher Education Councils, as well as senior government functionaries (Secretaries) for higher education at the state government level. These bodies are in charge of the higher education administration within the state. Concerning the University Grants Commission (UGC), “although its principal function is to co-ordinate the development of higher education and to ensure maintenance of standards, over the years it has become the central government’s arm for assessing the financial needs of universities and colleges and disbursing funds to them.”
The administration of technical education is mainly ensured by the All India Council for Technical Education (AICTE). Set up as an advisory body in 1945, it was given a statutory status through an Act of Parliament in 1987, which came into effect in March 1988. The main functions of the statutory AICTE include: proper planning and co-ordinated development of technical education in the country; qualitative improvement at all levels in relation to planned growth; and regulation and maintenance of norms and standards. The AICTE performs its statutory functions through seven Regional Committees, All India Boards of Studies and various innovative schemes and programmes.

The National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) was established as an autonomous institution in 1961. One of its major objectives was the promotion of qualitative improvements in school education and teacher education. The NCERT conducts research, development and training programmes and also plays a role in dissemination of information through its constituents: the National Institute of Education, New Delhi; the Central Institute of Educational Technology, New Delhi; four Regional Institutes of Education, located at Ajmer, Bhopal, Bhubaneswar and Mysore; the Central Institute of Vocational Education, Bhopal; and field offices in major states. At the state level, functions similar to those of the NCERT are performed by the SCERT.

The NCERT develops the curricula, syllabi and textbooks for schools and has provided invaluable assistance in the implementation of the District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) being conducted in several states. The NCERT also maintains close links with state-level education authorities, provides important inputs to the school system and co-ordinates activities related to UNICEF and UNESCO assisted projects.

The Central Institute of Vocational Education (CIVE) was set up in Bhopal, Madhya Pradesh on 1 July 1993 to serve as the top research and development institute for vocational education in the country. The CIVE’s main concerns and current activities focus on: the review and standardization of curriculum textbooks and instructional materials; teacher training programmes; and inter-state collaboration to facilitate and share information and experiences related to vocational education.

The National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA) is the major institution concerned with educational planning and administration. Set up as an autonomous body by the Government of India, NIEPA conducts research, organizes training, provides consultancy services, and disseminates relevant information on innovations, changes and developments in the areas of planning and management. Many states are also in the process of creating State Institutes of Educational Management and Training (SIEMT) to assist state-level educational planning and training of educational planners and administrators.

The National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) was established in May 1973 by a Government resolution to advise central and state governments on all matters pertaining to teacher education. Until 1993, the NCTE’s status and role have been purely advisory as it did not have statutory powers to enforce its guidelines. As per the provisions laid down in the 1986 NPE and in the Programme of Action for its implementation, the NCTE was conferred statutory status by a Parliamentary Act in 1993, with effect from May 1995. The Act provides for establishment of the NCTE with a view to achieving planned and co-ordinated development of the teacher education system.
throughout the country, as well as regulation and proper maintenance of norms and standards.

The National Policy on Education stipulated that the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) would carry out reviews of the curriculum every five years. It also stipulated that appraisals at short intervals will also be made to ascertain the progress of implementation and the trends emerging from time to time. While there is a common structure of school education throughout the country, there is variation in the division of the first ten years of schooling into different stages. While the core areas of the curriculum are common, there is sufficient flexibility to include local specificity worked out for transaction at the school level.

Keeping the learner at the centre of the educational process, the curriculum has to respond to the demands made by family, culture, economy and polity. Hence, the exercise of developing a curriculum framework and the selection of knowledge, subject areas and subject matter needs widespread consultation and transparency in the decision-making process. The National Curriculum Framework made available by the NCERT in 2000 was based upon a discussion document highlighting the issues and questions concerning the formulation of the framework. The document was widely discussed with various stakeholders and state-level educational policy makers, administrators and teacher associations. There was also widespread debate in the media.

The revised curriculum framework reaffirmed most of the objectives of school education indicated in the previous framework. It also introduced fresh concerns like the minimum levels of learning, value education, use of communication and information technology, and the management and accountability of the system. An effort has been made to integrate subject areas under the scheme of study; such integration is also required to make education life-skill oriented rather than knowledge oriented.

The National Curriculum Framework 2005 recognizes the primacy of children’s experiences and their active involvement in the process of learning. Learning experiences at school should pave the way for construction of knowledge and fostering creativity and become a source of joy, not stress. Concerns and issues pertaining to environment, peace oriented values, gender, SC & ST and minorities must inform various subjects and school experiences. The examination system seeks a shift from content-based testing to problem solving and competency-based assessment. The Syllabus Committees setup for various stages of school education involving scholars, subject experts, teachers and NCERT faculty held several meetings and deliberated on the ideas reflected in the NCF and formulated the syllabi. A Monitoring Committee appointed by the Ministry of Human Resource Development, as per the recommendations of the CABE, approved the new syllabi in its meeting held in October 2005.

Pre-primary education caters to 5-year-olds and it is not compulsory. Pre-primary schools are mainly run by state governments, municipal corporations and other governmental and non-governmental agencies. The 1986 National Policy on Education defined the objective of early childhood care and education (ECCE) as being the total development of children in the age group 0-6 years, and added that special attention must be paid to children from underprivileged groups and those who were first generation learners. In a country like India, where inequalities are so extreme that thousands of children require—in addition to educational facilities and exposure to a learning environment—support in terms of health care and nutritional inputs, ECCE has evolved as a programme which seeks to provide such a holistic service. The ECCE programme is
designed to further the three objectives of: (a) preparing children for primary school; (b) providing a support service for girls in Universal Primary Education (UPE); and (c) acting as a support service for working women of low-income groups.

This implies addressing different aspects such as cognitive development, language development, social and emotional development, physical and motor development, development of creativity and aesthetic appreciation, development of values related to personal, social and cultural life, scientific ways of thinking and inculcation of healthy habits. The activities, experiences and environment necessary for promoting the development in all the above areas constitute the core of an ECCE curriculum. The curriculum is envisaged in three sub-stages: early stimulation for children under 3 years, largely through parental involvement and education in a relatively unstructured mode; the organized center based play and development-oriented curriculum for the 3-5-year-olds; and the school readiness curriculum which overlaps for the 4-6 year olds and includes reading and writing readiness and number readiness, as a preparation for primary schooling.

This developmentally appropriate thrust in the curriculum has been reiterated all the way back from the National Curriculum Framework for Elementary and Secondary Education (NCFESE 1988) through the National Curriculum Framework (2000) and now the more recent National Curriculum Framework (2005). This framework, in addition, views education of child from ECCE to grade 2 along a continuum and emphasizes continuity of approach and methodology. All curriculum frameworks discourage formal teaching as well as formal evaluation of children at ECCE stage. The National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) has over the years published several guidebooks and training manuals for ECCE to be used by the states and agencies implementing ECCE.

The content of ECCE programmes extends beyond health care and nutritional inputs to encompass structured and unstructured play activities, and to provide materials and learning experiences to promote the social, emotional, mental, physical and aesthetic development of children. There is also an effort to establish effective linkages between ECCE and other development programmes to ensure a convergence of services. These include the Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS), balwadis/anganwadis or day-care centres, schemes which are run by governmental and non-governmental organizations, and pre-primary schools managed by local organizations and state governments.

Given the integrated nature of ECCE, the major responsibility for this stage of child development rests with Ministry of Women and Child Development (MWCD). Various other ministries like Ministry of Health and Family Welfare (MH&FW), Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD), Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment (MSJ&E), are also involved in one way or other in provisioning of ECCE services, each bearing their respective sectoral responsibility for particular age group of children in the delivery of nutritional, health and educational components. Given this multi-sectoral arrangement and the fact that ECE is acknowledged as the first step in the education ladder, the Department of Education had also launched several initiatives dovetailed to its primary education programmes. The extent of coordination between Department of Education and the MWCD is evident from several initiatives like synchronizing the timings of the ICDS centers with primary schools so as to free the girl children from the burden of sibling care and enable them to attend primary schools, relocating the ICDS centers in the primary school premises as far as possible, introducing the component of school readiness as initial part of primary education curriculum, continuing with play based methodology in grade 1 and 2 etc.
Recently, the total responsibility of ECCE has been shifted from the Department of Education within MHRD to the newly created Ministry of Women and Child Development. This has been possibly done due to the fact that the largest programme of ECCE, the ICDS, is being implemented by this Ministry. The ICDS programme is being expanded both quantitatively as well as qualitatively. By transferring the ECE component to this Ministry, it is hoped that the coverage will expand and more children would be able to receive the care and education envisaged under the ICDS programme.

Beginning with 33 projects in 1975, ICDS has expanded to 6,113 sanctioned projects in all 35 States/Union Territories in the country. Each project covers a block (the smallest administrative unit). Of these, 5,635 are currently operational with 744,887 Anganwadi Centers (ECCE centers) on September 2005. Though the programme mainly covers rural and tribal population, it is also operational in urban areas through 523 ICDS projects to cater to the population living in slums and underdeveloped areas. The ICDS offers a package of health, nutrition and preschool education services to children, from prenatal stage to the age of 6 years and to pregnant and lactating mothers, following a life cycle approach. Some ICDS centers, which are typically for 3-5-year-olds for preschool education, have been extended to include crèches for the younger children. But the number of these crèches is insignificant.

Textbooks remain the principal instructional material in the classroom. Thus, they assume great importance, especially in contexts where, for most students, they are often the only reading material available. Therefore, efforts have been made to ensure widespread availability of this critical educational input. Given that the Indian education system enrolls more than 100 million students in primary schools alone, it is significant that virtually all primary students have textbooks, with most receiving them in a timely manner, and at fairly affordable prices (the average price of a primary textbook is about Rs. 8 or about US$ 0.25).

Textbook publishing is almost entirely in the hands of state agencies. The private sector also participates in varying degrees. In most states, it is the SCERT that is responsible for textbook development, with a Textbook Corporation or a Textbook Bureau that actually publishes them. Typically, states publish textbooks for all the subjects, in all the relevant languages. Some states publish hundreds of titles, including books in more than ten languages. It is in the printing and distribution aspects that the private sector is more involved, as in the case of states such as Uttar Pradesh, Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu. Some states, such as Madhya Pradesh, have constituted regional depots and maintain computerized inventory control to ensure efficient distribution of textbooks.

With the introduction of the Minimum Levels of Learning (MLL), the focus has shifted from information-based textbooks to competency-based ones. A number of states are developing new MLL-oriented textbooks and are preparing textbooks that are learner-friendly and promote child-centered, activity-based learning. One significant development is the introduction of trials, whereby experimental textbooks are field-tested before being introduced on a large scale.

Libraries are available in only one-fourth of primary schools in comparison to more than 90% of secondary and higher secondary schools. Many states implementing basic education projects (e.g. Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, Assam) have developed and disseminated supplementary reading material, in addition to launching projects to initiate classroom libraries. Facilities in private schools are better and teachers have greater access to libraries than in government schools. Effective utilization of teaching and learning resources, however, remains limited to a small number of schools.
Teacher education institutions follow the quota policy of the Government of India with regard to the disadvantaged sections of society, such as SCs, STs and Other Backward Classes (OBCs). At present, 15% of posts in education departments and teacher education institutions are reserved for candidates belonging to the SCs. Likewise, 7.5% of posts are reserved for candidates belonging to STs. Recently, 27% of posts in all services including teaching have been reserved for candidates belonging to OBCs.

States follow different recruitment procedures. In some states, the recruitment is made on the basis of the candidate’s performance in a competitive examination. In some other states, recruitment is made on the basis of the academic and professional background of the candidate. The merit of each candidate is determined on the basis of his/her score in the examinations he/she has passed in addition to previous teaching experience, if any. In some other states, a combination of the two procedures is adopted—i.e. performance in a competitive examination and merit determined on the basis of academic credentials. The performance of candidates in an oral interview examination is also considered.

The salaries of teachers are established separately by each state and determined on the basis of academic qualifications, training and experience. Most states follow the national guidelines for salary scales and have, for the most part, established a parity of salary scales between government and privately aided schools. In addition to the salary, a price-index linked “dearness allowance” is given to all teachers. Various other allowances are also granted to all categories of teachers to compensate them for the special stress under which they work—i.e. city compensatory allowance; house rent allowance; hill allowance; winter allowance; backward, remote and tribal area allowance; island allowance; etc. These allowances differ from state to state and, within each state, by different education stages. Entry-level salaries for trained primary teachers are only slightly higher than those for untrained teachers. The maximum salary for a trained teacher is three to four times his/her entry salary, and it is usually reached after sixteen to twenty years of service in most states.

In addition, most states provide a fixed medical allowance or a reimbursement for medical expenses, advances for house building and purchase of conveyance, and free education for the children of teachers, as well as retirement benefits, gratuity and group insurance. In the majority of states, there is also an incentive provision for some special categories of teachers. For instance, in Assam, Bihar, Gujarat, Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu, a certain percentage of elementary (primary and upper primary) female teachers working in rural and remote areas are given residential accommodation. In some states, physically handicapped teachers are offered conveyance allowance.

In most states, the promotion of teachers in government primary and secondary schools is either on the basis of seniority or seniority-cum-merit. Acquiring higher qualifications also helps in promotion, provided that a departmental vacancy exists which suits the qualification of the candidate. In the case of teachers working in private and aided schools, the chances of promotion are rare because in privately managed schools there is a shortage of senior positions and only one or two persons have the opportunity to reach the level of head teacher. In secondary and higher secondary schools, a Trained Graduate Teacher (TGT) may become a Postgraduate Teacher (POT) if he/she obtains some higher qualifications—i.e. a master’s degree in any school subject, depending upon the availability of a vacancy in the school. Teachers in government schools can aspire for higher administrative posts in the Education Department of the Government of India. Though a certain percentage of posts in the higher categories of education are reserved for
teachers, avenues of promotion in the teaching profession are comparatively more limited than in other sectors such as industry, commerce and business.

Teachers are autonomous in the management of their own classes. They are encouraged to undertake experimentation and action research and are provided incentives, both at the state and national level. Every year, the NCERT conducts an All India Competition of Innovations and Experiments undertaken by school teachers and teacher educators. Teachers are invited to submit papers on the basis of the work done by them in their schools. As many as fifty primary school teachers and twenty secondary school teachers are given national awards. Similar awards are also available for elementary and secondary teacher trainers.

In the management of educational institutions, teachers may enjoy partnership in decision-making. The School Education Acts in some states have a provision for the membership of teacher representatives on the managing committee of the institution. For example, in the Delhi School Education Act and Rules (1973), teachers’ representatives have to be part of the managing committee of every recognized school. To ensure parental support, many schools have either Parent-Teacher Associations or Mother-Teacher Associations. Parents are invited periodically to the school to discuss the performance of their children. In some schools—particularly private schools—parents support the teachers in the organization of co-curricular activities, art education activities and work activities by providing the materials required.

In every state, teaching and non-teaching staff have their unions/associations. These organizations have powers of collective bargaining to secure better service conditions for their members. State-level organizations have joined together to form federations. These federations negotiate with the central government to secure better pay scales and other service conditions. The central question under Indian law is whether a teacher can be equated to a “workman,” the latter being defined in the Industrial Disputes Act of 1947. In this respect, various suggestions to amend the Industrial Disputes Act and initiate reforms to grant teachers the same protection as other workers are being considered by the Ministry of Labour.

In-service training of teachers is offered at the central, state, regional, district and sub-district levels. At the national level, in-service training programmes are developed by the following institutions: the NCERT; the NIEPA; the Central Institute of English and Foreign Languages (CIEFL), Hyderabad; and the Central Institute of Indian Languages (CIIL), Mysore. At the regional level, there are Regional Institutes of Education located in the four regions of the country. One Regional Institute has been set up recently at Shillong for the states in the north-eastern part of India.

At the state level, programmes are mainly offered by the State Council of Educational Research and Training (SCERT), the State Institute of Education, the State Institute of Science Education, the Institute of Advanced Study in Education, Colleges of Teacher Education and State Institutes of Educational Technology. At the district level, there are District Institutes of Education and Training and In-service Training Institutes.

The NCERT is developing self-learning materials for teacher educators, keeping in view the emerging issues and concerns. A school-based in-service training programme is also being planned in order to develop a school-based training methodology. A revised teacher education scheme has been framed in the Tenth Five-year Plan for speedy completion of ‘sanctioned’ training institutes and for improvement of quality of pre-service and in-service training programmes. At the national level, the support of apex institutions like the NCTE, the National Institute for Education, Planning and Administration (NIEPA), the NCERT, Universities etc. is being enlisted to improve the quality of the teachers. The NCERT has recently formulated the Teacher Education
Curriculum Framework. Under the joint initiative of the Ministry of Human Resource Development, the NCTE and the Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU), a six-month programme “certificate in primary education” has been developed by IGNOU and recognized by NCTE, for the training of the untrained in-service teachers of NE states in distance mode. Several states have already benefited from this programme.

[Source: WDE]

“In spite of remarkable achievements, India accounts for one-quarter of the world’s 104 million out-of-school children. Despite further improvement in the enrollment of 6 to 11 year old children since 1998/99, overall 13 percent of children in the 6 to 14 age group are still out-of-school. Grade 5 completion rates are also under 70 percent nationwide. In addition, 27 million 6-year-olds have to be absorbed by the system every year, which is more than the number who leave the system. Wide-ranging disparities remain across states and districts. For example, in 1998/99, the net primary enrollment ratios ranged from 63 percent in Bihar to 98 percent in Kerala. Grade 5 completion rates varied from 64 percent in West Bengal to 94 percent in Himachal Pradesh for boys, and 43 percent in Rajasthan to 98 percent in Kerala for girls. Children of Scheduled Castes (SC) and Scheduled Tribes (ST) are less likely to enroll in and complete elementary education. Quality of elementary education is uneven across states, districts and sub-districts. Student and teacher absenteeism remains high. Insufficient public and household financial resources, social inequality, uneven capacity and insufficient accountability constrain efforts to improve the system and outcomes.

The baseline assessment of Grade 5 student achievement conducted by NCERT in 2002 provides the first national data and points to low levels of learning in public schools. The achievement level is uneven across states. This reflects perhaps a combination of factors, such as the selectivity of the education system in the states and the quality of education. For example, the high average scores of Bihar probably reflect the selectivity of the system, as it has a lower enrollment ratio than other states. On the contrary, the states that have over 99 percent of the relevant-age children in school--Kerala and Himachal Pradesh--have low average scores, particularly in mathematics; however, their smaller standard deviation shows lesser variations in quality than most states.

Student attendance rates are low and vary tremendously across states. Absenteeism tends to be the precursor of dropping out. Students in public schools tend to have lower attendance rates than private schools. In Bihar, for example, student attendance rates in public schools are as low as 39 percent, but those in private schools were 66 percent. There are exceptions to this pattern. For example, Maharashtra’s attendance rates in private school are lower than those in public schools.” [Source: World Bank. Project Appraisal Document on a proposed credit to the Republic of India for an elementary education project. Report No. 27703-IN, March 2004. FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY.]

“School wise information collected through District information system for education (DISE), revealed gaps in infrastructural facilities. 3% of primary schools and 2.4% upper primary schools did not have any building in 2005-06. The student-classroom ratio (SCR) was 41 and 33 in primary and upper primary schools respectively. 44.6% of primary schools and 15.3% of upper primary schools did not have any toilets at all. Similar proportion of schools, both in primary and upper primary stages, did not have boundary
Drinking water facilities were not available in 15% primary and 4.8% upper primary schools. It is estimated that the backlog of additional classrooms in elementary schools would be about 6.37 lakhs by 2006-07.

Coming to the academic qualification, it has been found that almost all the teachers at the upper primary stage do have basic qualification. At primary level, 4 percent male teachers and 4.75 percent female teachers lack the minimum qualification (secondary passed). A sizeable proportion of primary school teachers in Mizoram, Meghalaya, Nagaland, Assam, Tripura are not academically qualified. Haryana, Jharkhand and Punjab have the problem too (DISE, 2005-06).

A very significant achievement has been the provision of free text books to about 5.35 crore children during 2005-06, across all states except Jharkhand. Till 31 March 2006, eighty seven percent of children received free textbooks. Timeliness of distribution has also improved in some states. Several states have also developed a range of teaching learning materials (TLMs) other than textbooks such as tribal primary, story books based readers, work books, worksheets, children journals, activity charts, materials for children with special needs, science and mathematics kits, self learning materials and audio visual aids. All these are seen as initiatives to enrich the teaching learning process for children.

65.38% primary schools and 58.64% upper primary schools received TLM grant (DISE 2004-05). Several states are now reporting setting up of formal libraries in significant number of schools and regular use of these by children. 43.65% of primary schools and 55.17% upper primary schools are reported for have book bank in school (DISE 2005-06). Most states, barring seven, indicate that they have no school now without blackboards. Latest report shows more than 92% of schools have blackboards (DISE 2005-06).

Development and strengthening of teacher education institutions is a programme launched under the eighth plan as a follow up of the National Policy on Education. The establishment of a District Institute of Education & Training (DIETs) in each district was therefore, a major step in taking the support system, nearer to the field. There is a DIET each in almost all the districts of the country. An evaluation of the scheme conducted by NIEPA pointed to several problems concerning DIETs, which have been acknowledged in the report of the working group on Elementary Education and Literacy. A proper action plan to revitalize the DIETs is critical if the quality of teacher education at the elementary stage has to be improved. The process of decentralization has been further extended under EFA projects through the establishment of block resource centres (BRCs) and cluster resource centres (CRCs). The main function of these sub-district level institutions is capacity building among teachers. The number of BRCs and CRCs under DPEP upto 31.3.2002 was 3,423 and 28,507 respectively. Under SSA there has been massive expansion.”

SSA has made a provision for 20 days of annual training for each teacher and all states have utilized this provision, although over a series of successive training Overall, across states 2347017 teachers of a total of 3053285 (77 percent) have received training and most trainings are organized at the BRC-CRC level. This large coverage is certainly an achievement. The training modules are in all cases developed at the state level. The training content reflects a wide range, but is largely focused on subject specific training and pedagogical aspects. A few innovative themes include life skills development, road safety and reading promotion activities.” [Source: NIEPA. EFA Mid-decade Assessment: India. 2007, DRAFT NOT TO BE QUOTED.]
The financing of education

Education is financed by the central government, state governments, local authorities, and a variety of private sources. The education budgets of the central government as well as the state governments are divided into categories: developmental expenditure (Plan) and maintenance (Non-Plan). Over the years, there has been a remarkable increase in expenditure on education, both as percentage of the gross national product and as a percentage of government expenditure.

The total expenditure on education increased by 60.5% during 1990-95, of which the central government’s share was about 9%. As a percentage of GNP, the total expenditure on education reached 3.81% in 1998/99 and increased to an estimated 4.11% in 2000/01.

The bulk of the financial outlay on education is allocated to elementary and adult education. The total expenditure on elementary education rose from 79,555 million rupees (Rs) in 1990/91 to Rs129,834 million in 1994/95. The total expenditure on adult education rose from Rs2,731 million in 1990/91 to Rs3,585 million in 1994/95. Expenditure on elementary and adult education is mainly incurred by the central government, state governments and local bodies. Voluntary agencies, which are participating in providing basic education to children and youth, are mostly being financed from central and state funds.

The government provides free elementary education and provides incentives to children—particularly those from disadvantaged groups. The mid-day meal programme, which has been implemented on a large scale from August 1995, is one of the most important incentives being provided. Literacy programmes are also free. The last few years have brought an increase in externally aided projects for elementary education. External assistance is considered only within the parameters laid down by the Central Advisory Board on Education (CABE).

[Source: WDE]

“India is a union of 28 states and 7 union territories (UTs). The Constitution has made Education a subject on the concurrent jurisdiction of the Central and State governments. State governments undertake direct activities related to elementary and secondary education, though Central government provides funds for specific programs through its centrally sponsored schemes. States and UTs account for 85-90 percent of total government spending on education. Central government share was around a high 15-20 percent when it actively established higher educational institutions in the early decades of 1950s. Subsequently, it went down to around 8-10 percent. In 2002 India spent around 4.3 percent of its GDP on education ($17.8 billion). Forty-two percent of total public spending on education went to elementary education ($7.5 billion). The provision and financing of elementary education is mainly the responsibility of the states.

Public schools account for 90 percent of enrollment in elementary education and private schools (aided and unaided, recognized and unrecognized), for about 10 percent. Government-aided private schools receive a share of the government expenditure on education through a system of subventions (grants-in-aid) whereby the schools are managed by their own boards, be that missionaries, NGOs or other private bodies, and
public finance covers teacher salaries and various operating costs. However, private unaided schools receive no recurrent public assistance. Public expenditure on education, therefore, covers not only public schools, but also government-aided private schools. Increasingly in urban areas, the numbers and proportion of children going to private schools are growing, though as shares of the total, these figures are small.

An analysis of out-of-pocket expenditures incurred by households on primary and upper primary education reveals the continued importance of public provision and financing. This is particularly true for the children from the poorest households in the country as the National Sample Survey (NSS) of households on education expenditures reveals. Nearly 90 percent of children from the lowest expenditure quintile attend government and local body schools, compared with only a little over half the children belonging to households in the highest expenditure quintile. Public education at the elementary level is free, although annual household expenditures on education averaged Rs. 334 in 1996. These out of pocket costs vary across school type, with the average annual expenditure incurred by households with children in private schools (on fees, uniforms, textbooks, transportation costs, etc.) being six to seven times higher than those incurred by households whose children attend Government or Local Body schools. The average annual expenditure by households in the lowest three quintiles is significantly lower than the annual average expenditures incurred in private schools. Students in the government schools incur lower private costs for their education because government is subsidizing them either directly through free provision of education facilities, or indirectly through many incentive schemes and other concessions. The ability of the state governments to finance education depends heavily on fiscal transfers from the Central government.

Two key aspects of the Indian fiscal system that impinge on resource availability for the education sector are the division of taxation powers and the arrangements for fiscal transfers between the two levels of government.

Two types of transfers from Central to state governments exist - general purpose and specific purpose. The former include Finance Commissions awards which devolve fixed shares in specified central taxes to states to support states' recurrent expenditure and Planning Commission Awards to support states' development expenditure. Specific purpose transfers are essentially centrally-sponsored schemes (CSSs) which target resources for specific purposes, such as SSA (Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, which is a National Program for Universal Elementary Education). These CSSs may involve matching grants from the state in ratios specified in the scheme, as in SSA.

For the education sector in a state, thus there are multiple sources of finance: the state's own receipts (tax revenues and non-tax revenues); the statutory transfers of the Central governments; the block assistance for the state plan; the CSS of the Central Ministry of Human Resource Development.

Public expenditures on education, both as a percentage of GDP and as a percentage of total government expenditure, have increased since 1950-1951. Education and training expenditure as a percentage of GDP rose from below 1 percent in 1950-1951 to over 4 percent by 2000-01. As a percentage of total government expenditure, education expenditure increased from about 8 percent to about 14.6 percent over this period.

The expenditure on education as a share of state GDP has been increasing considerably in a few states, including some of the poor states. In fact, in poor states like Bihar, the proportion was above 6 percent. However, if the income of the state is low (or declines over the years), even a relatively small amount or stagnant level of expenditure on education gives an impression of an increased proportion of state income being invested in education. In a high income state like Punjab, education spending might be 3
percent, but more resources per capita are spent on education in real terms than in Bihar. Overall, the variations in the educational efforts of various states do not fall into any systematic pattern.

As a share of the total Central Government spending, education expenditure remained at around 2.5 to 3 percent in the 1990s to date. At the States' level, allocations on education increased from 51 percent of all social sector expenditure in mid-1980s to 53 percent by the late 1990s. As a share of the total state spending, education remained around 20-22 percent. Most states increased spending on elementary education between 1990 and 2000, except a few like Gujarat and Kerala, where the expenditure on elementary education was already quite satisfactory. The states that reduced elementary education expenditure increased spending on secondary education. In summary, intra-sectoral resource allocation has shifted over the years in favor of elementary education, which is pro-poor. Nonetheless, the growth in expenditure on elementary education took place along with a rise in the expenditures on other subsectors of education such as secondary and higher education sectors. The focus on elementary education has not been at the expense of other sub sectors.

In 2002, the average spending per student is about $44, or 8.5 percent of per capita GDP. There is much variation across states. Per student spending in India ranges from $16 in West Bengal to $68 in Himachal Pradesh (HP). The variation across states is attributable to different conditions. Three states which have high per student spending are HP, Kerala and Bihar. Their high unit costs are due to different reasons - mountainous setting and remote schools in HP, commitment to spend a high amount per child in Kerala, and low enrollment in Bihar resulting in higher spending per child. The overall trend, however, is encouraging as most states have increased per student spending between 1990 and 2000, except Haryana, Rajasthan, and Maharashtra which experienced a slight decline.” [Source: World Bank. Project Appraisal Document on a proposed credit to the Republic of India for an elementary education project. Report No. 27703-IN, March 2004. FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY.]
Laws and other basic regulations concerning education

According to the document approved by the Supreme Council of Education in 1998, national development is the primary aim of education in order to increase productivity, achieve social and national integration and cultivate social, moral and spiritual values with great emphasis placed on strengthening and encouraging the faith of Islam. The goals approved by the Council also emphasize the role of education in developing manpower for different levels of economy and thus education is viewed as an investment in the future.

The Constitution of the Islamic Republic of Iran and the Second Five-year Development Plan (1995-1999) put a special emphasis on the provision of free education and facilities for compulsory education. According to Article 30 of the Constitution, the government is obliged to provide free education for all.

According to Note No. 62 of the Second Development Plan, the State is obliged to provide the necessary facilities to make it compulsory for school age children and illiterates aged less than 40 years to attend compulsory education and literacy courses, respectively.

According to Article 11 of the executive regulation of the above Note, approved by the Cabinet on 16 June 1996, the Ministry of Education, with the assistance of the Literacy Movement Organization, is obliged to announce in March the list of the regions which will be covered the following year by compulsory education of school-age children as well as the illiterate group. All school age children and illiterate adults should become literate by the end of the Second Five-year Plan.

According to Articles 10 and 11 of the principles governing the education system, general education (up to the end of lower secondary) is compulsory and free of charge for all. Compulsory education currently lasts five years and caters to children aged 6-10. According to the Second Five-year Development Plan, compulsory education will last eight years for the age group 6-13 (primary and lower secondary education).

The Act Regarding the Establishment of Non-profit Schools was approved by the Islamic Parliament on 25 May 1988. Non-profit schools are established and managed through people’s participation.

In addition to what is presented in the Constitution, the rules and decrees relating to the Ministry of Education are approved by the Islamic Parliament, the Cabinet and the Supreme Education Council. The Act of Co-operation (1992) of the Ministry of Education with other ministries and organizations through which the extension of responsibility for education to other ministries and using the facilities of other organizations became possible. The Note No. 8 of the Budget Act (1996) grants more financial resources to the Ministry of Education. The Act of Establishing Adult Schools and Exemplary Public Schools (1993) have facilitated education for all and made
people participate in education. The **Bill on Education Council Formation**, approved on 24 December 1993, not only encourages public participation but also decentralizes the educational administration to some extent.

In 2004, the **Statute regarding the pre-school level** was approved and adopted by the Supreme Council of Education.

**Administration and management of the education system**

The **Ministry of Education** administers and finances schools at the primary and secondary levels. The **Supreme Council of Education**, as the highest legislative body, approves all policies and regulations related to non-university education.

The **Ministry of Science, Research and Technology** (formerly the Ministry of Culture and Higher Education) is responsible for universities of science, art and technology. The **Ministry of Health and Medical Education** deals with medical schools and the training of medical assistants. The **Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs** is responsible for non-formal training; non-formal vocational education courses are conducted by the **Technical and Vocational Training Organization** (TVTO) under this ministry.

Specialized higher education institutions are under the control of various ministries, such as Agriculture, Petroleum, Industry, etc. They organize courses and award diplomas in various specializations in agreement with the Ministry of Science, Research and Technology. The Applied Scientific University is responsible for co-ordination between these ministries to train manpower as required.

The Ministry of Education performs its duties mainly through the **Provincial Organizations** and the **District Offices**. The head of the Provincial Organization is appointed by the Minister in coordination with the governor of the province. The main duties of the twenty-nine Provincial Organizations of Education are as follows: supervising the design and fulfillment of educational programmes in the framework of proved plans and confirming the subordinate districts programmes; supervising training programmes for teachers and administrative personnel throughout the province; supervising non-public schools and providing required facilities; providing suitable measures for organizing provincial and district councils of education in the province and subordinated districts according to the existing instructions; and implementing educational programmes and curricula in accordance with the special needs of each region in the framework of approved plans of the Ministry of Education. District Offices act under the supervision of the Provincial Organizations. Each office is headed by a director appointed by the head of the Provincial Organization. District Councils of Education play a fundamental role in facilitating the participation of various governmental and non-governmental organizations in education. In 2003 there were 707 District Offices throughout the country.

Each school is headed by a principal who is appointed by the head of the District Office. The principal is responsible for implementing all educational, financial and administrative activities in the school. Other management bodies at the school level
include the school council, the teachers’ council, the students’ council and Parents-Teachers Association. Efforts are being made to transfer some significant responsibilities to individual schools and to involve parents in the decision-making process.

The Under-secretary of Public Participation in the Ministry of Education is responsible for private education. Non-profit schools work under the supervision of this Under-secretary. The Act regarding the establishment of non-profit schools was approved by the Islamic Parliament on 25 May 1988.

Non-profit schools are based on the objectives, criteria, curriculum, textbooks, exams and regulations of the Ministry of Education and are under its supervision. The founder(s) must have a number of qualifications, including: belief in Islam; Iranian nationality; be married and not associated with the previous regime; be experienced in educational affairs; and have at least an upper secondary diploma (or its equivalent in an Islamic school). The Supervision Council is the authority in charge of the inspection and investigation of the qualifications of the founder(s). The financial resources of the school include tuition fees and contributions received from parents and charitable people and organizations. There are non-profit schools at the primary, lower secondary and upper secondary levels. Some of the non-profit schools may include extra-curricular activities in addition to the regular programmes. Tuition fees are determined annually by the Ministry of Education. Admission to some schools is subject to entrance examinations.

The Ministry of Education is authorized to help non-profit schools. The Cabinet approved the regulations about methods of granting government aids or loans to non-profit schools in 1994. Amounts and types of assistance are determined by special regulations and approved by the Cabinet. The non-profit schools are obliged to enrol needy students in return for receiving assistance from the State or charitable organizations. All income and expenditure of these schools are recorded in official books and, if necessary, inspected by the office of education. The banks throughout the country are obliged to provide 50% of the financial needs regarding provision of premises, equipment and other required facilities as free interest loans in the framework of the Act of Free Interest Bank Operations. Full-time teachers and employees who are not State employees enjoy retirement and medical service insurance based upon the Act of Social Security. The above Act was approved in the open session of the Islamic Parliament on 25 May 1986.

Textbooks for primary, lower and upper secondary education are printed and distributed centrally by the Ministry of Education. All textbooks are developed by Iranian authors and there are no foreign textbooks in use.

The country is coping with the new demands created by the information age in a number of ways. The number of computers introduced into schools has rapidly increased in recent years. To promote the utilization of information technology (IT) in learning activities, and to foster the learners’ ability in IT, several initiatives are currently being considered, including the development, storage and dissemination of high-quality software for use in education, and the training of teachers to cope with the introduction of IT into teaching.

The Institute for the Intellectual Development of Children and Young Adults (IDCYA) is responsible for preparing instructional materials. The activities of the Institute also include the publication of two magazines—Pooyesh, dealing with research on children’s art, and Golbank, investigations for educators; and books about the Islamic Revolution and religious knowledge.
In addition to formal technical and vocational programmes run by the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Science, non-formal vocational courses are conducted by the Technical and Vocational Training Organization of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, and also by some other ministries. There are many types of non-formal TVE programmes in Iran. One of the most important is the programme that prepares learners for the job market offering on-the-job training. In-service training and training courses aiming at upgrading or updating the knowledge and skill of the trainees are also offered.

For the industrial sector, the responsibilities of TVE organizations are to train skilled workers, to establish industry training courses, and to offer in-service training and supervision courses. The Ministry of Mines and Metals, the Ministry of Industries, the Ministry of Petroleum, the Ministry of Roads and Transportation and their departments are responsible to train manpower needed for manufacturing companies.

For the agricultural sector, the Agricultural Education Organization and the Ministry of Jihad-e-Sazendegi (Jihad for Construction) offer training courses for technical and agricultural manpower in rural areas. The Forestry and Pasture Organization is responsible for training technical manpower according to their requirements.

For the administrative and business sector, all ministries and organizations offer preliminary on-the-job training and in-service training to the personnel. The Iranian Handicrafts Organization, the Ministry of Jihad-e-Sazendegi and the Red Crescent Association offer training courses in Iranian handicrafts. The Welfare Organization also offers courses to train disabled persons. The Public Management Training Centre and the Organization of Industrial Management offer programmes in administration and management. The Labour and Social Welfare Institute is responsible for courses in labour affairs and social provision.

For the health sector, the Ministry of Health and Medical Education is responsible for the training of technical personnel. The Red Crescent Association is responsible for the First Aid and Medical Aid Training programme.

Most non-formal TVE programmes in the private sector take place in apprenticeship form. Private educational institutes are supervised by TVE organizations. These institutes concentrate mainly on teaching business and administration. Some trade unions offer non-formal TVE courses to train manpower needed for these professions.

Teachers working at public schools are local public employees and their status is guaranteed by law. In addition, their working conditions are protected by the Act of State Employment. There is no noticeable difference between men and women’s employment in the Act except that women can enjoy being half-time employees for almost four years after giving birth to a child.

To procure the best personnel for teaching and to enable teachers to concentrate their efforts on education, the salaries of teachers assigned to schools are the same as those of public employees. Their salaries are provided for and given special treatment under the Act of Coordinated Payment to State Employees of 1990. Teachers are promoted to the next salary grade every four years. They also get an annual raise every year, based on their performance evaluation. In addition, a teaching allowance is added to their monthly salaries. The Act of Saving Fund of Education Personnel was implemented in 1995 in order to guarantee the financial support of the retired education personnel. According to the Budget Act of 1994, the education personnel who buy houses through bank loans are also given 7% of the related interest as subsidies.

Teachers’ holidays are the same as those given to regular public employees, which include weekends, national holidays, holidays at the beginning of each year, and annual holidays with pay. The long-term holidays given to pupils in schools are not holidays
received by teachers. However, teachers are released from their main obligation to be engaged in teaching duties, and are instead often authorized to be absent from school for training purposes.

Short-term in-service training courses aim to improve specific competencies of the teachers and educational staff. It is optional for the employees to take part in in-service educational courses, but it is compulsory in some cases such as pre-employment training, training at the beginning of employment, teaching in special courses (such as reformed programmes and pre-university courses). Nearly all teachers participate in short-term in-service training programmes almost every seven years. It is obligatory to have some of the certificates of short-term in-service training courses in order to be promoted in salary grade.

[Source: WDE]

The financing of education

The budget of the Ministry of Education in 1996 was 6,130 billion rial (RI), which represented 3.8% of the gross national product. The approved budget was RI5,455.6 billion, but in order to provide for the financial shortages of the Ministry of Education, some additional funding was allocated and the budget increased to RI6,130 billion. In addition to the approved budget, some Acts were approved during the last two years to provide the Ministry of Education with new financial resources.

The budget of the Ministry of Education is divided into current and capital expenditure. The 1996 approved budget was in the amount of RI4,646 billion (of which 4,197 billion at the provincial level) and RI809.3 billion (of which 713.43 billion at the provincial level), respectively. The main sections to which the budget was allocated are the following: primary education (1,675 billion), lower secondary (1,023 billion), and upper secondary (933.86 billion).

The budget of all ministries, whether educational or others, is included in the annual Act of Budget which is prepared by the Management and Planning Organization and submitted for approval to the Islamic Legislative Assembly (Parliament).

In 1996, total aid to non-profit schools amounted to RI403 billion (343 billion from bank loan facilities and 60 billion from public expenditures). In addition, these schools received RI300 billion in tuition fees in 1996.

In the annual Budget Act, the budget allocated to public higher education and research is included under a chapter different from that of the Ministry of Education. In the academic year 1995/96, the budget amounted to RI1,659 billion (current funds: 1,138 billion; capital funds: 392.09 billion; special income: 129.07 billion), of which RI1,519 billion allocated at the national level. Private higher education institutions cover their financial needs through tuition fees.

In 2003, total public expenditure on education (covering primary education to the pre-university course) amounted to RI39,880 billion or 12% of total government expenditure. In the same year, public current expenditure on education totaled RI36,730
billion or 92% of the total expenditure. In 2001, primary education accounted for 29.4% of the current expenditure, lower secondary for 19.6% and upper secondary for 20.2%. It is estimated that salaries account for about 91% of the total current expenditure on education. About 93% of the cost of education is met by the government and the remaining part is covered by local contributions, parents’ aids and student fees in non-profit schools.

[Source: WDE]
MALDIVES

Laws and other basic regulations concerning education

There is no special provision which constitutes an education law in the Maldives. The Ministry of Education was established under the Parliamentary Act No. 3/68 issued on 11 November 1968. According to this Act, the management of education in the Maldives is a function of the Ministry of Education. The Citizens’ Majlis (Parliament) has been revising the Constitution of the country.

Administration and management of the education system

Until the late 1970s the management of the education system was limited to a few government schools in the capital, Male’. With the new policy of expanding primary education, the Ministry of Education now undertakes broader aspects of educational management and administration reflecting the needs of the present national development effort.

Until the mid 1970s the principal functions of the Ministry were administration of the three government schools in Male’, and testing and certification of entrants to government jobs and to trades requiring special certification. Schools did exist outside Male’, but they were private enterprises and were largely left to operate by themselves. The development and expansion of education has required many new activities. These include state-financed programmes of school construction, curriculum development, textbook production, teacher training, non-formal education and distance education. By 1995, the Ministry of Education administered fifty schools in the outer atolls and nine schools in Male’. Enrolment in government schools in 1995 represented 44.4% of the total student enrolment in the country.

The 1980s witnessed the establishment of some specialized agencies within the Ministry. Teacher training was separated from the Educational Development Centre (EDC) to form the Institute for Teacher Education (ITE). The textbook production unit became the Printing Section, and the non-formal education section became the Non-formal Education Centre. Each became a separate body within the Ministry of Education.

The Ministry of Education (MOE) is currently divided into several sections and four specialized agencies. The heads of the sections and specialized agencies report directly to the Minister, who is not only the political head of the Ministry but is often perceived as the professional and intellectual leader. This is made possible by an absence of marked distinctions between political, civil service and professional functions. The MOE works directly under the President of the Republic. The Minister of Education is assisted by a Deputy Minister. He receives policy advice from the National Education Council and the Advisory Committee on Basic Education.
The **Educational Development Centre**, created in 1979, is responsible for: developing the National Curriculum (Grades I-XII) through its Curriculum Development Unit; identifying or producing textbooks and teaching aids; identifying or developing appropriate educational technologies for schools; designing and testing special educational projects; and conducting support and training activities. The EDC is divided into the following functional units: curriculum development; curriculum research; science resource; education technology; educational development services; and management services.

The **Early Childhood Development Unit (ECDU)** was established at EDC in January 2004, when all educational development programmes were streamlined and located within one umbrella. The main responsibilities of the ECDU are to: strengthen preschool education in Maldives; advocate and promote Early Childhood Development best practices and key messages to parents and caregivers and general public; develop appropriate reading/learning materials; build the capacity of preschool teachers/managers; and promote community-based ECD activities.

Most island schools are managed by the local island communities with the island chief as the head. Owing to his duties and responsibilities other than those of education, the island chief gets little time to look into the affairs of the school which are generally entrusted to the senior teacher in the school. Moreover, due to a lack of formal education and training, the island chief is often unable to provide professional and administrative support to the school. This remains one of the weaknesses of the education system. The Ministry of Education is taking steps to overcome this problem by training supervisors for all schools as well as through increasing awareness of island chiefs about their role and responsibilities as heads of island schools.

Systematic collection of educational statistics has a short history in the Maldives. The last ten years have witnessed a remarkable improvement in the collection, processing and publication of educational statistics. The Ministry of Education has established a section in which all the tabulation and calculation of statistical data are done with the help of four micro-computers. Recent changes in management practices have highlighted the need for making available proper analyses of vital statistics such as enrolment trends, teacher demand/supply, expenditure in the sector, and teacher-pupil ratios so that sound decisions can be made and long term planning facilitated. The strengthening of the Education Management Information System (EMIS) remains the priority for the planning section. In addition to this, a subsection dealing with research at the system level is now being established. The development of the EMIS is essential for the work of the researchers. Work is also underway in strengthening these mechanisms and to facilitate timeliness and accuracy of data collected.

Other ministries and departments involved in education include: the Ministry of Health and Welfare; the Ministry of Tourism; the Ministry of Planning, Human Resources and Environment; the Ministry of Transport and Communications; the Ministry of Fisheries and Agriculture; the Ministry of Youth, Women’s Affairs and Sports; and the Department of Civil Aviation. They deal with specific vocational training in some institutes and provide short-term training in various trades and vocations in response to specific sectoral needs.
The Republic of Maldives attaches importance to early childhood care and development. Prior to the advent of modern day pre-schools, the traditional edhuruge discharged this function. Edhuruge is a home-based educational service provided by respected members in the community. In general it is free and family members help the teacher. Even where a symbolic small fee is charged, no records are kept of those who are unable to pay.

Attendance in edhuruge is flexible. Children may attend short sessions three times a day at times convenient to them and the teacher. The admission age ranges between 3 and 15 years. Because of this wide range, a child-to-child approach is generally adopted with the older children assisting the younger. Each child is assigned work according to his/her own ability. While the immediate function of the edhuruge is to help children read the Holy Quran properly and to develop a love for the Quran and the Islamic religion, the edhuruge is more than a Quranic school. The teaching of literacy and numeracy skills is also an important component of the edhuruge.

Among the weaknesses of the edhuruge are: too much emphasis on rote learning; low qualifications of teachers; limited space and inadequacy of furniture; and lack of stationery and learning materials. Despite the introduction of modern types of schooling, the edhuruge still survives and provides the first formal learning for more than half of the population in the country. The National Development Plan 1994-96 has identified areas of intervention within a policy of maintaining its uniqueness as a voluntary community education service. It is also part of the government strategy to encourage home-based and community-based approaches to early childhood development.

With financial assistance from UNICEF, a project to develop five Integrated Early Childhood Development Centres was initiated in 2002 by Ministry of Education. The aim of this project was to establish 5 centres across the country that can be used as model setups for play based learning and to facilitate training of teacher and learning methodologies. In 2004 with the establishment of ECD unit at EDC this project was transferred to EDC. The project ended in 2004 and its evaluation was completed in 2005. Due to the tsunami in 2004, the expansion programme shifted from the atolls where there was a model centre to tsunami-affected preschools. By the end of 2005, 78 preschools have been developed with appropriate outdoor and indoor materials.

[Source: WDE]

“Maldivian society has traditionally placed a very high priority on education. Both households and governments have devoted significant efforts and resources to the sector. By 1998, the adult literacy rate was 98 percent. Virtually all children attend five years of primary school and a majority complete seven years of basic education. The immediate medium-term objectives are to: complete the universalization of basic education; move towards universal access to three years of secondary education; and ensure that there is an expanding tertiary sector and opportunities for higher education abroad.

By 1945, each inhabited island had a 'maktab' providing instruction in Dhivehi and Arabic at the lower primary level. These evolved into the community primary schools which still today provide places for 48 percent of all pupils in the atolls, and 43 percent nationally. In 1960, the Government created two English medium schools in the capital, Male. Only in 1978 did the Government decide to move to a unified national system of education with an emphasis on primary (grades I-V) and middle (grades VI-VII) schooling, and the establishment of an Atoll Education Centre and Atoll Primary Schools in each atoll. The community schools have increasingly become undifferentiated from
government schools, teaching the national curriculum and employing teachers provided by the Government. No fees are charged in either type of school. Eight percent of enrolments are in private schools, mainly at the secondary level. The nature and role of these schools, which are mainly in Male, are very distinct to the Maldives. First, Government has often provided the financial resources for their construction, and provides 20 percent of the teaching salary bill plus cash subsidies for overheads and educational materials. Second, they are generally regarded as second rate institutions while places in government schools are far more prestigious.

Basic schooling comprises of five years of primary and two years of middle schooling. For virtually all children in Male and an increasing proportion on the islands (53 percent in 1998), this is preceded by two years of pre-primary classes.

Out of a total 254 schools offering primary grades, 60 schools were without grades 6 or 7 in 1998. Pupils in these schools go either to the central atoll island or to Male, or they remain in class 5. By 2000, the number of schools in the islands not offering at least class 6 had been reduced to just nine.

In Male, out of 400 primary teachers just 28 are temporary and/or untrained. In the Atolls, out of 1821, 835 are in these categories. In middle schooling, 219 out of 269 are trained in Male compared to 591 out of 756 in the atolls. Out of 669 teachers of basic education in Male, 190 are expatriates compared to 447 out of 2576 in the atolls.

Secondary education comprises of three years of lower secondary leading to the 'O' level examination and two years of upper secondary leading to 'A' levels. Both examinations are set in England. Upper secondary is offered only in Male.

Currently, lower secondary schooling is offered in four government schools, three community schools and four private schools in Male. Of these, four including the largest two, essentially offer these grades only, and enroll around two thirds of the total. In the atolls, a lower secondary schooling is taught to 1730 pupils in three secondary schools (two government and one private), with the remaining 7300 being taught in schools offering all 10 grades. Around 90 percent of upper secondary students attend the Science Education Centre and take the 'A' level examination while the rest attend an Islamic school.

Efforts to concentrate tertiary level education and training in the Maldives College of Higher Education began in late 1998. The College has merged a number of institutions previously found within individual ministries, and currently includes teacher education, health sciences, management and administration, technical education, hotel and catering, and maritime training. More recently, Institutes for "Open Learning" and for Shariah and Law have been added. Entry requirements range from below 'O' level to two 'A' levels. Courses range from a few weeks to two years. For university education, Maldivians must travel abroad. Students are financed by parents, government and donors, including through loans. Between 1977 and 1997, the government sponsored 851 students in first degree courses and above. Seventy one percent were male.

The report *Vulnerability and Poverty Assessment: 1999* (VPA) also described the provision in schools of drinking water, toilets, enclosed classrooms, and libraries. The results were then aggregated by atoll. Across all the atolls, the percentage of the population not having access to these facilities were 12, 13, 44 and 52 percent, respectively. The variations across atolls were quite large. For example, in eight atolls drinking water was available in all island schools, while in five atolls at least a quarter of the population lived on islands in which the school(s) did not have access to it. Similarly, in five atolls over 80 percent of the population had access to schools in which all classrooms were enclosed, while in four of the atolls at least 20 percent had access only to schools with no enclosed rooms. Finally, in the VPA study, an education index with a
system of penalty points was constructed incorporating eight measures combining characteristics of teachers, grade offerings and facilities. At one end of the spectrum Male and ten other islands, which together have 40 percent of the population, recorded no penalty points. At the other end, 50 islands received a full penalty point. These islands cover 10 percent of the population, implying, not surprisingly, that educational deprivation is closely correlated with small population size.” [Source: World Bank. Maldives. Public Expenditure Review. Report No. 24238-MV, December 2002.]

“A total of 1150 untrained primary teachers had been trained under the Third Education and Training Project (TETP) and the Faculty of Education had exceeded its target for the bridging program for primary teachers and for pre-service training. After the closure of TETP, the British Council has agreed to support the training of any remaining untrained teachers. The efforts to decentralize teacher training are continuing with the organization of training programs in each of the Regions. The training programs had been evaluated and mid-course corrections instituted to improve the programs. A Strategic Plan for Professional Development (2005-2008) has been prepared which reflects a carefully thought-through strategy for systematic needs-based in-service training. With regard to the substitution of expatriate secondary teachers with local staff, it is expected that the entire expatriate cadre would be replaced by 2010 provided a detailed time-bound plan is pursued. The Faculty of Education has greatly benefited from the capacity building program with most of its staff having benefited from the overseas fellowship program: 16 teacher educators will complete their Master’s degree and 8 a Bachelor’s degree in Education. In addition, teacher trainers have benefited from shadowing and link arrangements with universities in the UK, Australia and New Zealand. Curriculum and textbook development had also benefited significantly from the project with the development of an outcome-focused curriculum in English and Math and the development of about 100 supplementary readers, which will provide locally relevant reading material for children. The National Assessment Unit has been integrated with the Department of Public Examinations, and assessment activities have been completed. The construction and upgrading of facilities has been completed. The Education MIS has been developed and the Statistical Education Year Book for 2004 was completed using the EMIS database. The training of nationals for the labor force is also proceeding according to schedule and on course to achieve development objectives.” [Source: World Bank. Maldives. Project paper on a proposed additional financing to the Republic of Maldives for a Third Education and Training Project. Report No. 35246-MV, March 2006. FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY.]

The financing of education

The government budget, largely through the Ministry of Education, covers all expenses of government schools in the country including administrative overhead costs of the Ministry. Recently, the government has started a scheme of providing financial assistance to island community schools that have been in continuous operation for five or more years. Over 60% of government financing goes to government schools in Male’, which are responsible for less than 40% of total enrolment. The island community contributes to education through ad hoc arrangements such as fund raising or through payment in kind.
Government schools, both in Male’ and in the atolls, do not levy fees while some of the island schools require pupils to pay a school fee.

[Source: WDE]

“The Constitution of Maldives gives a broad range of powers to the executive branch of the government in managing public resources. Most of the core functions relating to public budget management—planning, formulation, budgeting, execution, monitoring and evaluation—are performed by the executive branch. The power of budget approval rests with the legislative branch, the People’s Majlis. The Constitution gives the job of auditing public accounts to the Auditor General, who is appointed by and reports to the President.

The Maldives is a unitary state, but there are local institutions for delivering public services in the outer atolls. The Ministry of Atoll Administration functions as an extension of the central government in the atolls through its offices in the atolls that are headed by the Atoll Chief, who is appointed by the President. All activities in the atolls are carried out by the Government Ministries under the supervision of the Atoll Chief.

The Ministry of Finance and Treasury (MIFT) has the basic responsibility for preparing the overall budget. The principal component of the capital budget—known as the annual public sector investment program (PSIP)—is prepared by the Ministry of Planning and National Development (MPND). The composition of the PSIP is determined by MPND on the basis of an indicative domestic resource figure provided by the MIFT as well funds available through external aid. The annual budget calendar begins in the middle of July when the MIFT sends budget circulars to the spending agencies. Following a five-month period of interaction and consultation with line ministries, the budget is submitted for approval by the Minister of Finance to the People’s Majlis in the last week of December.

Public expenditures on education as a share of GDP and of total government expenditure are comparatively high both in relation to other countries in the region and to other developing economies. The share of GDP allocated to education has risen continuously and appreciably from 4.7 percent in 1995 to 7.7 percent in 2000.

Disaggregating expenditures into recurrent and capital, education's share of total recurrent expenditures has been increasing slowly but persistently since 1995, from 19.2 to 23.4 percent (and the share in total capital expenditures rose from 6.4 to 8.6 percent). Even over the past three years as the share of total expenditure has stabilized, education's share of the recurrent budget has continued to increase. The increases in current expenditures are largely driven by increases in teachers. Employment in the education sector increased by an average of 12 percent a year between 1995 and 2000. Teachers constitute almost 25 percent of all Government employees.

Part of government expenditure on education is funded through development grants and loans. Between 1995 and 2000 these accounted for 18 percent of total expenditure in the sector, which is similar to the overall share of development aid in government expenditure (19.7 percent). Over the four year period 1998 to 2001, education secured one sixth of all aid flows into the budget.

Over the period 1995–2001, capital expenditures have ranged between 17.2 percent and 31.3 percent of the total, and on average have been significantly above the shares in most other developing countries. The volatility reflects the importance of aid flows in capital expenditures, but the high overall share also reflects the significant rate of expansion and the determination to expand access to all levels of education.
The capital expenditures incorporate allocations within the annual Public Sector Investment Programme. In all, the Ministry of Education and the Maldives College together received 10.5 percent of the total allocations and additional contingency funds in both 1997 and 1998, increasing to 15.4 percent in 1999. The allocation in 2001 was Rfs. 6.6 million for the College and Rfs. 31.6 million for the Ministry of Education and a combined share of 12.8 percent of the total. Aggregating the allocations to the Ministry of Education and the College and dividing between expenditures in Male and on the atolls, the shares for the atolls between 1997 and 2000 were 65, 62, 48, and 55 percent. For the Ministry's expenditures alone, the shares were 65, 62 56 and 58 percent respectively. In both cases, the atolls' share has been decreasing and is now well below their 72 percent share of the population.

In general, each school with over 1000 pupils receives a separate budget. This applies to all Male schools. However, the bulk of atoll schools are smaller than this and the budgets for all of these are aggregated into the single item 'inter Atoll schools'. These schools cover a mix of primary, middle, and secondary grades. As a result, there is no division in the budget between basic and secondary education. A third item of the budget is Development Project Grants and Loans. In 2001, five of the forty projects were in the education sector.

NEPAL

Laws and other basic regulations concerning education

Article 18 of the Constitution specifies that: (a) each community residing within Nepal shall have the right to preserve and promote its language and culture; and (b) each community shall have the right to operate schools up to the primary level in its own mother tongue for imparting education to children. According to Article 26, the State: shall pursue a policy of making the female population participate, to a greater extent, in the task of national development by making special provisions for their education, health and employment (7); shall make necessary arrangements to safeguard the rights and interests of children and shall ensure that they are not exploited, and shall make gradual arrangements for free education (8); shall pursue such policies in matters of education, health and social security of orphans, helpless women, the aged, the disabled and incapacitated persons as will ensure their protection and welfare (9); and shall pursue a policy which will help promote the interests of the economically and socially backward groups and communities by making special provisions with regard to their education, health and employment (10).


In accordance with the Local Self-governance Act of 1999, committees are established at the district and village levels for managing and monitoring school activities.

The Education Act 7th Amendment of 2002 recognises both the school-based pre-primary classes and community-based Early Childhood Development (ECD) centres.

Primary education is free. Under the Ninth Plan (1997-2002), the government envisaged compulsory primary education as a strategy to achieve universal access to and completion of primary education. The current strategy aims to mobilize local bodies and communities to achieve universal primary education and, through the provisions of incentives, to attract children to school. The Ninth Plan (1997-2002) envisaged setting up a national standard of primary education. A minimum of 180 school days per year were to be made compulsory. Free and compulsory education will mean the introduction of legal obligations for families to send to school their children who are in the age group 5 to 10 years until they complete five years of schooling. Compulsory primary education will be implemented in a phased manner.

“There is no provision of compulsory education. There is still no right based educational provision in place yet. However this has been considered for school sector reform program to be implemented in 2009. The right based education will apply for the basic education up to grade 8.” [Source: Ministry of Education and Sports. EFA Mid-decade Assessment. National Report of Nepal. Draft, August 2007.]
Administration and management of the education system

Educational planning and management at all levels is under the responsibility of the Ministry of Education (currently the Ministry of Education and Sports). The Minister and his/her supporting staff direct the activities of three major divisions: the Administration Division, the Educational Administration Division and the Planning Division.

The functions of the Administration Division include personnel management, recruitment, transfers and promotions. In addition, the division is responsible for public relations and property management. The division consists of five sections: General and Personnel Administration; Financial Administration; Legal Counselling; Store and Property Management; and Engineering.

The Educational Administration Division is also divided into five sections: Non-Formal Education; Training and Social Welfare; Women’s Education; Higher Education and Scholarships; and School Administration.

The Planning Division prepares annual agendas in line with the national educational policies. This division also carries out monitoring and evaluation activities in conjunction with programme implementation. Its final task is to maintain a database in order to provide information on educational activities. The division consists of three sections: Programme and Planning; Evaluation and Monitoring; and Statistics and Computers.

Nepal is divided into five educational regions led by Regional Education Directorates (RED). Headquarters are located in Dhankuta (eastern region), Kathmandu (central region), Pokhara (western region), Surkhet (mid-western region), and Dipayal (far-western region). The Directorates are instrumental in maintaining uniformity and co-ordination within their respective regions. To achieve this objective, the REDs conduct research; appoint staff to the District Education Committees and the Teacher Education Committees; and recruit teachers for the lower secondary and secondary schools of the region. They are active in: conducting the nation-wide School Leaving Certificate examinations; organizing training seminars for administrators and teachers; supervising formal and non-formal programmes; and overseeing the financial administration for lower secondary and secondary schools.

The five educational regions are further divided into districts. There are seventy-five districts in Nepal that are each, in turn, divided into four to fourteen supervision blocks. The amount of supervision blocks is proportionate to population and geographic size of the district. Each District Education Office (DEO) implements district-level policies following the instructions of the Regional Directorates and the Minister of Education. Having closer relations with individual schools, DEOs provide professional support to school administrators, teachers, and students; recruit and transfer teachers; prepare statistical reports; establish new schools and strengthen existing ones; organize training seminars and extracurricular activities; and conduct district-level examinations.
While REDs and DEOs do respond to the needs specific to their regions, major decision-making is highly centralized. However, as efforts are being made to make primary education universally free and compulsory, the empowerment of regional offices will be necessary to enforce such legislation.

There are also a variety of constituent offices that serve the Ministry’s mandate. The Curriculum Development Centre (CDC) develops curricula, textbooks and materials. It also organizes seminars and workshops, carries out studies on curriculum-related problems in schools, arranges for free textbook distribution in primary schools, and provides reference materials for pupils.

The Distance Education Centre addresses the needs of school teachers and students via radio. With the comprehensive goal of making education accessible to all, it broadcasts programmes to train teachers and non-formal programmes for adults and out-of-school children.

The Office of the Controller of Examinations conducts the School Leaving Certificate (SLC) examinations. This involves carrying out the policies and decisions of the SLC Board, supervising the exams, publishing results, awarding certificates, organizing seminars to improve the system, maintaining records, and disseminating statistical information.

The last major centre under the Ministry of Education’s supervision is the National Centre for Educational Development. It was created in 1993 to provide technical support and train education personnel for the comprehensive goal of technologically advanced administration operations.

Finally, there are several institutions and bodies that are associated with the Ministry, but that operate with relative autonomy. Three of these are universities: Tribhuvan University, Mahendara Sanskrit University and Kathmandu University.

The National Council for Non-Formal Education implements policies aimed at promoting and expanding non-formal education. The Janak Material Centre publishes and distributes textbooks.

The Council for Technical Education and Vocational Training was revamped in 1993 to operate technical schools, train teachers at the Technical Instructor Training Institute, assess manpower needs, and establish standards and testing.

Since the implementation of the Higher Secondary Education Act, the Higher Secondary Education Board has extended the secondary school system to Grades XI and XII, implementing the necessary curricula, textbooks and examinations. The Board also established and maintains ties between higher secondary schools and national and international universities.

The Special Education Council has been established to develop policies for special education programmes and to co-ordinate and supervise activities implemented in this field.
In order to strengthen and consolidate activities related to basic and primary education, since May 1999 the Ministry of Education has established a **Department of Education** (DOE) at the central level, headed by the Director General. The DOE is responsible for planning, programming, implementation and monitoring of basic and primary education programmes through its regional and district-level offices. The National Centre for Educational Development, the Distance Education Centre, the Curriculum Development Centre, and the Non-Formal Education Centre have been entrusted with responsibilities in specialized areas such as teacher training, curriculum and textbook development and non-formal education, respectively.

Pre-primary education is available only to a small minority of children exclusively in urban settings. All pre-primary schools are private and charge fees. The Basic and Primary Education Project is working to broaden the network of pre-primary educational institutions.

Community participation in the development of early childhood development (ECD) has been the strategy of the government since the Seventh Plan (1987-1992). Accordingly, provision was made for opening pre-primary schools by communities, NGOs, groups or individuals. This provision was made primarily to address the problems of the high repetition rate in Grade I, which was particularly due to the enrolment of under-age children. Many schools needed to open different sections, particularly for low achievers, which consisted mainly of under-age children coming to the primary schools with their elder siblings. Although primary school regulations require that a child should be 6 years old in order to enrol in Grade I, many instances of primary schools have been found where a large number of children below that age have been admitted. This situation has arisen because of the lack of other provisions for pre-school age children. The situation is likely to remain for some years to come. In most of the cases where younger children are admitted to Grade I, children stay in the school for two years or more. Some schools have formed what they call children’s classes.

In the early 1990s, pre-primary classes were established to enhance the quality of primary education by preparing pre-school age children for school. This was also an important strategy to reduce the high repetition and drop-out rates at primary level. The Ninth Plan aims to make early childhood centres different from the primary school, and to make them community-based centres for the overall development of a child within a playful and enjoyable environment. The high-level National Commission for Education (1997) has also emphasized the need for developing child-friendly ECD centres in the community. Through this strategy of community-based ECD, the government aims to build up partnership with the communities in management as well as in cost-sharing. Under the provisions of the Basic and Primary Education Project (BPEP) II, in order for a community to run a *Shishu Kakshya* (SK—child-care centre), it should first of all form a management committee to work out the details of running an ECD centre, then formally apply to the District Education Office for permission to run the centre. The community must provide a room and other physical facilities necessary for running the SK. The community should also make provision for the salary of the SK teacher. The BPEP II responsibility is limited to providing training to the SK facilitators, making some of the teaching/learning support materials and facilitator guidebooks available.

The Pre-primary Education Unit in the Curriculum Development Centre has developed a pre-primary curriculum. It has conducted a number of training activities for pre-primary teachers. In 1999, an Early Childhood Development Section was established under the Department of Education to look after the ECD development needs in the country.
Almost all of the 4,000 private schools in Nepal have pre-primary nursery and kindergarten classes. Most of these private schools have three sections: nursery, lower kindergarten and upper kindergarten.

The source for all school textbooks is the Janak Educational Materials Centre (JEMC), earlier known as Educational Materials Organization, established in 1958. Since the introduction of the New Education System Plan in 1971, the JEMC has been producing and distributing school textbooks across the country. The Centre has been rendering services as a public limited company under the Company Act of the Kingdom of Nepal. The Board of Directors is comprised of representatives from concerned ministries and organizations.

The coordinating body for non-formal education programmes is the National Council for Non-Formal Education, created in 1992. Established policies include: (a) a cluster approach to literacy expansion; (b) distribution of free materials; (c) an effective monitoring system; (d) increased participation of NGOs and the private sector; and (e) a focus on women.

For children between the ages of 8 and 14 who have not had access to primary education, the aim is to compensate their lack of education through special courses and then integrate them into the normal schooling track. Adults aged 15-45 are taught functional knowledge and skills in reading, writing and mathematics. Adults also have the opportunity of continuing their education beyond the basics through post-literacy and continuing education programmes. A provision is made to link such programmes with development activities operating on a local level.

Grassroots involvement is vital to the non-formal education approach. The implementation of strategies mainly depends on local participation. While the Council provides policy directives and supervision guidelines, it is the community that researches, designs and implements the programmes. Teachers in the non-formal education system are identified as “facilitators” and they are appointed not on a regular basis, but on a programme basis. Facilitators are selected from the members of the community who have completed secondary education and they normally receive a two-week training course on conducting non-formal classes.

The recruitment into the teaching profession is made through free and open competitions for any qualified citizen, without any quota or reservation system. The district teacher selection committees select primary teachers and the five regional teacher selection committees select lower secondary and secondary teachers. The Tribhuvan University’s Faculty of Education and the Higher Secondary Education Board (higher secondary schools, 10+2 stream) are the main agencies providing pre-service teacher training.

In most cases, teachers’ working conditions are not satisfactory. The working environment is not very encouraging. Most schools and colleges have poor physical facilities and are poorly equipped. Salary scales are established according to the public service salary scale. Though the teaching profession is socially reputable and has many indirect benefits, it is generally not considered a financially rewarding one. However, job opportunities are so scarce that being appointed as teacher is not easy and candidates experience a stiff competition. Career opportunities are scarce, especially at the primary level.

The geographical characteristics of Nepal create problems which are difficult to cope with. The northern belt of the country, with its high mountains and valleys, is a
remote and very cold region. In such areas, human settlements continuously move up and down in order to avoid excessive coldness, and schools shift up and down as well. In lower areas, schools are not shifted, but they remain closed for about three or four months due to snow. Sometimes, after the winter vacations, schools are officially open, but there are no pupils in the class because they have not yet returned. Retaining teachers in such a harsh environment is a major problem. A remote area allowance is granted in order to attract and retain teachers in such difficult situations. The amount of the allowance varies, depending upon the remoteness of the area, the highest being a 100% addition to the salary.

On average, a teacher has to spend four to five hours per day in actual teaching activities. In addition, teachers are expected to work not only in the classroom, and to interact with their students as well as with the community. A teacher is expected to be: a social advisor, a development agent, a mediator between the community and the authorities, the elites and the poor, the traditional values and the modernity. Teachers in private educational establishments are not in a better position than public school teachers. In general, they work more and are paid less. Some well-established private schools, however, pay high salaries, but teachers have to work hard and there is no job security.

In-service teacher training is a high priority for the country. The National Centre for Educational Development (NCED) is an apex body for conducting in-service training programmes for educational administrators, managers, technicians and primary school teachers. The Basic and Primary Education Project also provides in-service training to primary teachers. Under this project professional support is provided to teachers through weekly meetings within one school cluster. A school cluster is generally comprised of ten to fifteen schools with one school acting as resource centre. This programme has been launched in recent years in forty districts. Professional support to teachers is also provided through radio and television programmes, educational journals, magazines and periodical publications. Seminars and workshops are regularly organized by government agencies, NGOs and teachers’ associations.

For secondary level teachers, the only agency providing in-service training opportunities is the Secondary Education Development Project. This project offers in-service training only to science, mathematics and English subject teachers.

[Source: WDE]

“Compared to the mid-1980s the share of government expenditure devoted to education has increased considerably and is similar to that in surrounding countries. However, per capita allocations remain among the lowest in the world and while public resources from government and donors are likely to continue to increase marginally they will remain low relative to the needs until the economy achieves higher sustained rates of growth.

Levels of adult literacy and current participation in the educational system in Nepal are relatively low even for the South Asia region. The literacy rate in 1995 was 36 percent. There are significant geographical differences in rates: in the Kathmandu Valley literacy is 76 percent while in the rural central Terai it is just 23 percent. Of the population below 24 years who have ever attended school, the lowest rates are for females living in rural locations in all regions and for males in the Eastern and Western Terai.

A recent internal study undertaken within the Ministry of Education shows that out of every 100 children who enroll in grade 1, only eighteen will complete the primary cycle five years later and 63 will complete eventually. Thirty-seven will dropout
altogether and 45 will repeat at least one grade. On average, those who do graduate take two years more than the prescribed time. The combined enrollment and completion rates indicate that only just over two out of every five Nepalese children complete a primary schooling. The quality of primary schooling is difficult to assess. However, the results from a recent national survey of learning achievement of grade III students indicate that the level in public schools is quite low.

There are three types of secondary schools: government-aided, community and private. The Government provides all teacher salaries in aided lower secondary schools and 60 percent of salaries in secondary schools. Community schools are constructed and initially run by communities, hoping for conversion to aided schools. There are over 1000 such schools. In addition, there are 300-500 private schools situated in urban centers, mainly run by individuals for profit. Out of every 100 students entering the first year of lower secondary, 25 drop out by the end of the second year and 40 complete the whole five-year cycle (grade 10).

Until 1994, tuition fees were charged in publicly supported secondary schools. These were abolished under the free education policy. Somewhat ironically, since then the virtual freeze on the establishment of new public schools and the general limitation of resources for this sub sector has resulted in restrictions on access and on quality promoting inputs leading to a burgeoning of private schools with much higher fees. Enrolments in private schools have been increasing at a faster rate than in the public schools and for grades 9 and 10 are now around 30 percent of the total.

Public financing of higher education in Nepal essentially means the financing of Tribhuvan University and its constituent campuses. Public funding for higher education has been squeezed since the mid-1980s. Real allocations have increased by 3.4 percent on average, and recurrent allocations by 5.9 percent, while enrolment growth has averaged 9 percent until recently. Simultaneously, other sources of income have increased but from a relatively low level. For instance, tuition fees, which had not been changed since 1974 were increased in 1991 and are Rs. 500 for certificate courses and Rs. 600 a year for degree courses (equivalent to less than US$ 10). Other fees amount to around Rs. 200 a year. The overall result of these trends is that real public expenditures per student in higher education have been falling.” [Source: World Bank. Nepal. Public Expenditure Review. Volume III: Social Sectors. Report No. 20211-NEP, March 2000.]

“The emphasis of the government is to decentralize school management and invite people to manage the schools. This policy has been widely circulated to the DEO, RCs, and the teacher training centres as well as schools. In that sense there is awareness programs at the district level. Besides community people and NGOs, CBOs are encouraged to support in the process. There is however no inbuilt mechanism in the regular system to bring public awareness to this effect

Decentralization of authority to local bodies has been taken as a key strategy to enhance efficiency in ECD implementation and ensure sustainability of the ECD programmes. Through the enactment of Local Self Governance Act the local elected bodies—VDCs and Municipalities have been delegated the authority to run ECD centres through partnerships with NGOs, CBOs and local groups and authorize the interested bodies to run ECD centers. Guidelines have been developed to facilitate the process of decentralization and empower local bodies to run ECD programmes. VDCs and Municipalities can open and/or give approval to ECD centres as per the local need. VDCs and municipalities have taken responsibility to approve the ECD centers in its locality.

The responsibility to manage and operate ECD centres rests on the local bodies, whereas pre-primary classes are the responsibility of the schools with extensive
community support and participation. Both programmes are being implemented on the principle of cost sharing. Schools will have to identify ways of sharing the cost if stakeholders perceive a local demand for pre-school classes. Partnership between schools and CBOs/NGOs has been encouraged.

According to the census 2001, 46.3% people above 6 years of age and 56% above 15 years of age are still illiterate. Similarly, according to the annual school based data of MOES 2006, of the total primary school age children 13% are never enrolled in school, 45.4% of the children enrolled in primary schools drop out without completing grade five. Drop-out occurs mostly at grade one, which stands at 14.5%.

Recently, the national curriculum framework (NCF 2006) for grades 1-12 has been approached by the Curriculum Council for national wide application. This has an immediate implication for the proposed restructuring of school education member status 1-8 as primary and 9-12 as secondary level.

Use of ICT in education is still at a preliminary stage in Nepal. Some private schools have introduced the provision in small scale. Recently, the government of Nepal has declared a policy of providing one laptop per student under the Danish assistance.

Regarding the training status at present the percentage of trained teachers is 59.9 (2006) as opposed to 16.23 in 2002 (Joint Government–Donor Evaluation of BPEP II). Similarly, percentage of trained female teachers has also increased. It was 28.64 in 2002. At present (2006), percentage of fully trained female teachers in all types of schools is 56.8. However among the untrained teachers female’s proportion is still slightly higher than that of males.” [Source: Ministry of Education and Sports. EFA Mid-decade Assessment. National Report of Nepal. Draft, August 2007.]

The financing of education

The major sources of educational financing are the central government’s budget, local communities, international and non-governmental organizations, and the private sector. Expenditure on education, as a percentage of total government expenditure, increased from 13.5% in 1993/94 to 13.7% in 1995/96.

The distribution of the 1995/96 education budget was as follows: 54% to primary education; 18% to secondary and higher secondary education; 17% to the universities; 4% to technical and vocational education; 2% to the administration; and 5% to other expenditure.

The central government is fully responsible for teacher salaries. It also financially contributes to facility construction and maintenance through the Basic and Primary Education Project, but labour and resources are provided by local communities. In financial terms, the government has provided 60% of the needed construction costs and communities have contributed the remaining 40%. The Primary Education Development Project, funded by the Asian Development Bank, provides financial assistance for facility construction as well.

With the exception of private institutions, the higher education system is highly subsidized by the government. Government’s financial support accounts for about 91% of the Tribhuvan University budget and 98% of the Mahendra Sanskrit University budget. The private sector contributes between 20% to 25% of total higher education expenditure.
Efforts are being made to increase the participation of the private sector in the financing of higher education.

According to national estimates, in 2003 the budget of the education sector represented 15.8% of the government budget, 3% of GDP and 2.8% of GNP.

[Source: WDE]

“Total expenditure on education was estimated to be almost Rs. 10 billion in 1994/95, equal to 4.7 percent of GDP. Of this, households contributed 42 percent, Government, 38 percent and donors, 20 percent.

Of total expenditures, 45 percent are for primary and non-formal education, 32 percent for secondary, 6 percent for technical and vocational and 16 percent for tertiary education. The distribution of expenditures by source varies significantly by level of education. In primary education, household expenditures are equal to 35 percent of the total and in secondary they fund 72 percent of the total. These shares contrast starkly to the 18 percent in tertiary education. Another way of presenting this is to say that a majority (55 percent) of household expenditure on education is for secondary schooling with 38 percent for primary schooling and only 8 percent for higher education. The high share of household expenditure in primary and secondary schooling requires some explanation: two thirds cover the costs of children attending public schools. These costs include registration fees, textbooks, private tutoring, clothes and school supplies. The average amount spent per child by households is Rs. 172 for public primary school, Rs. 708 for public secondary school and Rs. 1516 for higher education. In the case of primary and secondary schooling, one third of these totals is for books. Fewer than 14 percent of total education expenditure finances private institutions.

The largest share of government expenditure is for primary education (57 percent), followed by secondary (22 percent) and tertiary (18 percent). The distribution of donor finance in any single year is, typically, lumpy and subject to change. In 1994/95, it was almost equally distributed between primary, technical/vocational and tertiary education. Very little was provided for secondary schooling. The main divergence of donor funding from household or government priorities was in technical and vocational training, which was allocated 28 percent (compared with 1 and 0 percent by Government and households respectively).

Government expenditure on education as a share of GDP continually increased between 1981 and 1993, from 1.4 to 2.5 percent, apart from a brief period in the late 1980s. The share then remained constant to 1997 when it again increased, to 2.7 percent and has remained at around that level since.

Total government expenditure is divided between the regular budget and the development budget which, in general, cover ongoing and new activities, respectively. The sharp division in the expenditure series between 1993/4 and 1994/5 is due to the transfer of teachers' salaries from the development budget to the regular budget. Since 1994/5, education's share of the regular budget has remained constant at around 20 percent while the share of the development budget initially increased from 7.3 percent to 8.9 percent, then fell back to 6.1 percent and is budgeted at 7.9 percent for 1999/2000. While the overall trend in development expenditures is upward the year to year variations in share have been relatively large. While much of the development budget is donor supported and for specific time-bound projects, this degree of variation does suggest a

“The structure of education financing in Nepal is mainly that of central government in the form of the Ministry of Finance which allocates budget to the Ministry of Education to reach the schools. The government funding, public resource mobilization and private sector investments form the crux of the structure of financing of education. Private sector investment is in the form of development, management and operation of private schools. Parents pay full fees in private schools and the fees vary according to the services provided as well as the performance status achieved by the schools. Financial regulations and government or public record keeping system to keep track of the private sector finance of education is almost invisible. Private and Boarding School Organization of Nepal (PABSON) is the regulating body for the member schools. There are no other bodies or organizations to closely monitor and keep track of financing of education in private sector.

Currently, the government has promulgated school education regulations for community management of schools whereby communities will have both authority as well as responsibility to develop and operate schools to address their needs for quality education. The government provides earmarked fund for teacher salaries as well as incentives and performance grants to support development activities. Since public sector contribution comes in an informal budgetary environment, tracking and record keeping system of such contribution at the national level is almost invisible. The magnitude of public contribution is presumably large but no figure or estimation is available to substantiate it.

Donor fund has become a very important part of education financing in Nepal for the last several decades. Currently several friendly countries, development partners and donor agencies are providing fund support to the government of Nepal in education sector. The major donors include DANIDA, NORAD, FINIDA, DFID, EC, JAICA, The World Bank and ADB. In the current fiscal year 2007-2008, the share education budget is as follows: Government 73% and foreign assistance 27%. The significant share of the donor support comes under major national programs undertaken inline with the major international movement such as EFA, MDG and SSA. The donor funding mainly covers the development aspects that address issued as equity in access, betterment of quality, ensuring inclusive environment, betterment of management and institutional capacity building.” [Source: Ministry of Education and Sports. EFA Mid-decade Assessment. National Report of Nepal. Draft, August 2007.]
PAKISTAN

Laws and other basic regulations concerning education

The Constitution (1973) ensures equality and well-being of all citizens, and no discrimination on the basis of sex, caste, creed or race. Article 37 indicates that: “The State shall: (a) promote with special care the educational and economic interests of backward classes or areas; (b) remove illiteracy and provide free and compulsory education within the minimum possible period; and (c) make technical and professional education generally available and higher education equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.”

The government’s commitment to enforce the compulsory education legislation to achieve universal primary education by the year 2010 is amply manifested in the provisions incorporated both in the NEP of 1998 and the Ninth Five-year Plan (1999-2004).

Full utilization of existing capacity at the basic level has been ensured by introducing a double shift in existing schools. It is envisaged that the expansion of basic education at unprecedented rate shall enable the government to promulgate and implement the Compulsory Primary Education Act. It is expected that the gross participation rate will rise to 105% by the year 2010. Consequently, the promulgation and enforcement of the Compulsory Primary Education Act should be possible in a near future.

In pursuance of the 1979 Education Policy measures to encourage participation of the private sector in educational development, the Punjab Private Institutions (Promotion and Regulation) Ordinance No. II was adopted in 1984. Similar Ordinances were adopted by the Governments of Northwest Frontier Province (NWFP) and Sindh. These Ordinances provide for the registration of all private institutions with the Registration Authority. The constitution of a managing body for each institution spells out the conditions for registration.

Administration and management of the education system

The country is a federation of four provinces, each with a parliamentary system (Punjab, Sindh, Northwest Frontier Province—NWFP, and Balochistan), and other territories under the direct administration of the federal government (Federally Administered Northern Areas—FANA, and Federally Administered Tribal Areas—FATA). The division of responsibilities between the provinces and the centre has been defined by the 1973 Constitution and subsequent agreements.

Education has been and is primarily a provincial matter, under the Federal Ministry of Education (MOE). The federal government continues to be the overall
policy-making, coordinating, and advisory authority on education. Educational institutions located in the federal capital territory, the centres of excellence, the area study centres and other institutions in various parts of the country are administered by the MOE. The **Federal Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education (FBISE)**, established under the FBISE Act of 1975, is an autonomous body of the Ministry of Education. It is empowered with administrative and financial authority to organize, regulate, develop and control intermediate and secondary education in general, and conduct examinations in the institutions affiliated with it. Universities located in various provinces are administered by the provincial governments, but are funded by the federal government through the **University Grants Commission (UGC)**.

The executive authority in the MOE, headed by the Minister, is vested in the Secretary who ensures policies implementation in close collaboration with provincial education departments. The **Provincial Education Departments** are headed by the Ministers of education of the respective provinces and the executive authority is vested in the Secretaries of Education.

Each province is divided into regions/divisions for educational administrative purposes. Each **Regional/Divisional Office** is headed by a Director. The regions/divisions are further divided into **Districts** and the officer in charge of a district is the District Education Officer (DEO). The structure is moving towards a three-tier education system, namely elementary, secondary and higher education. In the provinces of Punjab and NWFP separate **Directorates** of Elementary, Secondary and College Education have been created. Problems pertaining to the new system have been addressed. The supervision of primary and elementary (middle) schools falls under the jurisdiction of the **Directorate of Public Instruction (DPI)—Elementary**—through Divisional Directors and District Education Officers. Secondary schools are under the administrative control of the **Directorate of Public Instruction (DPI)—Secondary**—through Divisional Directors and District Education Officers. A separate **Directorate of Public Instruction (DPI)—Colleges**—through Divisional Directors is responsible for the administration of colleges. The Provinces of Sindh and Balochistan and the Federal Capital Territory are still exploring the possibility of introducing the three-tier education system of education. The NEP of 1998 has been developed on the assumption of this three-tier system.

Under the Local Government Ordinance 2001, the Provincial Governments have established District Governments, which are responsible for the management and control of offices of the departments, which are decentralized to it or may be set up under the Ordinance, provided that the District Governments shall exercise such authority within the district in accordance with the general policy of the government. Under the Ordinance, education up to the college level (except professional colleges) and technical education has been devolved to the Districts.

Universities are autonomous bodies supervised and controlled by their own syndicates which are appointed by the Governors of the respective provinces. Each syndicate is headed by a vice-chancellor who is the academic and administrative head of the university, and who also heads the syndicate and the various academic and administrative bodies of the university. The Governors of the respective provinces are ex-officio chancellors of the universities in their domains. Universities located in the federal area have the President of Pakistan as ex-officio chancellor.
The Literacy and Mass Education Commission was established in 1981 for the purpose of carrying out surveys of the status of literacy in the country, developing plans for literacy and non-formal mass education suited to the needs of target population, making recommendations to the Federal Government for the integration of indigenous skills and vocational know-how in the literacy programmes, and review of the effectiveness of the on-going programmes of literacy and mass education. [...] Each province has its own Literacy and Mass Education Council constituted through provincial legislation/ordinances. The provincial councils are the main agencies for planning, co-ordination, securing and disbursement of funds in the respective provinces, and serve as the working arms of the Literacy and Mass Education Commission for the implementation of all its literacy programmes. The Literacy and Mass Education Commission has been recently renamed as Prime Minister’s Literacy Commission (PMLC), whose task is to raise the literacy rate in the country.

The establishment of the Academy of Educational Planning and Management (AEPAM) was recommended within the framework of the 1979 NEP for the training of educational planners, administrators and supervisors. Accordingly, the AEPAM became functional in 1982 as an autonomous organization of the Ministry of Education with the following objectives: to identify and evaluate various projects based on modern planning and management techniques; to collect and consolidate educational statistics and information; to provide in-service training to planners and administrators so as to enhance their capabilities in planning, management and use of computers; to offer pre-service training to those educators who are being considered for appointment as educational administrators and planners at various levels; to contract and carry out action-oriented research in order to facilitate the effective implementation of the Action Plan and the National Education Policy formulation; to provide expert advisory services to the provincial education departments and other institutions in the country when required.

Since its inception, the Academy has conducted a number of in-service training programmes in educational planning and management and several research studies, surveys and reports in areas such as: primary, secondary, higher, vocational, and women education; teacher education; structure and organization of the education system; financing of education; educational statistics; educational information; educational policy and planning. The Academy has also developed professional linkages with several international agencies.

Established in June 2002, the National Commission for Human Development (NCHD) is a public private partnership created under the directive of the President of Pakistan with a mission to promote development in the fields of health, education and micro-finance. It is funded through the Pakistan Human Development Fund registered under the Company’s Ordinance 1984. In the field of education, the NCHD aims to support the government in achieving EFA objectives by 2015 by providing technical assistance in teacher training, syllabus development and instruction in practical life skills, as well as securing the participation and commitment of communities. Currently, the NCHD is operating in 32 districts and its core strategy consists of: (i) public private partnership; (ii) capacity building of government’s line departments, community organizations and selected officials; and (iii) community ownership and participation.
Early Childhood Education (ECE), termed *katchi* or pre-primary classes, is defined as formal and informal as well as public or private education services for children aged above 3 years and below 5 years. Besides the *katchi* classes in government schools, several private schools also conduct pre-primary classes. Nursery, kindergarten or Montessori style education are offered in profit-making private schools, usually operating in urban localities; and enrolling children aged 2-5 years taught in proper classrooms by well-trained teachers using proper ECE materials.

In public primary schools, especially in rural areas, children below 5 years of age attend school informally and learn basic concepts of literacy and numeracy. But their number is still limited as compared to the total population in the age group 3-5 years. In private schools, pre-primary education is well organized being an essential part of primary education. Almost all such schools arrange pre-primary education in the form of pre-nursery, nursery, or kindergarten I and II classes.

As various ministries/departments are responsible for a variety of services addressed to various age groups, there seems to be no clear-cut division in the ministerial responsibility of providing early childhood services on the basis of age. For example, children between the ages 0-3 years are not only served by health care services (post-natal care, immunization, etc.) in public units such as basic health units (BHU)s and rural health centres (RHC)s and public hospitals run by the Ministry of Health but also by the government’s Lady Health Workers (LHW)s who visit homes in rural areas and the frequent polio drives organized all over the country. In addition, there are the day-care facilities provided for working mothers by the Ministry of Women Development, Social Welfare and Special Education. Child care also extends beyond 3 years of age, when early childhood education, implemented by the Ministry of Education, begins for preschool learners.

The Ministry of Education, Curriculum Wing, approves the curriculum for uniform implementation across the country. In order to assist the Curriculum Wing, four federating units have set up a Bureau of Curriculum and Education Extension Centres. Their task is to collect opinions from the stakeholders, prepare the draft curriculum and submit it to the Curriculum Wing, where national curriculum development committees (consisting of experts, teachers, teacher educators, subject experts, textbook authors and researchers) analyze the drafts and produce a mutually agreed draft of the national curriculum, which is circulated for comments before its universal adoption. Before implementation, the curriculum is tested at micro and macro levels. In order to translate the curriculum into text, each federating unit has established a Textbook Board which develops the manuscripts with public and private partnership. Master trainers are trained in the contents and methods by the Ministry of Education in order to replicate the training in the provinces. The selection of subjects is made taking into account societal and global needs and standards and a National Scheme of Studies for Grades I-XII is finally adopted.

The curriculum is revised every 5-10 years. The process of curriculum development follows a cyclic order: (i) identification of societal needs and framing of aims and objectives accordingly; (ii) selection of contents; (iii) translation of contents into textbooks; and (iv) evaluation. A major change has been the recent introduction of integrated curricula for Grades I-III concentrating on: basic language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing); mathematics; social studies, science, Islamiyat (Islamic education) and subject matters of arts, etc. (concepts, skills and activities), presented in one textbook meant for each grade as a language book.
In a preparatory document prepared by the Ministry of Education in collaboration with UNESCO in May 2003, a general picture of inputs in public schools has been portrayed as follows: Provisions in primary schools particularly the rural primary schools are very poor; Nearly 1/6 of the primary schools are shelterless; The schools with building have insufficient accommodation—two rooms and a veranda; Students mostly sit on mats/tat; Textbooks for teachers: Never provided; Teaching kit: Supplied in mid 1970s, never updated or repaired. Teachers hesitate to use it due to fear of breakage; Copy of curriculum: never provided; Resource materials: never provided; Community support is very low, but is being sought through various modes.

[Source: WDE]

The financing of education

The federal government provides funds to provinces for capital expenditure. Recurring expenditure on education is borne by the respective provincial governments. Allocation to the education sector has been in the range of 1.68% to 2.4% of the Gross National Product (GNP) during the last decade. An analysis of Five-year Plans from 1955 onwards reveals the following: the allocation of funds for education has been incongruent with the plan provisions; the utilization of funds in primary education has been dismally low compared to other sub-sectors; the utilization of funds for the university sub-sector has favourably matched with the plan allocations; the highest utilization of funds has occurred during the Non-plan Period (1970-78).

The GDP in 2001/02 was Rs3,988 billion. The allocation for education represented 1.98% of the GDP. In the following financial year the GDP rose to Rs4,193 billion and allocation for education was 2.14% of the GDP. The GDP in 2003/04 was projected at Rs 4,445 billion and allocation made for education amounted to 2.7% of the GDP. Notwithstanding the increased allocations for education made by the provincial governments, the district governments are constrained by limitation of resources as also the capacity to utilize them. Many district governments have only a modest understanding of the need to allocate higher resources for non-salary expenditure. Current data indicates that the district governments are allocating less than 5% of the salary expenditure for non-salary expenses. The allocation of development funds for education by the district governments presents an uneven picture. Most of the district governments in Balochistan have been unable to allocate any development funds for education during the year 2003/04 claiming paucity of resources. Many district governments in NWFP have made nominal allocations in the development budget for education. Some district governments have ignored the education sector altogether as their priorities lie elsewhere.

[Source: WDE]

“Education in Pakistan is a provincial subject. According to the National Finance Commission Award, provinces receive funds from the federal divisible pool in accordance with a formula, largely based on the provincial shares of population. The provinces then, along with their own resources, allocate funds across various sectors, depending on their respective priorities. The provincial level allocations to education
sector varies between 20 percent –30 percent, Punjab, on average, allocates the highest funds to education followed by NWFP (period 1998/99 to 2002/03). There is a general declining trend in allocations to education. The major proportions of provincial education budgets, like national education budget, are spent on recurrent heads. At present (2002/03), on average, this proportion ranges between 80 percent in Balochistan to 95 percent in Punjab. As such, little amounts are left for development expenditures. Particularly, in Punjab only 5 percent of the education budget is spent on development heads. On the other hand the proportion is close to 20 percent in Balochistan.

With the start of the devolution plan in recent years now districts receive funds from the respective provinces in accordance with a formula. The districts then, along with their own resources, allocate funds across various sectors, including Education sector. Regarding allocations to the education sector at the district level for the year 2001-02, education gets an allocation, in general, close to 60 percent. The range varies between 50 percent—67 percent in Punjab and 44 percent –72 percent in Sindh. However, the major proportions of budgets are spent on recurrent heads leaving little amount for development expenditures. In general, about 5 percent of education budgets are spent in development heads whereas, the proportion is as little as 1.93 percent in Dadu. Only 2 of 34 districts in Punjab and 1 of 16 districts in Sindh allocates more than 10 percent of education budgets in development heads.” [Source: Pakistan Institute of Development Economics (various authors). Analysis of Public Expenditure on Education in Pakistan. Munich Personal RePEc Archive, MPRA Paper No. 2722, 2003.]

“Pakistan's public sector consists of four main types of entities: (1) the federal government, which plays the dominant role in revenue mobilization and in non-development oriented current expenditures (mainly defense and interest) as well as funding most of the Public Sector Development Program (PSDP); (2) the four provincial governments, which account for the lion's share of development-oriented current expenditures and the government administrative apparatus and employment (three jurisdictions are directly administered by the federal government—the Federally Administered Tribal Areas (FATA), Federally Administered Northern Areas (FANA), and Islamabad Capital Territory (ICT)—and Azad Jammu and Kashmir (AJK) has a quasi-independent status but its expenditures are covered by the federal budget); (3) local government bodies, which have limited autonomy and whose functions have been increasingly centralized under provincial control; and (4) public enterprises, which are involved in a broad range of economic activities and dominate key energy and infrastructure sectors as well as finance. Comprehensive information is not available about the spending of local bodies, much of which is incorporated into provincial expenditure figures.

Weaknesses in the programming and budgeting of public expenditures adversely affect prioritization and effectiveness. A programmatic perspective is usually missing, partly because of the sharp demarcation between development and recurrent spending. Public investment planning is focused on projects rather than on sectoral objectives and programs, and incremental budgeting of current expenditures is the norm. The approach is procedure-driven rather than results-oriented and tends to preserve or exacerbate existing structural rigidities.

Progressive centralization of public expenditure decision-making and management has occurred over the past several decades, involving both provincial encroachment on local government functions and increasing federal involvement in activities previously handled by the provinces. Examples include primary education,
health, and agriculture, among others. This reflects bureaucratic behavior (e.g. by the centralized elite civil service) as well as political pressures. The atrophy of local government institutions has adversely affected the delivery of many localized public services.

As a result of these problems, there is widespread dissatisfaction with the public sector in Pakistan. A striking manifestation is exit by the population from public sector institutions. Parents, even the urban poor who can ill-afford to do so, send their children to private schools when they are available.

Pakistan's four provinces account for 28.5% of total national budgetary expenditure and a much higher (54%) share of non-defense, non-interest spending. The bulk of public expenditures on education, health, agriculture, and rural water supply occur at the provincial level, while the provinces also account for a large share of total spending on roads, irrigation, urban services, and the wheat subsidy. Most of the government administrative apparatus is concentrated at the provincial level as well.

Problems are evident both in the basic structure of Pakistan's PEMS (public expenditure management system) and in the way the system is implemented in practice. At their root is continuous overcommitment of public resources. Any resource allocation system faces constant demands, but in Pakistan (as in many comparable countries) the PEMS exacerbates the undesirable effects. Pressure to increase spending is built into the way budgets are formulated. Departments bid against each other for funds, with the core agencies trimming the budget (ex ante or during implementation) to fit available resources. It is therefore a rational strategy for each department to bid well above the level of resources it is likely to get and to minimize its estimates of the costs of the activities for which it seeks funding. Similar competition for development funds takes place, with a strong incentive to get projects included in the Public Sector Development Program (PSDP), even if not adequately funded. Politically-driven demands for expenditure focus on public sector employment and initiation of favored projects.

The predominantly incremental approach to budgeting currently practised is reinforced by line-item, control-oriented budget documents unsuited for strategic or programmatic analysis. Budget preparation begins without explicit guidelines on funds available for each department or activity, leaving departments to take the previous year's budget as a natural starting point. The budget process itself focuses most attention on so-called "continuing" and "new" expenditures which together account for less than 10% of the total, leaving the bulk of spending to be carried forward by inertia.

The formal structure of Pakistan's civil service has not changed greatly from colonial times. It remains closed, centralized, and strictly controlled, in theory, by multitudinous rules and regulations. Once admitted to a particular cadre (District Management, Secretariat, Accounts, Taxation, Customs, etc., as well as technical cadres), staff progress on the basis of seniority. It is difficult to bring in needed skills and expertise from outside. Mobility among positions is restricted. Senior officials belong to an elite corps of generalists who are managed separately and frequently transferred from post to post. There are no formal written job descriptions." [Source: World Bank. Pakistan Public Expenditure Review: Reform Issues and Options. Report No. 18432-PAK, October 1998.][Note: It is not a recent review, but useful as a reference.]
Laws and other basic regulations concerning education

The Constitution of Sri Lanka, in its chapter on directive principles of State policy and fundamental duties, recognizes to all persons the right to universal and equal access to education at all levels.

The existing legislative framework comprises the Education Ordinance of 1939, the subsequent amendments to that ordinance and a number of acts enacted to set up various supportive bodies.

The main objective of enforcement of the Regulation on Compulsory Education (1997), which came into force in 1998, is to ensure that all children in the age group 5-14 years attend school. Special committees have been set up to motivate parents to send their children to schools, and some conditions related to entry requirements have been relaxed. A mass campaign using media is being carried out to ensure the provision of compulsory education. The regulation also indicates an intention of providing at least nine years of compulsory schooling. This intention is also reflected in the proposal under the education reforms to have a two-tier school structure with a nine-year elementary school and a four-year senior school.

An important constitutional amendment that led to far reaching effects on the management of the education system has been the 13th Amendment to the Constitution, which created the Provincial Council System. Under this piece of legislation most of the functions performed by the Central Government have been devolved to the Provincial Authorities.

Administration and management of the education system

The Ministry of Human Resources Development, Education and Cultural Affairs (MHRDECA, currently the Ministry of Education) is responsible for general education, pirivena education (see below), and teacher education nationwide. In addition to the Divisions in charge of the different programmes, there are the following major statutory institutions under the MHRDECA: the Department of Examinations and National Testing Service; the Department of Educational Publications; the National Institute of Education; and the National Library Services Board.

Education is a shared function between the centre and the provinces. The Ministry of Education is responsible for national policies and plans, the management of national schools (which are 323 in number), teacher education, higher education, as well as the maintenance of standards in all schools including quality assurance. There are eight Provincial Councils coterminous with the provinces except the North Eastern Provincial Council which is formed by temporarily merging the Northern province and the Eastern
province. There is a provincial Ministry of Education in each province under a Provincial Minister assisted by a Provincial Secretary of Education. The pre-schools and schools are managed by the provincial Departments of Education under a Provincial Director of Education. For purposes of administration, the provinces are divided into a number of Educational Zones headed by a Zonal Director of Education. The administrative functions and supervision of schools are mainly handled by the Zonal Education Office. Each Zone has approximately 100 to 150 schools. The Zones are further sub-divided into Divisions and the Divisional Officer in charge of a division functions as a field officer to assist the Zonal Director.

All public examinations are conducted by the Department of Examinations. Although it covers more than 400 different examinations each year, the Department's heaviest commitment is in the area of the following examinations: Grade V Scholarship at the end of primary education, General Certificate of Education Ordinary-level and GCE Advanced-level.

The Department of Educational Publications is responsible for preparing, editing, publishing and distributing of school textbooks. All textbooks for Years I-XI are provided free of charge to pupils, including those who attend private schools and pirivenas (see below).

The National Institute of Education, which functions under the MHRDECA, is responsible for implementation of activities mainly in the field of teacher training, educational management, curriculum development and educational research. The Institute carries out the above activities according to the policy decisions and changes undertaken by the government from time to time.

The Government appointed the National Education Commission (NEC) in 1991 as an advisory body in matters of reform and innovation, co-ordination and rationalization of educational policies. The NEC played a key role in policy-making at the national level. The National Human Resources Development Council (NHRDC) commenced functioning as a corporate body with effect from 1 January 1999. This was made possible through the provisions of the National Human Resources Development Council of Sri Lanka Act No. 18 of 1997. Up to then, it functioned as an administrative arrangement, by Cabinet decision, first, under the Ministry of Youth Affairs from 1987, and subsequently, under the Ministry of Science and Technology.

The mission of the Ministry of Tertiary Education and Training with non-Cabinet rank status (subsequently, the Ministry of Skills Development, Vocational and Technical Education) was to formulate and implement policies, strategies and plans in collaboration with all stakeholders in education and training including the employees in order to maintain an efficient tertiary education and training system which meets the challenging needs of the industry. Main statutory institutions under the Ministry included: the Tertiary and Vocational Education Commission; the Vocational Training Authority; the National Institute of Technical Education; the National Apprenticeship and Industrial Training Authority; the University Grants Commission; and the Open University of Sri Lanka. Currently (2007), The Universities come under the Ministry of Higher Education while technical education and vocational training is entrusted to the Ministry of Vocational and Technical Training. [See: Sri Lanka. EFA Mid-decade Assessment Report. N.d., presumably 2007.]
Established in 1979, the University Grants Commission (UGC) is the apex body of the university system in Sri Lanka which operates within the framework of the Universities Act No. 16 of 1978. The functions of the UGC are to: allocate funds to the universities and university institutes; serve as central admission agency for undergraduate studies in universities; plan, co-ordinate and monitor the activities of the university system with a view to maintaining standards; and implement the national policies in respect of university education. The UGC funds higher education, research and related activities at twenty-six institutions including: thirteen universities, six post-graduate institutes, and seven higher education institutes.

Policy implementation is increasingly becoming a provincial function with the establishment of the **Provincial Councils of Education**, in accordance with the Constitution adopted in 1978 and amended on 14 November 1987. **Zonal Offices** provide support services at the local level.

**A Presidential Task Force on Education** was set up in 1997 to make further and more detailed recommendations regarding educational reforms. The Provincial Councils of Education have the authority to decide implementation strategies within their areas of jurisdiction and control the schools and teacher deployment in the schools except in the case of national schools, which come directly under the MHRDECA (MEHE, 1999).

Schools in Sri Lanka are classified in different categories as follows: Type 1AB: Schools with classes up to GCE (A-level) in all streams including science; Type 1C: Schools with classes up to GCE (A-level) in arts and commerce streams; Type II: Schools with classes from grade 1 to 11, i.e. GCE (O-level); Type III: Primary schools, grades 1 to 5. The total number of schools managed by the government in 2003 was 9,790, out of which 323 were national schools under the Central Ministry and 9,467 schools were managed by the provinces.

The history of **pirivena** education goes back to the third century B.C., when Buddhism was first officially introduced. **Pirivena** is the institution which delivered the formal education from primary level to higher education, now classified as: **mulika pirivena** (Grades I-VI), **maha pirivena** (Grades VI-XI) and **pirivena vidyayathanaya** (from Grade X to higher education). Teacher salaries are paid by the government and these institutes are under the supervision of the MHRDECA.

Pre-primary education is only offered—mainly in urban areas—by private individuals and institutions, local government authorities and non-governmental organizations. Pre-primary schools generally cater to children aged 3-5. It is estimated that about 90% of children attend pre-school, although on a non-systematic basis.

Recognition of the critical importance of pre-school education has led the National Institute of Education to set up a Centre for Child Development and Research. The Centre has prepared a pre-school curriculum and trained master-teachers in the Western Province.

Experts of the National Committee on early childhood care and development (ECCD) are formulating the minimum requirements for the registration of pre-schools island-wide. A national basic curriculum for pre-schools is also being formulated. Pre-schools are to be renamed as ECCD Centres. The manual for trainers of pre-school teachers for guidance on use of the national basic curriculum is in progress.
Children’s Secretariat has initiated a programme to train national trainers, teachers and care givers on ECCD. The Ministry of Social Service and other relevant Ministries are jointly revising the National Policy on Early Childhood Care and Education.

Private schools must be registered with the MHRDECA and are inspected and approved by the ministry supervisory staff. Students in these schools must take the common examination administered by the Department of Examination. The major part of private schools is run by religious bodies (Catholic and Roman Catholic). Teachers’ salaries are paid by the government and the schools are managed by the board appointed by the sponsor.

The teacher education network consists of the National Institute of Education (NIE), four faculties/departments of education in the universities, 17 colleges of education, four teacher education institutes, 100 teacher centers and 30 Regional English Support Centres (RESCs) that had been established to provide in-service continuing teacher education for English teachers of the system. In addition to these, some of the universities and the NIE have their own regional centres to offer undergraduate and postgraduate programmes on an island-wide basis. These programmes help meet current and emerging needs of the system by providing opportunities for both aspiring and practicing teachers of the country to acquire qualifications in education.

The general education reforms of 1990s proposed a Teachers’ Service Commission to be made responsible for recruitment, deployment, promotion, and working conditions of teachers. The Sri Lankan Teachers’ Service set up in 1995 in place of this Commission reduced the multiplicity of grades available for teachers to five and formulated a scheme of salaries for them. Reforms of 1990s also emphasized the importance of the quality and efficiency of the teaching community in achieving the expected outcomes of education. To ensure quality, a carefully structured teacher appraisal system was proposed to be made mandatory for transfers, promotions and selection of teachers for scholarships and training.

[Source: WDE]

“The Ministry of Education (MoE), the Ministry of Women’s Affairs and the present Ministry of Child Development and Women Empowerment (MCDWE), the Ministry of Healthcare and Nutrition and the Ministry of Plantation Industries are among the various Ministries that have contributed in different ways towards the benefit of the ECCE. Inclusion of early childhood education in the General Educational Reforms (MoE) in 1997 is a major step taken by the Government towards reaching a national policy on ECCE. The reforms have proposed an early childhood department in a university to train teachers and a child study centre to conduct research and other relevant activities related to ECCD. This has been implemented by establishing the Department of Early Childhood and Primary Education and the Child Study Centre at the Open University of Sri Lanka (OUSL) in the year 1999 and 2001 respectively. Furthermore, the Department of Special Needs Education was also established in the Open University for the benefit of children with special needs. At present, the Department is planning to establish a Learning Centre for Children with Special needs in the OUSL, with the support of German Sri Lanka Friendship consortium.

In keeping with the EFA goal 1 the Ministry of Women Empowerment and Social Welfare has formulated the National Policy on Early Childhood Care and Development in
October 2004. This document could be described as a milestone in the history of ECCE in the Sri Lankan context. Currently, the MCDWE is assigned with the task of implementing the Plan. The Children’s Secretariat has already introduced minimum standards for preschools which have been stated in the National Policy with a view to provide quality programmes in ECCD/ECCE.

The 13th Amendment to the Constitution of Sri Lanka by Article 154G (1) empowers the Provincial Councils to make necessary legislation to supervise the management of preschools. As a result, the Provincial Councils of North Central, Western, and North Western have passed their own statutes on preschool education to ensure the quality of the services provided by preschools. Minimum standards for ECCD centres, qualifications of the ECCD service providers (preschool teachers) and registration of ECCD centres have been stipulated in these statutes and necessary legislations have been passed to implement these statutes. It is noteworthy that other Provinces too are working towards developing strategies to regulate ECCD programmes conducted in their respective Provinces.

The state provides free textbooks to all students in Grade 1-11. The total subsidy for the text books for both primary and secondary up to grade 11 amounts to LKR 1,165 million per year. The text books are provided to all children including private schools and high income households.

The Grade 5 Scholarship is an important grant made to students of low income families. Annually 10,000 bursaries are given to children of families with an income below LKR 6000.00 (about US$ 54) per annum to enhance access to secondary education. The quantum of the bursary offered is LKR 2400.00 (US$ 21.5) per annum. However, the question remains whether the children selected are the most deserving. It has been found that the students from higher income families fare much better than those from families below the poverty line. Hence the most deserving may not qualify for the bursaries and be automatically left.” [Source: Sri Lanka. EFA Mid-decade Assessment Report. N.d., presumably 2007.]

“The constitutional change that emerged from the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution (1987) was intended to modify the institutional structure of the government in order to introduce a devolved political system. This was more specifically as a response to satisfying aspirations of the minority communities for a greater say in the management of their affairs. It sought to allocate the functions of government as between the Centre and the Provinces – whilst retaining a series of concurrent functions. However, the changes to the Constitution failed to include the tier of local government as a distinct tier within the political structure. Thus, the Local Government Institutions remained as a subordinate tier of governance. The Local Government Institutions that function at the level of local communities and which, if appropriately harnessed, could have contributed to an effective and people-responsive delivery of public goods and services have continued to remain on the periphery of the system of devolved political structures. Because of this gap, the institutional system that should underpin the devolved polity remains incomplete.

The weaknesses that have been identified in the structure and functioning of political institutions also affect the administrative structures. Major constraints in regard to administrative structures have been the absence of adequate authority at the devolved levels concerning human resources management as well as the absence of appropriate authority over the mobilisation and management of financial resources. It is also a fact
that no serious and consistent efforts have been made over a period of a decade and a half to address these issues.

The setting up of the Provincial Councils also had an influence on the evolution of planning structures. The Provincial Councils came to set up their own planning units – albeit staffed by personnel who belonged to the ‘All-Island-Planning-Service’. Concurrently, planning exercises also came to be mounted in different provinces by the planning institutions at the Centre in specific issue or program areas. No serious attempt has been made to effect any coordination between the planning activities at the national and provincial levels. The outcome is that planning at the provincial level tends to take place without an organic relationship to development priorities set for the country as a whole whilst planning and policy formulation at the central level fails to be set within the context of the realities at the sub-national level.

The allocation of sources of public funds to the Provinces has not, in any sense, been commensurate with the expenditure requirements of the functions allocated to them. With the principal sources of public revenue being still administered centrally, they have continued to accrue as ‘central revenue’. There was no provision for a ‘principle-based sharing’ of the yields of these taxes. The Finance Commission that was created to allocate resources to the Provinces has not been successful in evolving a set of equitable principles for the sharing of public financial resources as between the Centre and the Provinces as well as amongst the Provinces. The several sets of recommendations that have been made from time to time as an outcome of donor-funded studies have not been acted upon by successive governments. Thus, the allocation of financial resources for the delivery of public goods and services has continued to be influenced by historical precedents rather than by the demands of the equitable delivery of public services.

There is a Governor for each Province who is appointed by the President and who holds office during the pleasure of the President. The Governor has the power to summon, prorogue and dissolve the Provincial Council in accordance with the advice of the Chief Minister. Each Provincial Council has a Board of Ministers headed by a Chief Minister with 4 other Ministers.

The situation as concerning Local Government Institutions remains even more tenuous. Other than the Municipal Council of the metropolitan city of Colombo, all other Local Government Institutions do not have an adequately independent resource base. They, thus, are dependent on the Provincial Councils for resources for recurrent expenditure as well as on the centrally managed Local Loans and Development Fund for investment. With the Provincial Councils, themselves, being dependent on the Centre for finances their readiness to meet the needs of Local Government Institutions is low. The net outcome is that the Local Government Institutions that could play a significant role in the delivery of public goods and services remain ineffective due, mainly, to the lack of financial resources.

The Local Government Institutions (e.g. the Municipal Councils, the Urban Councils and Area Councils—Pradeshiya Sabhas) derive their recurrent revenue from (i) Rates and Taxes; (ii) Rents; (iii) Licences; (iv) Fees for Services; (v) Warrant Costs and Fines; (vi) Revenue Grants; and (vii) Miscellaneous Other Income. What needs to be stressed is that, generally, the quantum of revenue thus derived remains inadequate for effective delivery of public services.

Public expenditure management has remained as a critical problem in Sri Lanka’s public financial management – a situation that has grown in severity over the recent years. To counter this situation, the government has enacted, in January 2003, a Fiscal Management (Responsibility) Act.” [Source: Asian Development Bank. Review of governance and public management for Sri Lanka. Draft, March 2004.]
The education sector has a complex governance framework, combining elements of deconcentration, delegation and devolution of functions and powers between the central government and the eight provincial councils. The central government is responsible for national education policy at all levels, covering pre-schools, primary and basic education, secondary education, university education, vocational training and technical education. However, provincial councils play an important role in the flow of public education finances and in the administration of the school system. In fact, education is the most decentralized sector in the country, with education budgets typically accounting for over half of all provincial expenditures.

The provincial councils play an important role within the school system. About 9,500 schools (97% of public schools and 88% of all schools) are administered by eight provincial councils and their intermediary education agencies, 94 zonal education offices and 365 divisional education offices. Provincial councils develop education plans and budgets, employ and deploy education administrators, principals and teachers at the provincial level. Zonal education authorities transfer and deploy principals and teachers within zones. Provincial councils also support small vocational training and technical education activities, especially for school completers at grade 9 and grade 11. However, the relationship between the central and provincial authorities in delivering vocational training services tends to be less organized and structured than in the school education system.”  [Source: World Bank. Treasures of the education system in Sri Lanka. Washington, 2005.]

“Access to teacher education widened considerably, especially for the primary program, with the country-wide establishment and upgrading of teacher training institutions, i.e. 100 Teacher Centers for inservice training; and 17 National Colleges of Education for preservice and inservice training. The equity in coverage led to an improved learning environment for teachers, with the provision of physical infrastructure across the country, together with the needed equipment, materials and furniture, including for educating teachers in the government priorities of English language and IT-based education proficiency. Further, provision of infrastructure in conflicted areas, which included National Colleges of Education (NCOEs) in Jaffna and Batticaloa and Teacher Centers greatly improved access to preservice and inservice, especially for Tamil-medium teachers. This is important to address the continuing teacher shortages in Tamil medium.

Much less progress was made in achieving the objective of improving cost-effectiveness in education, especially in rationalizing teacher recruitment and deployment, teacher education institutions and educational expenditures. Employment of excess teachers increased rather than decreased salary costs, and failure to rationalize the varied assortment of teacher education institutions added to the cost of operating and maintaining the system. However, Government did increase the education budget, by 33% in 2006, for both capital and recurrent expenditures to meet this increased expenditure. It is also commendable that there was no reduction in Government's contribution for quality inputs.

The National Authority on Teacher Education (NATE), established in 1998, proved to be only partially effective, due largely to limited leadership status and experience, together with claims of duplication with other agencies. The abolition of NATE in 2002 created a void in the national governance structure of teacher education because without a main coordinating and leadership authority, key functions of policy
development, planning and monitoring (including accreditation of programs) remained fragmented and without adequate leadership. Action to establish an alternative structure was slow and, at project closure, incomplete.” [Source: World Bank. Implementation completion report on a credit to the Democratic Socialist Republic of Sri Lanka for a Teacher Education and Teacher Deployment Project. Report No. 35265, June 2006. FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY.]

The financing of education

Free education was introduced in 1945, and in 1961 the assisted schools were taken over by the government. Since then, the total cost of education has been borne almost wholly by the State.

According to national estimates, expenditure on education represented 2.8% of GDP in 1993. In 1994, the current expenditure on education amounted to Sri Lanka rupees (SLR) 1,344 million, equivalent to 11.7% of the total public current expenditure. In the same year, public expenditure on education represented 8.84% of the public expenditure. In 2001, expenditure on education as percentage of GNP amounted to 3.06% and was equivalent to 10.2% of government expenditure.

In addition to the cost borne by the State, school authorities have been given permission to collect school fees from the students, which represent a very nominal amount. The heads of schools are permitted to use these funds for improving library facilities, sports facilities and approved events. Most of the schools have their own Old Pupils’ Associations which are very helpful, especially in infrastructure development. Although statistics are not available, the total amount of these funds is not negligible.

[Source: WDE]

“The recently released education budget for 2006 included a significant increase in allocations for both recurrent and capital expenditure reflecting the government’s commitment to meet the accumulated sector needs of infrastructure, operations and maintenance (O&M), and quality inputs. The central budget has shown a substantial increase of more than one third in both recurrent and capital allocations between 2005 and 2006 and the total budget is expected to increase from Rs 26 to 35billion in these two years. The recently released budget also includes estimates for 2007 and 2008 that show an increase in allocations of about 12 percent and the budget is expected to reach approximately Rs 45billion by 2008. If the operations and maintenance budget continue to be around 5 percent of the total recurrent expenditure, the share of operations and maintenance will increase from Rs 0.81 to 1.4 billion between 2005 and 2008. This is important because school surveys of MOE have shown consistently that school needs for ongoing maintenance is much greater than the resources they get from the budget. As a result, large numbers of school buildings and equipment have suffered heavy depreciation. In addition, historical budgeting and the absence of a public expenditure tracking system have led to inequities in the allocation of resources, as the small proportion of schools that received generous resources in the past have continued to be
well funded, while other institutions which were under-resourced in the past have continued to be disadvantaged.

The central budget that consists of MOE, Department of Examination, Department of Publications, have shown a substantial increase of more than one third in both recurrent and capital allocations between 2005 and 2006 and the total budget is expected to increase from Rs26 to 35 billion in these two years. Within the recurrent budget, MOE will have the largest increase (41%) and within the capital budget the Department of Publications will have the biggest increase (40%). When the provincial budget is added to the central, the sector budget reaches LKR 75 billion. and its proportion to the government budget increases from 9 to 12 percent in 2006. Government estimates also show that the central education budget will continue its increase by 12 percent in 2007 and 2008 and reach approximately LKR 45 billion by 2008 and as a result, the sector budget would rise from LKR. 75 billion in 2006 to 93 billion in 2008.” [Source: World Bank. Implementation completion report on a credit to the Democratic Socialist Republic of Sri Lanka for a Second General Education Project. Report No. 36318, June 2006. FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY.]

“The recurrent education budget has accounted for about 79%-84% of public education expenditure in the recent past. The chief component of recurrent education expenditure, accounting for about 85%-90% of the combined central and provincial recurrent education budgets, is salaries and wages. The major share of the salary bill is on the salaries of teachers and university staff, followed by the salaries of principals, education administrators and other staff grades. After salaries, the next highest shares of recurrent education spending are on textbooks, which receive about 3% of the total recurrent education budget, and school uniforms, which account for about 2% of the total recurrent education budget. The balance funds are mainly used for administrative and operating costs such as electricity, communications, water and postal charges, and staff travel. Households invest considerable resources on education. In 1995/96, the most recent date for which information on household education expenditure is currently available, private expenditure in seven provinces was about 4,688 million rupees. At 1995/96 public education investment levels, this was equal to about 23% of government education expenditure. It was also greater than public capital education expenditure by about 13%. Based on certain assumptions concerning the income elasticity of demand for education, total private household education expenditure in 2002 can be estimated to be about 10,600 million rupees in 2002 prices. This would be equal to about 26% of total public education expenditure, and is 62% higher than the public capital education budget. This volume of household expenditure is in a legal and political economy environment unfavorable to private investment in education. The largest component of annual private education expenditure, about 590 rupees per student (45% of total unit private education expenditure), is on tuition fees.

Government education expenditure in Sri Lanka currently amounts to about LKR 40,000 million (USD 415 million) annually. In recent years, the education budget has accounted for approximately 3% of national income and 7%-9% of government spending. Out of this sum, approximately 32% (13,000 million rupees) is spent on primary education, 50% (20,000 million rupees) on secondary education, 14% (5,600 million rupees) on tertiary education, and 3% (1,400 million rupees) on technical education.

There are five main reasons for the relatively modest level of public education investment in Sri Lanka: (i) the broad range of public services, such as universal free health care and wide-ranging access to poverty oriented safety nets, such as the Samurdhi


program, which are generally not available in most other developing countries, and compete for government resources; (ii) high defense expenditure, which absorbs over 5% of GDP and crowds out other investments; (iii) low public revenue, which has contributed to large budget deficits and constrained government expenditures; (iv) comparatively low teacher salaries, with Sri Lankan teachers receiving salaries about half or less, as a proportion of national income per capita, than teachers in countries such as India, Bangladesh, Malaysia, Thailand and South Korea; and (v) the fact that Sri Lanka built up its capital stock of schools during the 1950s-1970s, so that there is now no need for major investment in the construction of classrooms and new school buildings.

The education capital budget declined steeply from 5% of government capital spending in 1999 to 2.5% in 2002. In terms of shares of the education budget, the capital budget decreased from about 20% in 1998-2000 to 16% in 2001-02. The recent trend of public education expenditure shows considerable fluctuation in real spending. Overall, public education spending per student declined in 2002 by about 4 percent in comparison to the level in 2001. Further, both recurrent and capital spending per student decreased between 2001 and 2002. However, education expenditure per student increased sharply in 2000 and 2001 in relation to the levels in 1998 and 1999, mainly due to investment in new public universities. As such, the level of expenditure in 2002 was above the spending levels in 1998-99, despite the decline relative to 2001.

The central government finances the major share of education expenditure in the country, accounting for about 65% of total public and private education investment. Slightly more than half these resources, about 53%, are spent directly by central government education institutions. The balance, about 47%, is awarded as grants to the provincial councils. After the central government, households finance the second highest share of education investment, about 21%. This is followed by provincial councils through their own revenues, 8%, and donor funds, 6%.” [Source: World Bank. Treasures of the education system in Sri Lanka. Washington, 2005.]
**SOURCES**


India. NIEPA. *EFA Mid-decade Assessment: India*. 2007, DRAFT NOT TO BE QUOTED.


UNDP. *Afghanistan Human Development Report 2007*.


—. *Program document for a proposed second programmatic education sector development support credit to the People’s Republic of Bangladesh*. Report No. 35015-BD, February 2006. DISTRIBUTION RESTRICTED.

—. *Project appraisal document for a proposed credit to the Kingdom of Bhutan for an Education Development Project*. Report No. 25802-BHU, June 2003. FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY.

—. *Project Appraisal Document on a proposed credit to the Republic of India for an elementary education project*. Report No. 27703-IN, March 2004. FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY.
