Due to the success of efforts to increase primary school enrolment, thousands of adolescents are now knocking on the door of secondary schools and putting education systems under constant pressure to meet their demands for further education. Despite this, educational opportunities remain very limited, particularly in those countries still struggling to provide a basic primary education for all. At the end of the 1990s, 44 of the 150 countries in the UNESCO database still had gross enrolment rates well below 40 per cent at the secondary level. Considering the level of repetition and overage enrolment, net enrolment rates are likely to be well below this figure. Thus, in many developing countries only a minority of the relevant age group finishes secondary schooling. This is a disturbing fact at the beginning of the 21st century when globalization, rapid technological change, and the swift spread of new information technology make education and knowledge the key to competitiveness.

There are several grounds for expanding secondary education. First, providing learning after primary education is essential to consolidate what has already been learnt. Many achievement studies undertaken in developing countries show that upon graduating from primary schools students have only a shaky grasp of core competencies. Extending basic education to eight or nine years, incorporating what used to be lower secondary, should contribute to students mastering literacy, numeracy and acquiring an understanding of the world around them. Second, at secondary level students can develop reasoning and thinking skills that are inaccessible to younger children. It is at that level that youngsters can be expected to acquire the common culture that will allow them to be useful citizens, to build knowledge through experience and experiments, and to learn essential subjects such as health education, science and technology. It is there again that large numbers of youngsters can be taught how to think, how to work, how to work in teams and how to live together. Third, expanding quality secondary education is essential to ensure a better educated teaching force at the first level. Fourth, opening learning opportunities beyond primary education is necessary to motivate primary school pupils to complete their primary education. Indeed, as primary...
Nothing is as global as our minds – the numbers we think in terms of, the images we create, the concepts we share. This is manifest, even materialized, in our education systems.

Although the age at which children start primary school differs from one country to another, on the whole it is generally felt that, just as they get their second set of teeth, it is time for them to face a teacher and learn, or shall we say ‘get their teeth’ into, the three R’s. They should also learn to interact with each other and take care of themselves. Curricula should be designed in such a way that what is learned at one grade forms the step for what can be reached at the next. In this sense, one could claim that there is a world model for primary education. Clearly this model has not been universally attained since basic education is not available for all – many children are never reached, more drop out too early. And yet there is a global consensus on what should be attained.

For higher education and universities there is also a world model. The subjects taught are much the same from one country to another – mathematics, biology, languages, history, economics. The theories presented and criticized, the notions expounded and challenged, the ideas used to make sense of the world – whether they are embodied in words like ‘atoms’ or ‘galaxies’ or ‘algorithms’ or ‘syntax’ – are also similar. Indeed, the same textbooks or key thems’ or ‘syntax’ – are also similar. Indeed, the same textbooks or key words are assigned across national boundaries. The standards towards which universities strive, and the norms for what makes an original contribution or innovative science are broadly shared.

It is curious that, for secondary education, variation is much greater. The American system is different from the French, the German ‘dual system’ for apprentices is more admired than copied. There are great differences in the extent to which apprenticeships are used in vocational training, as well as the extent to which general subjects are covered in technical education programmes. In short, there is no single global model for either secondary education or technical and vocational training.

There is more experimentation – hence more to learn, since variation produces information. This issue of the IIEP Newsletter reviews and distills some of the variations found in secondary education and vocational training.

Good planning requires broad knowledge and a potent imagination – the capacity to envisage possible futures and assess the effect of imagined actions. Research is useful for planners not only because of the methods developed and findings documented, but also because it presents models and visions, actual modes of organization and structural traits, qualities and shortcomings different from those we already know. Sometimes sobering thoughts arise from vicarious experience. On other occasions, research leads to serendipitous1 discoveries. Good research should function both ways: sometimes as a way of preventing mistakes, sometimes as a way of discovering new possibilities.

In this issue of the IIEP Newsletter, we hope you can sample both types of experiences by learning about some interesting experiments in education in different parts of the world.

GUDMUND HERNES
DIRECTOR OF IIEP

1 Serendipity, or the faculty of making happy and unexpected discoveries by accident, is a term coined in 1754 by Horace Walpole after the fairy tale of The Three Princes of Serendip (now Sri Lanka).
education has expanded, the market value of a primary school certificate has substantially decreased, and only those who continue to secondary may hope to obtain access to a job in the modern sector. *Fifth*, the countries that experienced the highest level of economic growth in the past decade had all invested substantially in their secondary education a number of years before, as the fast developing countries of East and South-East Asia and Europe illustrate.

Unit costs are typically much higher at secondary than at primary level but cost differentials are particularly high in those countries that have low secondary enrolment ratios. In countries where secondary education is well developed, a secondary school student costs on average 1.3 times that of a primary pupil, but in those developing countries with the lowest secondary enrolment rates, enrolling a secondary school pupil may cost up to 3.5 times as much. The reasons for this include boarding costs, low efficiency in the use of teachers and the relatively high salaries of secondary school teachers compared to primary school teachers. While in OECD countries a secondary school teacher earns, on average, only slightly more than a primary school teacher, in Mali, Uganda and Botswana a secondary school teacher can earn twice as much as a primary teacher. The costs of secondary schooling are particularly high in African countries: the reasons for this differ from case to case and require analysis. Yet, if the present cost structure continues to prevail most countries will face acute problems in financing the expansion of their secondary education. A simulation carried out to estimate costs of secondary education expansion for different groups of countries shows that, with the present cost structure, a secondary gross enrolment rate of 60 per cent is beyond the reach of nearly all sub-Saharan African countries within the next 15 years.

Various options are open to countries that want to expand access to secondary education: these range from increasing the share of government resources spent on education and secondary education, to reducing unit costs, increasing internal efficiency, developing cost-sharing mechanisms, raising the proportion of private education, using distance education and calling on external assistance. Different countries illustrate different strategies: Zimbabwe, for example, succeeded in significantly increasing access to secondary thanks to a high level of public resources set aside for education, combined with a reduction in unit costs resulting from an increase in pupil/teacher ratio and the extensive use of untrained teachers during the first ten years. The introduction of automatic promotion, double-shifting and cost-sharing mechanisms has also contributed to making enrolment expansion affordable. Sri Lanka is another country that succeeded in expanding its school system up to Grade 11 at relatively low unit costs. Many secondary schools include primary sections and vice versa and teachers are not so clearly divided between primary and secondary as they are elsewhere. This has contributed to keeping cost differences between primary and secondary education low. China shows different strategies again. Salaries have been kept fairly low and various schemes of privatization of public education have been undertaken. Common financing arrangements include earmarked local taxation for education levied on business turnover, school-run businesses, fees and local fund raising. Many lessons can be drawn from such experiences, and others, as was shown in the Internet Forum that IIEP conducted on this topic (cf box, p. 8).

The consequences of these different strategies on quality of education and equality of opportunity remain to be measured and, in many cases, corrected. In many countries, expansion of education occurred at least in a first phase to the detriment of quality. Inappropriate curricula, high numbers of pupils per class, a large proportion of untrained teachers, a lack of teaching materials and double or triple shifts have often accompanied secondary education expansion and resulted in serious deterioration in the quality of learning. This is reflected in many countries by the high level of repetition and drop-out, and in low examination results or achievement levels. Another major problem is that of inequalities in access, learning conditions and costs, among gender, regions, urban and rural areas, social groups and types of schools. Secon-
Reducing inequalities in the education offered to different groups. It requires improving the quality of education in all schools, encouraging the development of specific and appropriate strategies at school level and devising appropriate mechanisms for allocating resources.

Effective secondary education is essential for preparing the population for life in a knowledge-based economy. It is also essential for high quality primary education and for effective higher education. It has long been the missing link on the Education For All agenda. However, more and more agencies are recognizing today that it is necessary for education to be developed as a whole.

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Chart 2: Unit cost of secondary as a percentage of GNP per capita, 1995.
Revisiting technical and vocational education in sub-Saharan Africa: an update on trends, innovations and challenges

TODAY, a number of common trends are emerging. In addition to the specific crisis affecting most Technical and Vocational Education (TVE) systems in sub-Saharan Africa, globalization and the rise of a market-oriented paradigm in education have also shaped the reform process. Shifting the policy focus from inputs to outputs through new financing and certification mechanisms, involving social partners in governance, granting more autonomy to institutions, promoting private providers and company-based training are now part and parcel of this new approach. In addition, the specific socio-economic conditions of most African economies are reflected in an increasing concern for the informal sector and skill development in an effort to reduce poverty.

Inflexible models in French-speaking Africa

The profile of TVE in the four French-speaking countries studied (Côte d’Ivoire, Madagascar, Mali, Senegal) reveals contrasting situations regarding the place of TVE in the education system, as well as its relationships with the world of work. Above and beyond national specificity, the four countries often encounter difficulties of the same nature, especially when trying to balance supply and demand.

These difficulties probably originate, at least in part, from the French model of the 1960s. Today, whilst this model has generally been abandoned in France, its mark is still highly visible in French-speaking Africa, generating a great deal of rigidity on the part of institutions and slowing down their capacity to meet the challenges of social and economic development today.

In order to let these systems evolve and strengthen their linkages with the labour market, highly targeted support is needed, particularly at the local level where the relationships between schools and local firms are easier to promote. This readjustment can only take place if there is more institutional flexibility in order to stimulate local initiative. As the support measures do not always reach the institutions, they run the risk of reinforcing the rigid structures or of creating new bureaucracies incapable of dynamizing TVE systems.

Radical innovations in English-speaking Africa

The studies undertaken in English-speaking Africa (Botswana, Eritrea, Ghana, Kenya and South Africa) and, to a lesser extent, Portuguese-speaking Africa (Mozambique) show that more policy attention is being devoted to TVE. Reforming TVE now constitutes an important component of the education reform agenda. This renewed interest reflects both a concern for employment problems and a strategy towards improving economic competitiveness.

For Southern African Development Community (SADC) countries, the reform agenda is part of a broader development strategy which aims to increase regional integration and includes the movement of qualified manpower.

Compared to French-speaking countries, the reform process has adopted more ‘radical’ lines of intervention, including greater attention for skill development and employment in the informal sector, promoting entrepreneurship and training for self-employment, as well as opting for a new outcome-based system with a national qualification.

In the area of financing too, some countries have chosen to levy a tax to support initial vocational training, following the example of many Latin American countries. This transformation suggests that TVE in these countries has been more innovative and better able to move away from the school-based system. In so doing, the countries concerned have been able to take advantage of – or be exposed to – a diversity of donors with their respective models.

This wider exposure to international TVE trends may have contributed to more profound changes, which is not necessarily the case for French-speaking countries. Four main areas of policy intervention determine the transformation of the sector. These are: organization and management, delivery, national qualification frameworks, and financing. Although performance in these areas differs according to each country, the study analyzes potentially productive transformations.

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A recent study on Technical and Vocational Education (TVE)1, undertaken by the IIEP for the World Bank, highlights policy trends in sub-Saharan Africa and the reconstruction of training systems. It focuses on identifying promising innovations likely to contribute towards establishing consistent TVE systems closely linked to the labour market and its stakeholders.

1 The study highlighted in this article is due for joint publication by IIEP and the World Bank in 2002.
In the last few decades, there has been a considerable expansion of secondary education in Latin America. However, this expansion has been insufficient and unequal, if we compare the differences in internal performance and school results between regions and social sectors. The situation is one of segmented education systems suffering from what has been called a “crisis in the secondary school”, namely: loss of its original purpose, inflexible institutional cultures, rigid organization of time and space in schools, awkward management of daily coexistence, teachers with few opportunities for institutional involvement and high absenteeism, curricula unrelated to youth cultures and student interests which are becoming increasingly more heterogeneous, both socially and culturally. In view of all this, equality, efficiency and quality became the main challenges for the secondary school reforms undertaken during the 1990s.

The IIEP research effort aims at analyzing actions taken to improve equality in education. These include a study undertaken in the city of Buenos Aires, Argentina, and another in Uruguay. In both cases, educational coverage is practically universal at the primary level, and high at the secondary level. However, the expansion of secondary education has been persistently beleaguered by failure, with high repetition and drop-out rates, especially in the early years. Predictably, the problems appear to be linked to poverty and families with low educational levels.

Numerous actions and programmes aim at improving educational opportunities for the most vulnerable. First of all, they address the problem by making general improvements in the quality of the education system as a whole, and then through specific actions targeting those schools with the most severe socio-educational problems.

Among the general measures, it is worth highlighting the reform of the lower secondary cycle undertaken in Uruguay in 1996, when a new study programme was set up and accompanied by some structural changes. These changes included: lengthening of the school day; greater concentration of the teachers’ work timetable in one school (in order to combat the dispersion of their time among various establishments); weekly coordination meetings for teachers; greater autonomy for headteachers; development of institutional projects; and the creation of a space designed for the expression of ‘teenage’ cultures. As regards actions more focused on the problem of school failure, a programme to finance and direct institutional improvement projects has been set up.

In the case of the city of Buenos Aires, among the general measures there is a programme that provides additional financial support to secondary schools which develop projects aimed at retaining students. This covers, for instance, the provision of guidance and tuition, educational support, the improved use of resources, etc. The specific measures have different orientations. Some aim to combat the deprived socio-economic situation of many young people by providing grants to subsidize schooling or school meals. Others aim to improve learning by developing projects of interest to young people, involving the community, or dealing with specific groups, such as teenage mothers.

IIEP’s research takes a close look at how opportunities can be improved through strategies set up by the schools themselves. Secondary schools with good results (either in retention rates or in learning achievements) and catering for socially and educationally vulnerable school populations have been selected, and in-depth studies are being carried out on their institutional and teaching strategies.

Among the first results, it is worth emphasizing that improvement in retention of students and improvement of learning may be contradictory, although both aim to improve equality. It is not easy to find a school where both retention levels are high and everyone is learning. Those with best levels of retention tend to have lower educational results whereas the schools with relatively good results tend to have a high drop-out rate. However, several institutions are discovering new strategies that involve good management and teaching commitment.

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Why did student loans fail to work in the Philippines?
The lessons learned

Publicizing success stories alone may not be enough. They are often solutions which are not transferable from one context to another. Failures, however, as experience shows, are more often than not better learning instruments as critical mistakes are easily repeated anywhere, under any circumstances. The Philippine experience in student loans is a story well worth telling in order to avoid repetition of the same problems elsewhere.

Student loans are one of the most controversial issues of educational research and policy, but the question to be asked is: under what terms and conditions would student loans work? On the one hand, they should provide a means of cost-recovery at the upper levels of the education system which should in turn supplement scarce government funding from the pockets of graduates to finance the expansion of the system.

The demand for higher education is so high that, in countries like the USA the gross enrolment rate is nearly 100 per cent. Because of this growing demand all over the world, tuition and other fees are rising faster than inflation rates and, what is more painful, faster than family incomes.

Under these circumstances, student loans perform a social role, facilitating access to education for those who are otherwise unable to pay expensive tuition fees and other related expenses.

On the other hand, however, the record of student loans in developing countries is notoriously bad. The main reasons are problems with administration, targeting, accountability and tracking the defaulters. Furthermore, some schemes, like those introduced in Kenya and the Philippines, actually operated at a loss adding more burden to the government budget. In some other instances, such as Bangladesh, student loans were discontinued.

Another argument against is that institutions, aware of student support by the government in terms of grants and loans, tend to raise fees even higher in order to channel this extra income into their safes.

However, the fact that in developed countries student loan schemes function relatively well implies that the concept is essentially workable provided it is properly adapted to the specific terms and conditions of developing countries.

In South-East Asia, new student loan schemes have been introduced recently in China, South Korea and Thailand. Why is there more hope for them now than before?

Basically, because the main argument against – bad accountability – is disappearing. Student loans are not very different from any other mortgage-type loans, designed to provide credit to buy a house or a car. If the financial system functions well and the banks are motivated to get involved, student loans are no different from mortgages or other regular loans for the lending agencies.

After the 1997 financial crisis in South-East Asia, financial systems in the region were overhauled and became more transparent and accountable. Globalization and new technologies also helped. Now it is possible to track a defaulter anywhere in the world through bank accounts. Defaulters would loose their credit ratings and their names posted in newspapers and on the Internet.

A close look at student loans in the Philippines

With this in mind, PROAP (the UNESCO Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific based in Bangkok) and the IIEP are collaborating for a project on Student Loan Schemes (SLS) for higher education in the Philippines. This study forms a part of a regional comparative study on SLS in Asia, covering China, Hong Kong, the Philippines, South Korea and Thailand. Among others, the IIEP was responsible for carrying out the Philippine case study.

Student loan schemes have a long history in the Philippines. The ‘oldest’ (since 1976) nationwide scheme is called ‘Study Now, Pay Later Plan’ (SNPLP).

The following features of SNPLP should be mentioned:
➤ a top-down government-run mortgage-type scheme designed mostly for public higher education institutions despite the fact that it is private institutions which dominated and continue to dominate the system;
➤ such important stakeholders as private banks and companies, NGOs, church, foreign donors, institutions and student communities were not involved in designing or running the scheme;
➤ eligibility criteria is often too broad compared to limited funding and small-scale application (insignificant number of students and low actual amounts per student);
➤ the ‘Government Financing Institutions’ (GFIs) who were forced to provide the initial capital, and run the scheme, had no built-in incentives; they first reduced and stopped their funding by 1989 and then totally
disengaged in 1992; however, they are reimbursed for defaults from the Government budget;
➤ with the withdrawal of the GFIs, the scheme became a bureaucratic routine: the Commission on Higher Education put in charge of mobilized extra funds has neither the staff, nor the capacities; hence the repayment rate dropped from 40 per cent in the 1970s to 2 per cent today;
➤ low repayment rates reflect controversial attitudes of students and families towards SNLP; a change in attitude is required for future loan schemes on the basis of clear criteria and arrangements, involvement of key stakeholders, possible sensitivity testing and awareness campaign.

An example of loose scheme management: the loanable amount was set at 7,250 Pesos per semester (there are 2 semesters) to cover tuition and other fees. In real terms, this sum was equivalent to more than US$ 1,000 in 1976, but it plummeted to US$ 140 by 2001. No adjustment to inflation has been made so far.

Although higher education enrolments grew rapidly from 0.2 million students in the 1950s to 2.4 million students in 2001, the SNLP coverage remained at a low, in fact decreasing level (less than 2,000 new slots per year only, i.e. a small fraction of enrolment). Because of high administrative costs, the scheme made substantial losses.

All in all, the expansion and financing of higher education in the Philippines entered into a vicious circle. It cannot expand to meet demand because of financial constraints, institutions are unable to raise more funds because tuition fees are already too expensive for certain sections of the population. As a result, private universities have to charge fees which are double the GNP per capita, while the subsidized low-fee state universities are overcrowded. The policy to gradually bring tuition fees to the level of unit costs at state universities and to develop competition between state and private higher education institutions for government funding, faces a number of stumbling blocks, not least of which is a lack of credit market for higher education, i.e. student loans.

Ideally, more recent Philippine schemes should not repeat the mistakes made by the SNLP, but they might. The new schemes were launched at regional and institutional levels. However, their design is not essentially different from the ‘old’ scheme. More promising seem to be those schemes based on a family or community approach (such as the Grameen Bank). The PROAP–IIEP project will address these issues from a regional and international perspective through a comparative analysis.

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Financing secondary education

Many countries in Southern Africa and South Asia are presently faced with the same constraint: how to attend to greater numbers of students at secondary level with limited additional public funding. The IIEP, with the support of DFID, held an Internet Forum on the financing of secondary education in developing countries, from February to July 2001. Nine teams from African and Asian countries participated in the Forum1, with a total of 28 participants. Discussions were based on the IIEP publication Financing secondary education in developing countries by Keith Lewin and Françoise Caillods.

The exchange showed a wide consensus on the need to widen access to secondary education. Indeed, meaningful literacy in a globalized world can only be achieved through more years of education. Provision of quality secondary education can also help reduce income inequality and promote social mobility. The conception of what constitutes secondary education varies considerably, however, from one country to another; it was thus necessary first to come to an agreement on a definition. The concerns expressed by the different teams included problems of unequal access to that level, low quality of education after expansion, and system inefficiencies reflected by high levels of repetition and high costs often resulting from an under-utilization of teachers. Several countries have nevertheless developed interesting schemes which merit further study, such as the policy regarding the financing of community schools in Botswana, the in-service training of teachers in Nepal and the alternative secondary schooling system in Indonesia.

Despite the difficulties encountered, and the lack of reliable statistical data on financial aspects and, in some cases, enrolments, interesting headway was made on the topics discussed. The different teams were able to clarify their stances on the issues of cost and policy options, and thus help pave the way for the expansion of secondary education.

François Caillods and Suzanne Lapstun

1 Botswana, India (state of Karnataka), Indonesia, Lesotho, Namibia, Nepal, Sri Lanka, Uganda and Zimbabwe.
Current pressures for change in public management

Conclusions of an IIEP Policy Forum

How have ministries of education responded to the challenges mentioned above? To what extent and through which means have they maintained or developed the necessary steering capacity? How have their structures and instruments been adjusted?

An IIEP Policy Forum on The organization of ministries of education, held in Paris from 20 to 21 June 2001, brought together some 25 decision-makers and experts in educational management from both the industrialized and developing world to discuss these issues.

The Forum discussions centred around the following main questions:
➤ How has the relationship between political leadership and administration changed in the education sector?
➤ To what extent and how have ministries of education been able to give a clear direction to the management of the education sector in spite of the impact of manifold external forces of influence?
➤ In which respects and under what conditions can ‘decentralization’ help improve the effectiveness and efficiency of education sector management?
➤ What changes in the internal organizational structures, procedures and tools need to be made in order to make MoEs more effective and efficient, and how can sustainable organizational change be engendered?

Emerging patterns of change

The national experiences which were presented at the Forum (in particular Chile, Hong Kong, South Africa, Uganda and the case of several Eastern European countries) suggest that many MoEs are actually in transition from a ‘bureaucratic’ to a ‘system’ type of organization and regulation. In the latter, the main base of acceptance of MoEs would no longer be the correct – hierarchically controlled – application of rules but rather the attainment of negotiated aims and targets and/or the ‘satisfaction’ of its ‘clientele’; as a consequence, other control mechanisms and organizational patterns than the ‘traditional’ hierarchical procedures, and structures of responsibility, have to be put in place.

Some of the emerging trends are summarized as follows:
➤ In education, as in other areas, centralized and ‘top-down’ decision-making by a single powerful person – the Minister – is increasingly being replaced by consultative processes of educational policy preparation and strategic decision making. Ensuring effective political leadership and coherent steering of the administrative apparatus in such a context has proved an increasingly difficult task.
➤ The challenge to steer educational management in a coherent manner is further increased by the direct influence of external stakeholder groups and the indirect impact of globalization processes on both policy options (e.g. priority to primary education, ‘vocationalization of higher education’ etc.) and management strategies in the education sector (e.g. encouraging community participation in school management, promoting university-industry links etc.).
➤ As several experiences (particularly in Latin America) indicate ‘decentralization’ in the sense of giving schools and other local actors more decision-making autonomy in educational matters has actually generated more participation of local actors and quicker administrative action. However, the overall assessment of decentralization has been mitigated in some instances. It is only clearly positive in situations where MoEs can develop, at the central/national level, adequate mechanisms and institutional capacities to monitor the actual attainment of national policy goals and to address the – sometimes growing – disparities through redistribution of financial, human and other resources, and thus ensure an acceptable level of educational quality and equity.
➤ In spite of some promising attempts at administrative reform, serious deficiencies in the functioning of MoEs remain in a number of countries (delays and errors in routine administration, lack of transparency, affluence of grievances etc.). All this seems to indicate
that the efficiency and effectiveness of MoEs can hardly be improved without a sound understanding of the actual functioning and practices, and the will of the main decision-makers concerned, to address existing shortcomings. Organizational audits investigating in depth the most critical areas and involving the main actors concerned can constitute a significant step in the right direction.

The report of the Policy Forum, with the main contributions and a summary of the discussions, will be published by IIEP in December 2001.

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School-based management: the lessons learned
An IIEP Current Issues Seminar on Friday 19 October 2001

Does school-based management offer the solution to improving educational management and student achievement? Dr Geoff Spring, the main architect of far-reaching reforms to transfer power to the schools in several Australian states, discussed the limitations of this policy in a recent IIEP Current Issues Seminar.

It is difficult these days for a meeting on educational management to take place without an expert standing up to promote School-Based Management (SBM), referring to the successful experiences of, for instance, the Australian states of Victoria or South Australia. Not without reason: the ambitious management reforms in these states have inspired much thinking and policy-making elsewhere.

What precisely does the term ‘school-based management’ stand for? It covers many different realities but for Dr Spring, the central points include: 1) the delegation of real powers to the principal, e.g. on staff selection and configuration and the use of an almost fully decentralized budget; 2) legislation transferring real powers to the community e.g. on adapting the curriculum; 3) the development of a strong accountability framework which defines the limits to school autonomy. In some cases, that framework consists of curriculum guidelines, regular national examinations and the publication of school results, and is so restrictive that arguably schools are now less autonomous than before. The discussion on how far SBM has led to more or less school autonomy is both popular and, at times, heated.

What is clear is that SBM does not imply giving schools a blank cheque. More autonomy means more accountability.

Beyond this discussion, two other prominent issues came up during the seminar: What has been the impact of SBM on student achievement? And how relevant is SBM to the context of countries with less resources and less qualified staff than Australia?

The impact of management reforms on student achievement is unclear, to say the least. Dr Spring argued, figures at hand, that the reforms being implemented now in South Australia are leading to a significant improvement in student results. They focus strongly on pedagogical issues, through for instance the setting up of self-help networks between schools or the intensive use of the internet. The programme recognizes teachers as the agents of change and schools as the units of innovation. The question arose of how far this learning improvement is caused by the management reforms or by the more pedagogically oriented interventions. SBM alone will not guarantee learning improvement, unless it is accompanied by a consistent focus on quality improvement.

Dr Spring emphasized that educational innovations should never be transplanted between countries without giving due consideration to economic, societal and cultural contexts. Four preconditions seem to be particularly important to increase SBM’s chances of having a positive impact on learning. They relate to the public authorities, the school, the headteacher and the community. In Australia, the public authorities are fairly efficient, with a wide outreach and a communications network covering all schools. Before SBM reforms, public authorities were felt to be too restrictive and the reforms were aimed at limiting their involvement. In many developing countries, especially in remote, disadvantaged areas, the problem is the opposite: the absence of a supportive state framework. A weak government cannot be expected to develop an accountability framework to counterbalance school autonomy. The school has to be an effective unit, with sufficient resources and qualified teachers. Even a well-functioning school cannot go it alone immediately. Dr Spring stressed that it is a big mistake to remove the existing support structure too early. This is especially important for ‘weaker’ schools, which probably need support more than autonomy. The headteacher’s role as a pedagogical leader and a manager, becomes crucial. Steps have been taken in too few countries to compensate these extra duties with motivating incentives and, as a result, headteachers have felt overburdened rather than empowered. The community occupies a central place in SBM, through its involvement in the school board or council. The powers of these boards differ, but they generally play a role in headteacher recruitment, in some budgetary decisions and in extracurricular affairs. However, in communities riddled with social and political tensions, the school board can also become an instrument in building up political power. This, in turn, creates greater inequalities.

Implementing school-based management policies in developing societies, therefore, needs to be accompanied by strategies to strengthen the capacities of schools, headteachers and communities. More than school-based management, what is needed is management focused on school support.

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Decentralization often implies increased school autonomy, and represents a challenge to the State’s central management, which needs to be restructured in order to support decentralized service providers such as schools. There is a need to clearly define the responsibilities of both the operative unit (in this case the schools) and the central directive authority at the ministry level.

In the case of the operative unit, it should be capable of offering a service that corresponds to the target population. In the case of the central directive authority, there is a dual commitment: that the operative units become part of a system, rather than remaining isolated entities, and that they work together in the same direction. The question is, on the basis of which organizational model can the central authority best provide a decentralized education service?

A comparative analysis of the organization of the ministries of education in different countries of the world shows that those with a tradition of decentralization are organized on a systemic model that we call ‘decentralized’. This model comprises three major components:

First, an executive component. This set of executive hierarchical relationships includes:

- the governing and political authority, which determines the structure of the organization;
- the professional authority, which basically organizes information so that decisions can be taken;
- the administrative authority, which concentrates on managing human and administrative resources, budgeting and purchasing. In some cases, it is the schools that contract staff and purchase materials and equipment – thus limiting the role of the central administration. In other cases, schools take these decisions but do not administer them – the whole administrative procedure being covered by the central level.

Second, a support component. There are two types of organization fulfilling two practically indispensable functions of decentralized systems, namely technical assistance and pedagogical monitoring. Because education systems are always a ‘major organization’, safeguarding equality requires technical assistance for schools, emanating from the central authority. Offering quality education requires a variety of complex inputs, such as production of materials, assistance in improving curricula, training, guidance, etc.

Third, a monitoring component. There are also organizations that ensure that operative units function in accordance with established directives, and that take on the responsibility of accountability on behalf of both the central government and the schools. There are several monitoring organizations and, to ensure quality of education, their tasks include monitoring of teaching, administrative and budgetary controls, monitoring of examinations, qualifications and certificates, etc.

The relationship between the central authority and the bodies that combine the two non-executive components differs from country to country. Variations range from a situation where all these organizations are an integral part of the ministry, to the other extreme in which the majority are private service providers, contracted by the state, with an intermediate situation in which mixed organizations are created ad hoc to perform a particular function. In the latter two cases, there may be more than one organization performing each function, which creates ‘competition’ among the providers to ‘sell’ their services to other interested parties. Relationships between components of the systemic model vary according to the needs and traditions of each country.

The systemic model can clearly be considered as a network where each element is an independent node, linked to the others through a variety of relationships (subordination, association, co-ordination). There is no single organizational or structural model.

The systemic model offers the opportunity to treat different schools in different ways, and the opportunity to ‘steer top down’ by establishing criteria and standards, while also ‘steering bottom up’ by opening channels for the demands of individual schools.

Latin America is facing the challenge of modernizing its governmental institutions in a context where ensuring equality is a major issue. Traditionally, Latin American countries have given great weight to central institutions. It is therefore necessary that the strategies for transition from one model to another be carefully planned.

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Support for educational reform in Algeria
A new challenge for UNESCO and IIEP

Algiers, Thursday 28 June 2001
As the weekend begins, the city centre of Algiers is even livelier than usual. The sky is bright blue and the sun omnipresent. People are jostling each other in the streets for their first purchases; and the sweet smell of doughnuts emanates from a sidewalk stall. At a bank on Didouche Mourad street, the city’s main commercial centre, we change some money amid a mass of young people, most of whom are high-spirited and talkative. The girls are in their summer outfits. The boys look at them and try to attract their attention with loud laughter. “You would think you were in Montpellier”, says my companion, General Inspector of French Education, on his first visit to the country. We continue, passing in front of the Algiers Higher Education Authority. Across from the famous faculty tunnel, we have coffee. The looks are inquisitive, but generally well-intentioned; for years now, few foreigners have strolled along the city sidewalks. Then, there is the Central Post Office, the enormous administration building of the old Forum, a place packed with memories, and where several ministries have been located since Independence. Place Abd el Kader is located at the perimeter of the more working class neighbourhoods which lead to the Kasbah. Here the crowd is even more dense, with the women more traditionally dressed. Then, turning back towards City Hall, we walk along the seafront boulevard with its large banks and tiny restaurants for a light lunch of kebabs at the foot of the Mauritania Building, the Headquarters of Air Algeria and the Ministry of Finance. And now, it is time to return to the hotel; information files and statistics have been accumulating, and meetings need to be prepared.

The challenge is major. Our mission, under the authority of the UNESCO Education Sector, and consisting of two specialists from the Beirut UNESCO Regional Office and two from the IIEP, was assigned the task of defining future assistance to the Ministry of Education, so as to prepare and support the implementation of its future educational reform. The decision for this involvement was taken during an official visit by the Director-General of UNESCO to President Boutefika in February 2001.

In fact, despite the considerable progress achieved in the education sector since Independence, the Government has had to deal with various setbacks, and in particular the fact that many young people were without any prospect of employment. A certain number of measures were considered: the improvement of internal efficiency of the system by reducing the repetition and drop-out rates; the revision of courses and programmes; the development, printing and distribution of new textbooks; inservice teacher training; the systematic use of new technologies; the opportunity of opening up education to the private sector; and, finally, the reorganization of measures for evaluating and managing the system.

Faced with this major challenge, numerous questions arise. Should one abandon the concept of basic education and return to primary education for all with an additional year (from 5 to 6 years)? Should private education be introduced, especially at secondary level? What should be done with technical training (the ‘technicums’) whose courses were the pride of its planners, but turned out to be ill-adapted to the job market and of little interest to young people? How can higher education be made to pay for itself? Parallel to this, other questions remain: how does one evaluate the evaluation system, or more precisely, co-ordinate the various services assigned the job of evaluation? Would the creation of a UNESCO Chair at an Algerian university be the answer? How can educational management, especially at the school level, be reinforced and increasingly decentralized.

During the mission, possible solutions began to emerge. Greying senior administrators and advisors shared their experiences. School principals and those responsible for learning centres communicated their impatience and expectations. Everyone seemed concerned with becoming more efficient, opening up relations with the outside world and improving communication, both internally and externally.

During the mission, a lot of information was gathered and
objectives were proposed, though not definitively set. The reform effort must therefore continue to achieve a consensus. No doubt the report drawn up by the mission will contribute to the debate, and even to decision making. Everyone hopes to contribute to the debate, and even to draw up the mission will achieve a consensus. No doubt the report must therefore continue to achieve this goal.

As night falls on the city, some stay awake; others prepare to dream. The young dream of a future where their place in society will be better recognized; the elders of a return to former values and the aspirations they had once fought for. For everyone, there is the hope of seeing a gap bridged through better education. The participation of UNESCO, and especially the Beirut Office and the IIEP is a first and hopefully decisive step in that direction.

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Monitoring progress towards EFA
A capacity building initiative in South Asia

Eighteen months after the World Education Forum of Dakar where do we stand? At the international level quite a number of meetings and seminars have taken place, some technical (such as expert meetings to revise the core indicators for assessing EFA), and others political (such as the recent meeting of the High Level Group at UNESCO). But what has happened in the countries? As far as South Asia is concerned, it took some time to get organized, but most countries have by now prepared draft National Action Plans, which were reviewed earlier this year at a regional meeting in Kathmandu and should be finalized and officially approved during the coming months.

But preparing the Action Plans is only a first step. Too often plans are prepared and approved but more or less rapidly forgotten afterwards. Implementation is crucial and should become an integral part of the planning process itself. Particularly when it comes to planning long-term goals, such as the six Dakar goals, planning cannot be seen as a one-shot operation which takes place only at the beginning of the planning cycle. On the contrary, it should be conceived as a continuous process of revising and adjusting implementation modalities in order to make sure that the long-term goals will be reached in the end. This implies setting up a good monitoring system capable of producing regular information on the efficiency of different activities undertaken and feeding the information back to decision-makers at the right moment in order to allow them to take the necessary steps in time.

Inadequate monitoring is one of the main handicaps in achieving EFA goals. In order to remedy this, the UNESCO Office in Delhi launched a special programme in order to help South Asian strengthen its monitoring capacity. The technical responsibility of preparing and implementing the programme was entrusted to the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA) in close co-operation with the IIEP. The first Workshop took place in Delhi from 22 October to 3 November 2001, and was attended by national teams from Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka.

The Workshop was a success and the programme design — which consisted of ‘contextualizing’ the Dakar goals, turning them into country relevant medium- or short-term targets, and translating them into goal specific indicators — proved to be appropriate and productive. Each national team had to prepare a draft proposal for a National Framework for Monitoring EFA, specifying their country’s EFA goals, the corresponding indicators required for monitoring EFA at the national level, the more qualitative information needed for capturing processes and change, and the organizational requirements for efficient monitoring at the country level.

The Workshop is only one phase of a broader capacity-building programme to help countries set up a mechanism for regular assessment of progress toward EFA goals. On their return home, each national team should submit its EFA Monitoring Framework proposal to the national authorities, review and refine it through consultations with Ministry staff and national stakeholders (including external donor agencies), integrate it within the National EFA Action Plan and, if possible, test its feasibility on a limited scale. This in-country phase will then be followed by another Regional Workshop in order to:

i) discuss and exchange the revised national monitoring frameworks;

ii) prepare country-specific training programmes for broadening the human resource base for EFA monitoring purposes, and

iii) provide other technical inputs on monitoring as required. Immediately after this second Workshop each national team will finalize its monitoring framework in consultation with national experts and start training staff at different levels of administration in order to initiate regular EFA monitoring activities. Particularly this last, in-country phase, will require strong support from the respective national authorities and from the donor agencies. If that can be obtained and the necessary national training can be properly implemented, participating countries should, hopefully by the end of next year, find themselves in a better position to monitor properly progress towards EFA goals.

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Training educational planners to work in changing contexts

IIEP’s 2001/2002 ATP begins

The 2001/2002 IIEP Advanced Training Programme (ATP) commenced in Paris on Monday 1 October 2001. This year, the Institute welcomes 37 participants from 31 countries (24 from Africa, 10 from Asia and the Pacific, 2 from the Arab States and one from the Caribbean). Two countries, Kiribati and Tonga, are represented for the first time.

The initial weeks of the ATP were devoted to familiarizing participants with the Institute, its teaching staff and academic facilities as well as to revising the self-study modules of the in-country phase of the training programme and attending an Orientation Seminar.

The Orientation Seminar not only provides the framework and sets the tone and direction for the participants’ study for the duration of their training at IIIEP. It also provides them with an excellent opportunity to get to know each other and socialize among themselves and with IIIEP staff. Organized by the French National Commission for UNESCO, this year’s Seminar was held outside Paris at the Château d’Esclimont, St. Symphorien, on 11 and 12 October. During the Seminar, the participants discussed issues related to educational planning and management in their own countries and were informed about the different components of the course.

Discussions on the practice of educational planning in the participants’ own countries revealed they had many elements in common despite striking variations in terms of size of country, cultural heritage, religious orientation, political affiliations and development strategies. It seems that decentralization is a common trend in educational reform strategies, even in small countries. This move towards decentralization has brought new actors onto the education scene.

Village-level organizations, local authorities and school-level personnel have become more articulate about their demands on education and more attentive to what goes on in the classroom. The proliferation of actors and their demands can create conflict, making negotiation for a viable and workable plan all the more difficult. The discussions showed that it is not only the plan per se but also the process of preparing the plan that determines its success.

Most of the countries represented in the ATP have externally funded educational projects. The presence of funding agencies ensures financial support for the programmes. But it also puts tremendous pressure on the capacity to prepare plans, design programmes, monitor implementation and assess impact. In some countries, the role of the central ministries of education has declined. Local authorities and communities take decisions on many issues, be it for opening new schools, appointing teachers, etc. These new-found responsibilities at the decentralized levels have increased the demand for educational planners. Capacity building has thus become a priority. Participants have pointed out that gaps in planning and management capacities are seriously handicapping the preparation of plans and the mobilization of funds from different sources, including external donors.

It was also interesting to note some of the trends in decentralization in certain countries. Several participants argued that decentralization is more often promoted as an ideal rather than an operational practice. Although the apparent role of central ministries in funding has declined, many crucial decisions still remain centralized. Even in the case of external funding, negotiations in many countries are carried out and crucial decisions are taken by the central authorities. Such experiences only validate the point that it takes time to change attitudes and patterns of behaviour and make moves towards the sharing of power, authority and resources, especially where personnel are used to working in centrally controlled systems.

Short-term planning is taking precedence in many countries, and terms such as ‘strategic planning’, ‘rolling’, ‘action’, ‘medium-term’ or ‘evolving’ plans, ‘sector-wide policy and planning framework’ or ‘participatory planning’ are gradually replacing old familiar terms such as ‘perspective’ or ‘five-year’ plans. All these changing notions are greatly influenced by availability of funding.

Many of the participants feel that they need to develop skills in designing programmes, preparing budgets and negotiating for funds. Needless to add, the capacity to analyze data, interpret results and effectively communicate decisions to different actors and stakeholders are basic skills necessary to chart out a direction of change in the system. The participants expect that their training at the IIIEP will help them master many of these essential skills and become better planners and efficient managers of education.

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The Virtual Institute
Moving ahead in the millennium

The IIEP Alumni Network

The informal network of former participants in the Advanced Training Programme has taken on an electronic form. All those alumni who have given IIEP their e-mail addresses are now included in an Internet discussion forum which includes some 150 English-speakers and 100 French-speakers, at this point in time.

The first activity has been a period of introduction and re-connection with colleagues and has resulted in many warm exchanges. One message described very poignantly the experience of life at IIEP and in Paris: “I have very vivid memories of my stay at IIEP. It almost seems like a dream. The daily routine of trudging out of one’s hostel in the wee hours of those dreary wet mornings all bundled up in coat, shawl, scarf and loaded with books, laptop and umbrella, to boot, looking like a stuffed turkey, the actual journey in overcrowded but efficient metros, change of metros at Trocadero station, walk to the Institute, the stimulating lectures, lively interactive sessions, working groups peppered with coffee and lunch breaks, not to mention the lively parties are all etched in my memory even now. The study tours to Nice and Argentina were particularly rewarding. What I really gained was the golden opportunity to interact and share experiences with fellow trainees from all over the globe. The near nerve-racking experience of finalizing one’s term paper could have proved to be the straw that broke the camel’s back but for the cooperation and help from the faculty and staff of IIEP – my sincere thanks to one and all.”

In welcoming the participants, the Director, Gudmund Hernes, proposed the first formal activity. He has invited Network members to convey their reflections and concerns on the important topic – ministries of education and their relations with the media – as input to the planning for a Policy Forum to be held in Paris in June 2002. In this way, alumni can be involved in current IIEP initiatives. If you are a former ATP participant, send an e-mail message to Susan D’Antoni so that you may take part in the Alumni Network. Don’t be left out.

Activities in 2002

➤ Courses
Distance education courses will be organized in English and targeted to specific regions on Education sector diagnosis, Using indicators in planning basic education and The management of university-industry relations.

➤ Forums
Three discussion forums will take place during 2002. Two of these will be associated with IIEP work on the impact of HIV/AIDS on education; the first forum will be in French and the second in English. Another forum in English is planned on the topic of e-learning and will be based upon a title soon to be released in the Fundamentals of Educational Planning series: National strategies for e-learning in post-secondary education by Tony Bates.

If you are interested in participating in one of the discussion forums, contact Susan D’Antoni at the address below:

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Where are they now?

FROM time to time, the IIEP Newsletter gives its readers an update on its former trainees. Here is some of the news we have gathered recently:

Faïza Kéfi (Tunisia), 1973/74 ATP, has been nominated Ambassador to France and Permanent Delegate of Tunisia to UNESCO.

Hadi Azizzadeh (Iran), 1988/89 ATP, is currently Secretariat General of the Supreme Council of Education in Tehran.

Abdul-Hamid Y. Mzee (Tanzania-Zanzibar), 1982/83 ATP, has been nominated Principal Secretary of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports in Zanzibar.

It is with great sadness that we also have to inform readers of the deaths of three former trainees:

Marthe Marie Mfou’ou Biang (Cameroon), participant in IIEP’s 1996/97 ATP.

Mauno A. Mbamba (Sweden), participant from Namibia in IIEP’s 1980/81 ATP, Dr Mbamba was Director of the UNESCO Regional Office in Harare.

Marie Rose Oulare (Guinea), participant in IIEP’s 1999/2000 ATP. The Director and Staff of IIEP convey their deepest sympathy to the families of these trainees who demise is not only a great loss to their countries, but also to IIEP.
Seminar on ‘Educational costs and finance’
(Nouakchott, Mauritania 25-29 November 2001)

Scheduled for four days, this national course is part of the larger operational activity that IIEP is currently implementing in co-operation with the Planning Directorate of the Ministry of Education in Mauritania. The project has three main components: i) school mapping; ii) information systems; and iii) education cost analysis. The latter includes a sub-component on the financial simulation model for the Ministry of Education. The seminar is based on the main findings of a recently completed study on educational expenditure in Mauritania undertaken within the framework of the above-mentioned project. About 20 to 25 education officers from the Ministry headquarters and from its regional offices are expected to attend the course. Only those education officers selected by the Mauritania Ministry of Education will take part in the seminar.

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IIEP Governing Board
(IIEP, Paris 26-27 November 2001)

The 12 members of IIEP’s Governing Board will meet in Paris under the chairmanship of Dato’Asiah bt. Abu Samah. The Board will not only review the Institute’s programme and budget undertaken in 2001 and planned for 2002, but also discuss in depth the activities proposed under IIEP’s new Medium-Term Plan, 2002-2007. Copies of the Institute’s new Medium-Term Plan can be obtained on request.

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Meeting of the International Working Group on Education (IWGE)
(Lisbon, Portugal 19-21 November 2001)

The meeting of the International Working Group on Education (IWGE), an interagency group, will be hosted by the Office of European Affairs and International Relations (GAERI) of the Ministry of Education of Portugal. The main theme to be discussed at this year’s meeting will be education strategies aimed at including the excluded. The Working Group will continue its discussions on modalities of development co-operation, with particular attention paid to the practical consequences of sector-wide approaches and the impact of debt relief on financing education and co-operation.

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4th Regional Course on ‘Educational policy planning’

IIEP-BA 4th annual course started on 3 September and continues until 30 November 2001. This year, there are 28 participants from 11 countries attending the course, including one trainee destined for the IIEP-Paris course in January 2002. The course consists of seven modules aimed at training participants in the skills needed to manage educational policy, and in particular communication, teamwork and negotiation skills. This year an additional workshop on compensatory policies has been incorporated in the programme – a particularly sensitive issue in Latin America. A study visit to the State of Santa Catarina in Brazil took place from 28 October to 2 November. Thanks to support from international organizations, national scholarship programmes and various foundations, fellowships were procured for all participants in the course.

IIEP-BA Project on ‘Training of university professors in educational management’

In November 2001, within the framework of their project on “Training of university professors in educational management”, IIEP-BA will be launching their second contest entitled ‘Awards for the study of educational management in Latin America’, aimed at promoting research on key issues within this field. Prizes will consist either of the publishing of completed works or financial assistance for graduate research projects. Further information on this contest can be found on the IIEP-BA website at: www.iipe-buenosaires.org.ar/forgestion/index.asp.