



**Towards Quality Learning for All in Asia and the Pacific
Regional Policy Seminar Report**

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Table of Contents

1. Background and introduction.....	1
2. Structure of the report.....	1
3. Quality learning.....	2
3.1 UNESCO conceptualization of quality learning.....	2
3.2 A framework for understanding, monitoring, and improving quality education.....	3
4. Synthesis of findings.....	4
4.1 Education personnel management.....	4
4.1.1 Education personnel at a glance.....	4
4.1.2 Teachers and student learning.....	9
4.1.3 Teacher policies: Recruitment, retention, and (re) deployment.....	11
4.1.4 Conclusion.....	13
4.2 Education finance.....	13
4.2.1 Notable patterns of education financing in the Asia-Pacific.....	13
4.2.2 Relationship between spending and PISA test scores.....	18
4.2.3 Highlights of concerns and challenges in view of financing for quality learning.....	19
4.2.4 What works to improve student learning: Some lessons learnt.....	20
4.2.5 Evidence from the Asia-Pacific: Country cases.....	21
4.2.6 Towards an effective financing strategy for quality learning.....	25
4.2.7 Conclusion.....	26
4.3 International cooperation for quality learning.....	27
4.3.1 Scope of international cooperation.....	27
4.3.2 Notable patterns of international aid in the Asia-Pacific.....	27
4.3.3 Aid effectiveness and quality learning: Highlights of challenges.....	33
4.3.4 Evidence from the Asia-Pacific: Country case.....	34
4.3.5 Conclusion.....	38
Annex 1: Agenda – 2011 Regional Policy Seminar: Towards Quality Learning for All, Seoul	39
List of References.....	43

List of Figures

Graphs

Graph 1: % change in primary level teachers by 2015.....	4
Graph 2: Years of pre-service teacher training required.....	7
Graph 3: Pupil-teacher ratio in the Asia-Pacific, 1990-2008.....	8
Graph 4: Female-male teachers' ratio, Asia Pacific Region, 1999-2008.....	10
Graph 5: Female-male teacher ratios in lower income countries in the Asia-Pacific, 2008.....	11
Graph 6: Public expenditure on education as % GNP.....	14
Graph 7: % of public expenditure and PISA scores.....	18
Graph 8: % of total MoEYS funding, 2011.....	21
Graph 9: Nepal education finance by source and level, 2007/2008.....	23
Graph 10: Lao PDR education by budget share by type, central and local by budget chapter, 2010/2011.....	25
Graph 11: Tax revenue as % GDP by sub-region, 1998-2009.....	29
Graph 12: ODA as a % of GNI by sub-region, 1998-2009.....	29
Graph 13: Cook Islands expenditure on education by source, 2005-2009.....	32

Tables

Table 1: Specialized teacher shortage.....	5
Table 2: Sub-regional average yearly instructional time (hours) by grade level in 2000.....	9
Table 3: Private enrolment in pre-primary and primary education, selected countries in Asia-Pacific (number of pupils).....	15-16
Table 4: Private enrolment, selected countries in Asia – Pacific, selected years.....	16-17
Table 5: ODA and tax revenue as a percentage of GDP, selected countries, 2008.....	30
Table 6: Importance of remittances to low-income countries in the Asia-Pacific.....	30-31

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1. BACKGROUND AND INTRODUCTION

The ultimate purpose of any education system is student learning. In support of this purpose, policymakers, researchers, and practitioners across the globe have made considerable attempts to understand: a) what determines and influences the quality of learning, and b) what policies and how resource allocations should be made in order to enhance learning outcomes. Despite many efforts to define education quality since 2000, and to measure it both quantitatively and qualitatively for the purpose of planning and management, global consensus on the feasibility of developing common core indicators, assessment tools, and strategies focusing on improving the quality of learning remains a challenge.

Over the past decade, the Asia – Pacific region has made tremendous progress in getting school age children into school. However, there is a growing concern over the quality, content and relevance of learning throughout the region and that education policies and their instruments are not converting resources into improved learning outcomes. The “Towards Quality Learning for All in Asia and the Pacific” regional policy seminar (Seoul, 28-30 July 2011) was organized by UNESCO Bangkok and KEDI to seek the answers for these questions. The seminar brought together 46 people who are policy makers, practitioners, researchers and education specialists from the Asia-Pacific region to address this policy challenge through the sharing of experiences, knowledge and best practices of national policies on teacher management and education financing in relation to student learning. In addition, by identifying effective strategies for improving the quality of education with the interventions in these two policy domains, the seminar also addressed the way to strengthen international cooperation in support of quality improvement and therefore providing useful inputs for the Fourth High Level Forum (HLF) on aid effectiveness in Busan, Republic of Korea, in November 2011.

Following the opening remarks and keynote speech delivered by Dr. Hyunsook Yu on behalf of Dr. Tae-Wan Kim, President, KEDI and Dr. Gwang Jo Kim, Director, UNESCO Bangkok, an overview of issues and challenges regarding quality of education in Asia – Pacific was given. The presentations and discussions, which formed the central feature of the agenda (see Annex 1), focused broadly on three key themes, the first two of them constituting observable determinants of quality learning in most countries:

- Education personnel management
- Education finance
- International cooperation for quality learning

This report briefly summarizes and synthesizes the presentations and discussions made at the seminar. While the data was mainly taken from the country reports and country presentations made at the seminar, attempts have also been made to collect data from other readily available sources to provide the fuller coverage for the Asia – Pacific region. The report does not attempt to provide a full and exhaustive picture of quality learning in the Asia – Pacific nor a comprehensive account of the respective policy domains in question. Instead, it aims to provide the main evidence and policy findings drawn from a regional synthesis of national policies in education personnel management, education financing and international cooperation for quality learning.

2. STRUCTURE OF THE REPORT

This report was prepared to reflect the structure of the seminar which discussed the three topics:

- Education personnel management
- Education financing
- International cooperation for quality learning

After the background and introduction, this section presents the structure of the report. Section 3 clarifies the concept of quality learning and sets the scope for the analysis. Finally, section 4 presents the synthesis of findings from the presentations and discussions made at the seminar.

3. QUALITY LEARNING

3.1 UNESCO conceptualization of quality learning¹

The International Commission on Education, with Jacques Delors as the Chairman, in a report titled *Learning: The Treasure Within* saw education throughout life as based upon four pillars:

- *Learning to know* acknowledges that learners build their own knowledge daily, combining indigenous and 'external' elements.
- *Learning to do* focuses on the practical application of what is learned.
- *Learning to live together* addresses the critical skills for a life free from discrimination, where all have equal opportunity to develop themselves, their families and their communities.
- *Learning to be* emphasizes the skills needed for individuals to develop their full potential.

This conceptualization of education provides an integrated and comprehensive view of learning and, therefore, of what constitutes education quality². The importance of good quality education was resolutely reaffirmed as a priority for UNESCO at a Ministerial Round Table on Quality of Education, held in Paris in 2003³.

This definition goes beyond the intrinsic and instrumental goals of education. It seeks to identify unambiguously the important attributes or qualities of education that can best ensure that those goals are actually met. Similar formulations can be found in documents produced by other international organizations and in the vast array of literature dealing with the content and practice of education. Although the details differ, two key elements characterize such approaches:

- First, cognitive development is identified as a major explicit objective of all education systems. The degree to which systems actually achieve this is one indicator of their quality. While this indicator can be measured relatively easily within nations and across countries, for example using PISA or TIMMS scores, it is much more difficult to determine how to improve the results. Thus, if quality is defined in terms of cognitive achievement, ways of securing increased quality are neither straightforward nor universal.
- Second, education has a role in encouraging learners' creative and emotional development, in supporting objectives of peace, citizenship and security, in promoting equality and in transferring global and local cultural values. Compared with cognitive development, the extent to which they are achieved is harder to determine.

Rights, equity and relevance

Although opinions about quality in education are by no means unified, at the level of international debate and action, three principles tend to be broadly shared. They can be summarized as upholding individual *rights*, greater *equity* of access and outcome, and the need for more *relevance*. In current international thinking, these principles guide and inform educational content and processes and

¹ See also "Beyond the conceptual maze: The notion of quality in education", UNESCO Education Research and Foresight Discussion Paper, No 2, July 2011

² Delors, 1996.

³ UNESCO, 2005

represent more general social goals to which education itself should contribute. UNESCO's conceptualization of quality draws on the question of *rights* as the apex. The majority of UN bodies have stated a commitment to a rights-based approach to development that defines progress in terms of fulfillment of social, political, economic, cultural and civil rights⁴.

In education, human rights' central concern is equity: the objective of increasing equality in learning outcomes, access and retention. This ambition reflects a belief that all children can develop basic cognitive skills, given the right learning environment. Quality and equity are inextricably linked. The notion of relevance emphasizes the importance of curricula that, as far as possible, respond to the needs and priorities of the learners, their families, and communities. Relevance is also an issue for national policy in terms of human capital with the skills necessary for economic growth in an increasingly competitive global environment. The relevance of education should be balanced with the socio-cultural realities of learners, their aspirations, and the wellbeing of the nation.

The country sector studies and most international agency literature tend to assume a common, but non explicit, meaning of quality that focuses on measuring student achievement and other non-cognitive development such as creativity, tolerance and democratic citizenship. Recommendations for improving quality have often been presented in terms of providing more funding, teaching materials and additional teacher training, evaluative teacher practices, autonomous school organization, more effective allocation of teachers and performance-based incentives⁵, curriculum embracing technology and creativity, foreign language and cultural diversity. In short, multiple viewpoints of quality education reflect important values and purposes of education in myriad contexts. Education systems in each country intend to impart that which they deem important and necessary for that country's local and national interests. It is thus challenging, yet critical to ensure appropriate mechanisms are in place to enable students equitable access and experiences of meaningful education.

3.2 A framework for understanding, monitoring and improving education quality

The discussion of quality learning in this report is surmised on the UNESCO conceptualization, and its constituents and factors as specified in GMR 2005⁶. Defining quality and developing approaches to maintaining and improving it requires effective policies and strategies at all administrative and decision levels. These strategies may vary depending on particular social and economic context and by the developmental level of the targeted education institutions. In addition to the significance of school- and community-level analysis, there must be emphasis on ongoing dialogues between policy makers, education personnel and international commitment to enable:

- broad agreement about the aims and objectives of education;
- dimensions of quality such as input, output, process and context to be specified;
- an approach to measurement that allows important variables that affect specified dimensions of quality to be identified and evaluated;
- a framework for improvement that comprehensively covers the interrelated components of the education system and presents opportunities for change and reform to be identified.

⁴ The first principle of the 2003 UN Common Understanding (on a Human Rights-Based Approach to Development Co-operation) states that 'All programmes of development co-operation, policies and technical assistance should further the realization of human rights as laid down in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and other international human rights instruments'.

⁵ Chapman and Adams, 2002.

⁶ UNESCO, 2005.

The discussion of findings of countries' education personnel management, education finance and international cooperation in the next section is underpinned by this framework.

4. SYNTHESIS OF FINDINGS

4.1. Education personnel management

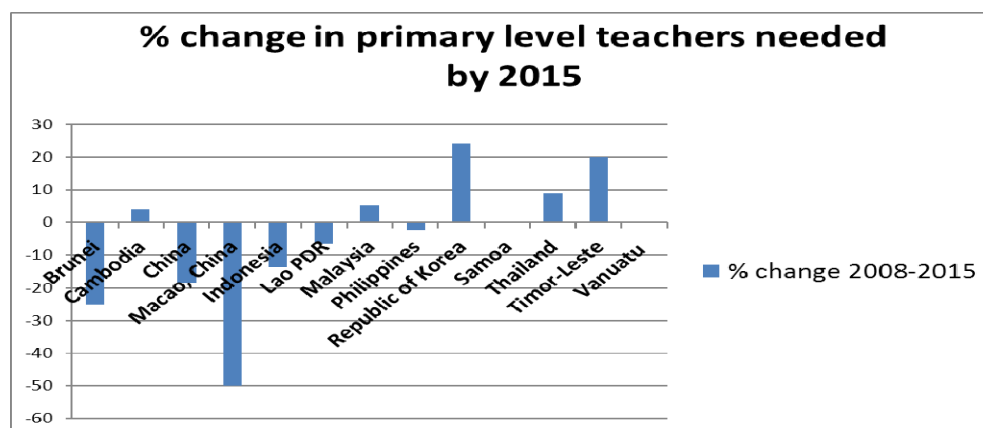
Quality learning is the central mission of any education system and teachers are an integral factor in creating a meaningful learning experience of sufficient merit. It is easy to recognize a good teacher or an excellent learning experience, however much more complex to identify the precise teacher characteristics or elements of the education system necessary to ensure quality learning for all students. The following section will provide an overview of education personnel in the Asia-Pacific region, what is clear about teachers and student learning, and lastly teacher policy patterns, concerns, and challenges in relation to teacher policies in the region.

4.1.1 Education personnel at a glance

Teacher management: supply and demand in the Asia-Pacific

Many countries in the Asia-Pacific region face the dual challenge of providing enough teachers of sufficient quality to meet the needs of their education sector. Some countries even do not have enough teachers. In order to reach Education for All (EFA) Goal 2 – Universal Primary Education (UPE) by 2015, it is projected that an estimated 2.1 million additional teachers are required in East Asia and the Pacific⁷ and an additional 1.9 million more teachers are needed for South and West Asia⁸. However, not all countries in the region face teacher shortage issues leading up to 2015. For other countries, declining birth rate trends resulting in a surplus of available teachers is an emerging trend. This is evident at the primary level for countries in the region such as Brunei, China, Indonesia and Macao as displayed in Graph 1.

Graph 1: % change in primary level teachers needed by 2015



Source: UIS Fact Sheet, *The Global Demand for Primary Level Teachers 2010 Update*

⁷ East Asia and the Pacific: Australia, Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, China, Hong Kong (China), Macao (China), Cook Islands, Democratic Peoples' Republic of Korea, Fiji, Indonesia, Japan, Kiribati, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Malaysia, Marshall Islands, Micronesia (Federated States of), Myanmar, Nauru, New Zealand, Niue, Palau, Papua New Guinea, Philippines, Republic of Korea, Samoa, Singapore, Solomon Islands, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Tokelau, Tonga, Tuvalu, Vanuatu, Viet Nam.

⁸ South and West Asia: Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Iran, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, Sri Lanka.

There are also countries that have been able to generate an adequate number of teachers relative to the needs of their education sector. However, there is a mismatch between the qualifications of available teachers and the specialized needs of the education system. For example in Lao PDR, there is a surplus of primary level teachers, yet a shortage of qualified secondary teachers, particularly in mathematics and natural science, as a result of the rapid growth of secondary enrollments since 2001.⁹ ¹⁰ In Kazakhstan, there is a short supply of education personnel trained to work with children with disabilities. These challenges have implications for access to education for students with special needs¹¹.

The mismatch between demand and supply of teachers often relates directly to teacher deployment. Many countries in the region are challenged to provide equitable and quality education service in rural or remote communities due to a shortage of suitably qualified teachers from these specific sub-dominant communities. The table below outlines a selection of countries in the Asia-Pacific region and scarcity of teachers with specific specialized skills to meet the needs of the education sector¹². Many of the concerns reported in this table will be expanded upon in a later discussion of the challenges in teacher recruitment, retention, and deployment.

Table 1: Specialized Teacher Shortage

Country	Specialized Teacher Shortage	Significance
Kazakhstan	Special Needs Teachers, Early Childhood Education Teachers, remote areas	Acute shortage in educational personnel trained to work with children with disabilities, public education system not legally responsible to provide for special needs ¹³ . Shortage of trained teachers willing to work in remote areas. ¹⁴
Nepal	Effective Multi-Class/Multi-Grade Teachers in remote areas, ¹⁵ Acute shortage of female, Dalit, and Janajati teachers ¹⁶	Acute shortage of teachers in Mountain, Hill, and Terai regions led to MCT/MGT strategies – shortage continues to persist and concern over quality. Acute shortage of female, Dalit and Janajati teachers carries implication for student access of female, Dalit ¹⁷ and Janajati ¹⁸
Lao PDR	Secondary Level, Language of Instruction – remote and rural areas	Shortage of qualified secondary level teachers for remote schools and serving ethnic communities speaking languages other than Laotian, also almost 50% of secondary teachers have not met the requirement of 11 years of formal schooling in their own academic trajectory ¹⁹
Cook Islands	Acute shortage of	Shortage of qualified teachers at the secondary

⁹ Didaravong and Souvong, 2011.

¹⁰ Gannicott, 2009.

¹¹ UNICEF, 2008.

¹² All information in this table stems from materials provided by participants in the KEDI-UNESCO Regional Policy Seminar, 2011.

¹³ UNICEF, 2008.

¹⁴ Smagulova, 2011.

¹⁵ Bajracharya and Bajracharya, 2003.

¹⁶ Government of Nepal, 2006.

¹⁷ Pant and Pokhrel, 2011.

¹⁸ Government of Nepal, 2006.

¹⁹ Gannicott, Kenneth. 2009, pg. 13.

secondary teachers especially in specialized subjects²⁰. Shortage in outer island schools level, particularly in math, science and commerce.²¹ Staffing of outer island schools remains a persistent challenge²²

Source: Compiled by authors

Teacher standards: requirements in the Asia-Pacific

Teacher standards in the Asia-Pacific region are set in a variety of forms. Most education systems establish set standards for the selection of candidates to enter teacher training, initial teacher education, induction, and ongoing professional support²³. To ensure a high quality teaching force, many education systems aspire to attract promising candidates to the profession. In higher income countries, one strategy is selective access to teacher training to ensure quality and a high status for the profession.²⁴ For example, in Japan only 14% of candidates succeed the initial selection process of teacher education programs.²⁵ In Singapore, the top third of each graduating high school class is screened by teacher training institutes for promising recruits.²⁶ However, for most countries in the Asia-Pacific, entry into teacher training institutes is not highly competitive. Some developing countries need to attract many teachers to meet the demand of expanding access, other countries face a shortage of young people wanting to teach in specialized fields such as mathematics, foreign languages, science, business, and technology.²⁷ The main reason for shortage is due to the low level of teachers' salary.

Initial teacher training can take many forms. In general four main models have been identified for this process:

Model 1 – college certificate or diploma (i.e. Bachelors of Education)

Model 2 – university post graduate certificate of education

Model 3 – in-service training of untrained teachers based in schools and leading to a preliminary qualification

Model 4 – direct entry to the teaching force, typically with an initial probationary period.²⁸

In the Asia-Pacific region, there are a variety of models depending on the country's context, budget, and stage of education development. The graph below illustrates number of years of pre-service training required by country and level. In general, most countries listed require four years of pre-service training for teachers. The main exceptions to this pattern are Cambodia, Lao PDR, Viet Nam, Samoa, and Nepal. Thailand is unique in its requirement of five years of pre-service training for all levels.

Graph 2: Years of pre-service training required

²⁰ Voigt-Graf, Iredale and Khoo, 2009,pg. 24-25.

²¹ Voigt-Graf, Iredale, and Khoo, 2009,pg. 24-25.

²² Voigt-Graf, Iredale and Khoo, 2009.

²³ UNESCO, 2005, pg. 160-161.

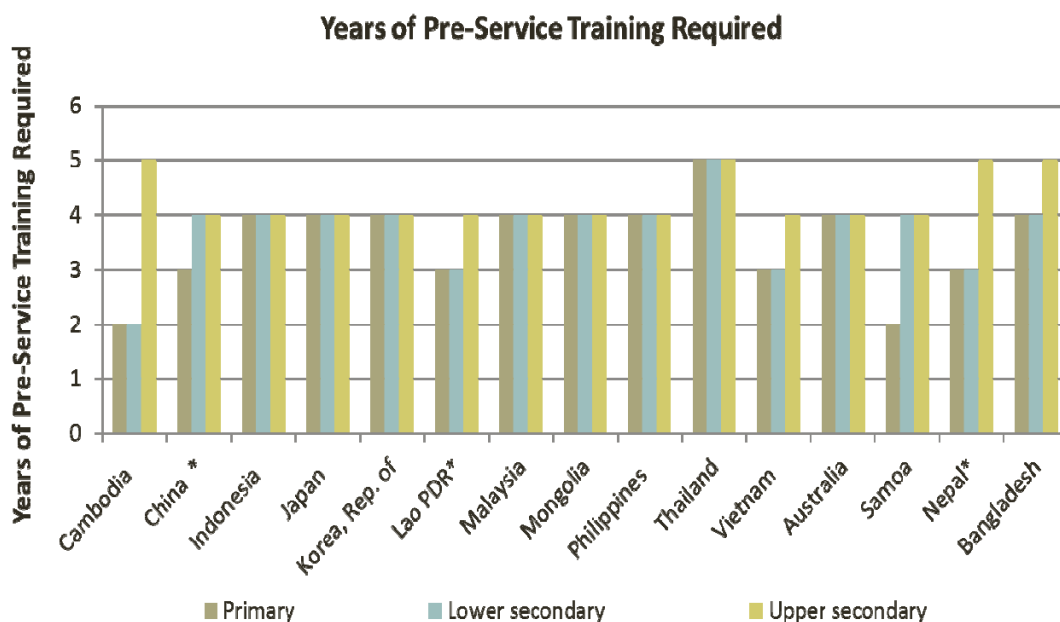
²⁴ OECD, 2004.

²⁵ Bush, 2009, 4.

²⁶ Bush, 2009, 3.

²⁷ UNESCO, 2005, pg. 160-161.

²⁸ Lewin, 2005.



*Note: China’s pre-service training requirement for primary is 3-4 years, while Lao PDR for upper secondary is 4-5 years. The minimum requirements for each country are used in the graph.

Source: UNESCO (2008). Santika and Cahyanto (2009). Ministry of Education, Thailand (2006). Ministry of Education, Viet Nam (2005). Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations, Australia (2010). Ministry of Education, Sports and Culture, Samoa (2007). Ministry of Education, Nepal (2009).

Formal minimum qualifications required to teach at the primary and secondary level are not low in the region and there is a general tendency to upgrade the educational level of teachers for all sub-sectors. However, in some countries, many teachers do not necessarily meet the minimum requirements to teach for their assigned level or they may teach specialized subjects for which they have not been trained. For example, in Lao PDR, 87 % of secondary teachers had received formal teacher training in 2008²⁹, but in fact only 46.5% of secondary teachers were qualified to teach at the secondary level.³⁰

On-going professional support is most important for new teachers in their first few years of service and impacts teacher retention in the education system.³¹ Professional support may include study opportunities for teachers, training workshops, support from in-service advisors and inspectors, inter-school visits, and peer consultation in teacher clusters.³² Over 50% (or 6 out of 9) of the countries represented at the KEDI-UNESCO 2011 Regional Policy Seminar have implemented in-class observation as part of their teacher development and management policies. These countries are Cambodia, Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Lao PDR, Cook Islands and Viet Nam. According to practitioners, teacher training and support within the first five years of teaching in the teachers’ own classroom environment is one of the more effective strategies to foster professional growth.³³ Moreover, teachers in the first five years of

²⁹ UIS 2010.

³⁰ Gannicott and Tibi 2009.

³¹ UNESCO, 2005, pg. 162-163.

³² Sayed, 2001.

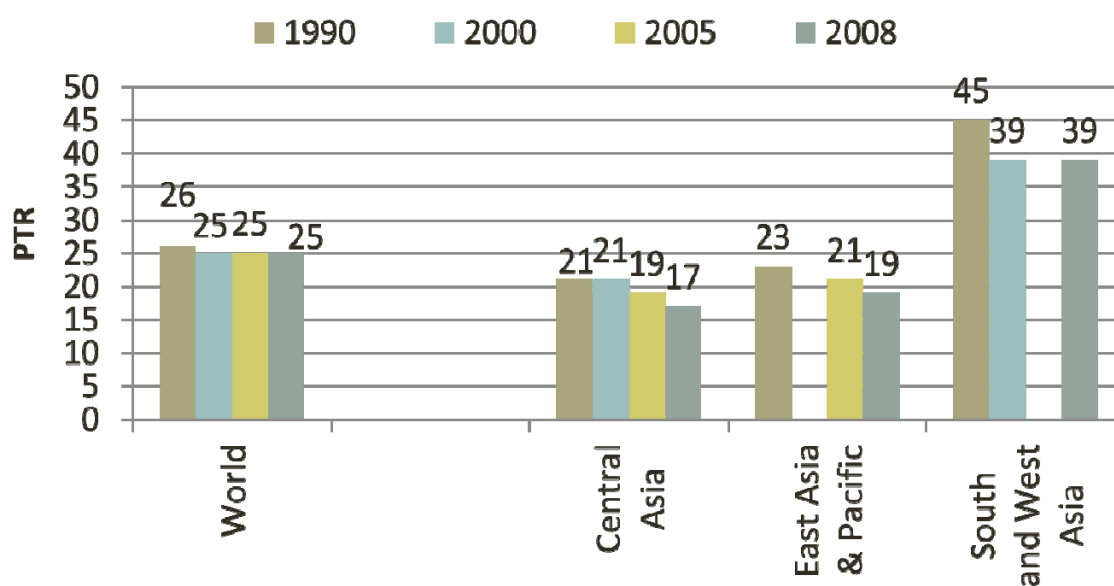
³³ KEDI-UNESCO Regional Policy Seminar 2011, Minutes of the Meeting.

teaching benefit from each year of additional practice as there seems to be a correlation between years of experience and improved student learning outcomes.

Teacher workload

The pattern of teacher workload differs amongst countries in the Asia-Pacific region. Teacher workload is understood here in terms of how many students a teacher is responsible for or how many hours a teacher is expected to spend in-class teaching as opposed to preparing lessons and other school based activities.

Graph 3: Pupil Teacher Ratio in the Asia-Pacific, 1990-2008



Source: UIS

There is a wide range of pupil-teacher ratios (PTR) across the Asia-Pacific region. On average, in 1999-2010, the PTR has been approximately 21:1 at the basic education level³⁴ or 26:1 at the primary level and 16:1 at the secondary level. When viewed by sub-region and year, it can be seen that there are larger class sizes in South and West Asia as depicted in Graph 3 above. In Central Asia, East Asia and the Pacific, the class size trends are consistent with the averages of those in the Asia-Pacific yet slightly lower than world-wide trends.

PTR is determined by education systems based on the assumption that a teacher’s ability to provide a quality learning experience is related to a reasonable number of learners. The threshold in the student teacher ratio is reached when the teacher’s capacity to teach effectively is compromised by too many students. It is generally believed that smaller classes enable a higher quality of education delivery. However, research on the connection between student performance and class size has so far produced mixed and inconclusive results.³⁵

Table 2: Sub-regional average yearly instructional time (hours) by grade level in 2000

³⁴ Combining primary and secondary levels, UIS available data.

³⁵ OECD, 2011, pg. 72.

EFA Regions	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7	Grade 8	Number of Countries
Central Asia	533	575	620	647	740	754	798	812	9
East Asia and the Pacific	704	710	764	784	814	826	911	918	14
South and West Asia	646	646	730	769	771	856	885	890	5-7
Global Average	705	717	754	780	811	825	900	904	122-125

Source: Benavot, A. *Studies on Instructional Time. Background Paper for EFA Global Monitoring Report 2005* through the UNESCO International Bureau of Education, Geneva, 2004.

Teacher hours of instructional time are another aspect of their workload. Research about school effectiveness has found a positive correlation between instructional time and school achievement at primary and secondary levels.³⁶ Table 2 indicates a wide range of instructional time yearly averages by sub-region in the Asia-Pacific. East Asia and the Pacific dedicate slightly more than the global average of instructional time per year per grade with the exception of level one and two. In Central Asia the instructional time is lower than other sub-regions in the Asia-Pacific and consistently lower than global averages at all levels. South and West Asia also devote less than the global yearly instructional time averages at all levels. At the upper end of the range, primary level teachers in the Republic of Korea spend a yearly average of 840 hours on instruction³⁷ which is more than the global average.

4.1.2 Teachers and student learning

Role of teachers on student learning

Current research suggests that the main enablers of student achievement using international assessments PISA test scores are: families' socio-economic status³⁸, class time spent on math, science, and language, whether they come from disadvantaged communities, and the teacher's gender³⁹ in lower income countries. Additionally, the "Heyeman-Loxely effect" has found that in poorer countries, the impact of school and teacher quality factors outweighs the influence of initial socioeconomic variation of the household. This suggests that improving the quality of schools and teachers will have a greater impact on student achievement in relatively lower income countries.⁴⁰

Class time spent on mathematics, science, and language is related to better student performance on cognitive assessments. This may be indicative of the focus on these areas in national and international student assessment. A similar finding is that teachers with degrees in math tend to contribute positively to student achievement in mathematics at the secondary level. This highlights the importance of strengthening teacher recruitment strategies in specialized subjects such as mathematics.

³⁶ UNESCO, 2005, pg. 150.

³⁷ Kim, 2011.

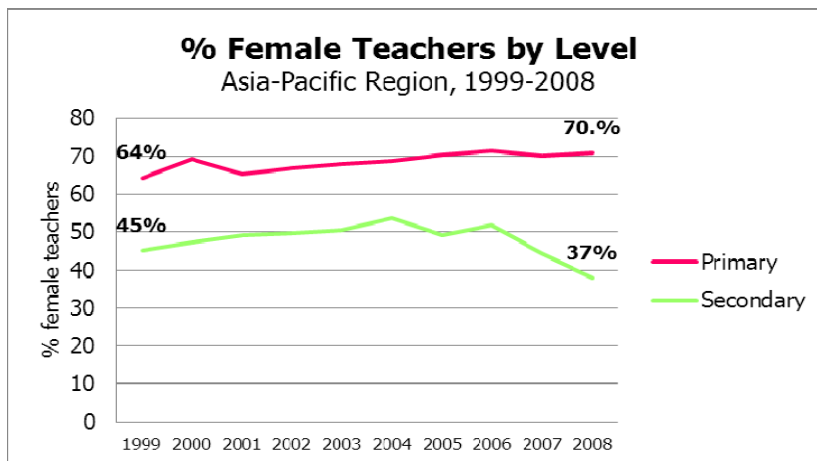
³⁸ Yang, 2003.

³⁹ Dee, 2007.

⁴⁰ Heyneman and Loxley, 1983.

Graph 4 below reveals that in the Asia-Pacific region most primary level teachers are female and most secondary level teachers are male, and this proportion has risen from 1999-2008.

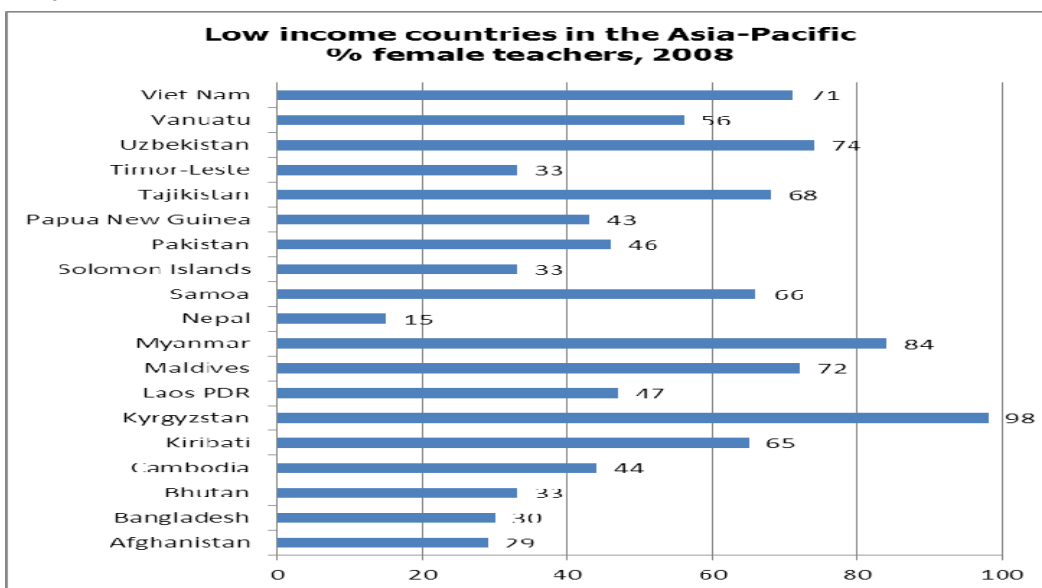
Graph 4: Female - Male teachers' ratio, Asia Pacific Region, 1999-2008



Source: UIS available data 1999-2008

In the Asia-Pacific region, among the lower income countries more teachers are male than female. The exceptions to this trend are: Viet Nam, Uzbekistan, Tajikistan, Samoa, Myanmar, Maldives, Kyrgyzstan, and Kiribati as indicated in Graph 5 below.

Graph 5: Female - Male teacher ratios, lower income countries, Asia Pacific, 2008



Source: UIS 2009

For countries in the region where girls do not have equal access to basic education, increasing the number of qualified female teachers such that the teaching force reaches gender parity is known to increase the number of female students attending school⁴¹. It can be inferred that the complex socio-

⁴¹ Kirk, 2006.

environmental conditions that prevent women from entering the teaching force also decrease the likelihood of girls' attending school.

Learning process

Good schools are characterized by: strong leadership, orderly and safe classroom environments, emphasis on acquiring basic skills, high expectations of pupils' achievement and frequent assessment of their progress. Students whose family background and peer groups have values similar to those promoted by their school tend to achieve higher levels of cognitive skills than others – this suggests that it is important to ensure that quality learning factors are considered across all types of learners from various social groups.

Teacher experience matters, but it contributes differentially only in the first four or five years of teaching. During this time, teachers appear to gain in effectiveness (contribution to student achievement scores) but then they level off, which means that years of experience beyond the fifth year teaching contribute little or no additional benefit in terms of student achievement in test scores.

4.1.3 Teacher policies: Recruitment, retention, and redeployment

It is important to draw on aspects of teaching personnel impacting quality learning that are prevalent in the Asia Pacific and assess implications for education policies. In the long run, teaching quality depends on making teaching an attractive career choice, ensuring that there are adequate teachers to match student populations in all sectors of the communities, guaranteeing that there is matching of teacher expertise to educational needs and the labour market, that teachers receive ongoing professional development and performance evaluation, appropriate remuneration, and the quality of school leadership. For many countries in the Asia - Pacific, there is not a shortage of teachers but an inadequate supply of teachers that match demand from the changing classrooms, in specialized subject areas, and in alignment with country labour needs. Many countries lack the mechanism to collect and analyze teacher supply and demand data, and the framework for appropriate adjustments of demand to the teacher recruitment process. To address this challenge, governments should adopt a sector wide approach in which all levels of education personnel and participants from the community, development partners and NGOs work together. This approach has taken place in some countries. For example, the Solomon Islands have established a management team supported by Technical Working Group (ESSC), annual joint review, performance assessment framework and the Solomon Islands Education and Management Information System (SIEMIS). In terms of the curriculum, the country has plans to reform curriculum based on objectives that are in line with the country's labour needs, and further teacher training on the new outcome based curriculum.

The second challenge is the lack of good quality teachers in remote, rural and disadvantaged areas. For example, in Kazakhstan, 42% of teachers in rural areas are not properly qualified, yet almost half (47%) the students attend school in rural areas.⁴² This is a complex teacher policy issue related to deployment. Policies have been tested throughout the region to address this issue. Financial incentives are one of the more common strategies deployed such as relocation allowances initiated for teachers to remote parts of the Solomon Islands⁴³; hardship allowances were offered to attract teachers to remote, rural or disadvantaged communities in Malaysia⁴⁴, Viet Nam⁴⁵, and Cambodia⁴⁶. These incentives have not

⁴² World Data on Education 7th edition, 2010/11.

⁴³ Ririmae, 2011.

⁴⁴ Hussien, 2011.

⁴⁵ Hai, 2011.

⁴⁶ Sereyath and Bunroeun, 2011.

proven to be the most effective strategy or sustainable solution. Alternatively, the Republic of Korea and Australia offer fast track promotion and special employment schemes for teachers who are willing to take up teaching posts in remote and/or disadvantaged areas. This strategy has proved successful for these countries.⁴⁷

The third challenge many education systems face is the tendency to allow teachers to teach beyond their qualified levels, heavy workloads, and lack of professional development and support. The first two issues relate to inadequate supply of teachers; which can be addressed by making the teaching profession more attractive in terms of salaries, job flexibility and security, and social standing in the community. In terms of qualifications, the priorities and challenges are in setting professional standards and benchmarks of achievement, and ongoing teacher development. For the Solomon Islands, further training on assessment resources and tools are conducted with the National Examination and Selection Unit (NESU). In Thailand, selection of new undergraduates is competitive, with an additional year for a practicum in classrooms taking the number of pre service training to 5 years. In-service teachers are encouraged to excel in their teaching subject areas with additional non-teaching staff employed to undertake school housekeeping tasks which allow teachers more time for professional development. In addition, teacher qualifications and salaries are reviewed based on joint performance evaluation with central and local education bodies. The Institute of Teacher Professional Development has been established in which one objective is to allow teacher networking and resource mobilization. In the Republic of Korea, teachers are compensated for travel with reduced out of field teaching in smaller schools. To address both the second and third challenge, a flexible and competitive teacher deployment system to match schools demand is necessary.

The fourth challenge is enabling school leadership. Stemming from the issues of role overload, insufficient pre-service training, recruitment and deployment, the challenge that many countries face is establishing school leadership. School leadership includes supporting teacher quality, synchronizing financial and human resource management, collaborating with other schools and the freedom for school leaders to set their own priorities. The implication for policies is to establish school autonomy where accountability for learning outcomes and learner centered leadership is encouraged. In addition, research and dissemination of research findings from other countries about teachers workforce, conditions of teaching and the impact of pedagogical aspects of teachers' works and teachers effectiveness can aid in increasing teacher knowledge and quality teaching practices. The way forward is to broaden the knowledge base and experience using international cooperation through policy dialogue, international conferences and partnership. International dialogues have already taken place in the region, for example the Policy Dialogue Forum in 2010 in Ethiopia on "Teachers, the financial crisis, and the EFA challenge of reaching the marginalized"; "Providing Teachers for EFA: Quality Matters", and "Developing and Implementing Comprehensive National Policies on EFA: Teachers Quality and Equity" in Indonesia in 2011.

4.1.4. Conclusion

- Education personnel, especially teachers are enabling factors of quality learning.
- Many countries in the Asia Pacific face the challenges of:
 - Mismatch of teachers and the educational needs of various sectors and communities.
 - Lack of teachers in remote and disadvantaged areas
 - Under-qualified teachers

⁴⁷ Kim, 2011.

- Heavy workloads and not enough instructional time
- Lack of professional support
- Recommendations:
 - Policies regarding teacher recruitment, deployment and retention should ensure that teachers are appropriately and properly trained, deployed and continuously supported. Equity of access for all sub-sectors, social groups and communities should be addressed.
 - Funding of teacher personnel should focus on appropriate targeting mechanism to align with demands of the community and greater equity and quality of education delivery.
 - International cooperation through policy dialogues, international conferences and partnerships can broaden countries' knowledge base and experience of teacher quality and equity.

4.2. Education finance

4.2.1. Notable patterns of education financing in Asia and the Pacific

The scale of public funding for education

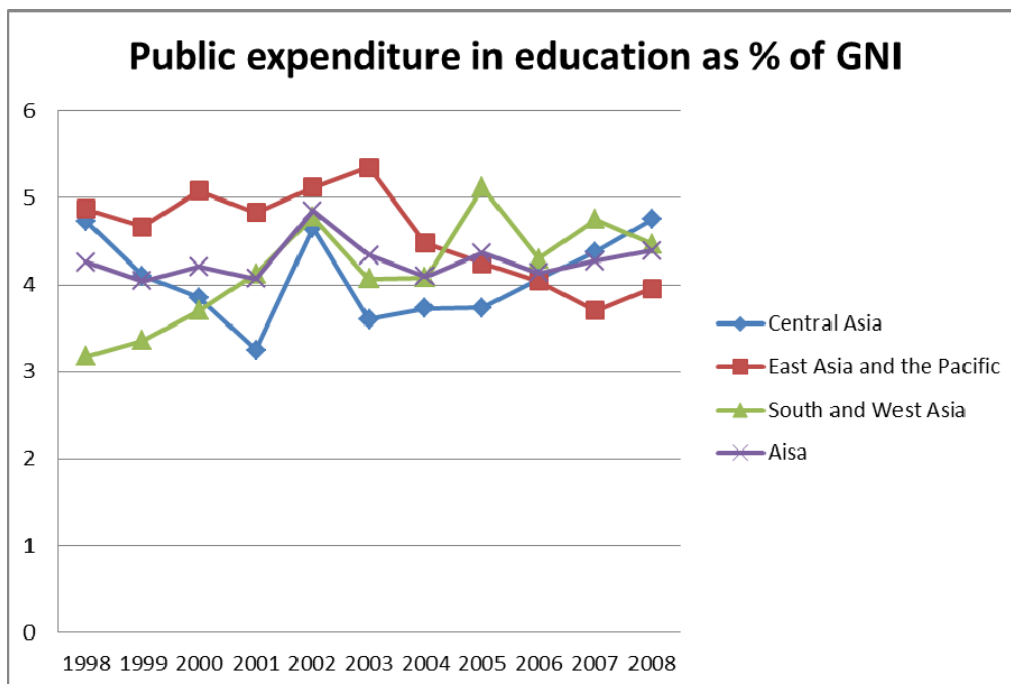
First and foremost, quality learning can only be achieved through efforts of public authorities. This is largely because in most Asian countries, governments are the main provider of funding for education. While the Delors report⁴⁸ suggests an allocation of at least 6% of Gross National Income (GNI) for education, very few countries in the Asia-Pacific region meet this target. On average, the region is still struggling with underfunding and enormous variations in the level of public funds given to education. Over the past decade, countries in Central Asia allocated 4.1% of GNI annually to education, East Asia and the Pacific 4.6% and South and West Asia 4.2%⁴⁹. The average per annum for the whole Asia – Pacific region for the same period was 4.4%. Public expenditure on education as a percentage of GNI ranged from 2.2 % in Bangladesh to 8.4% in Maldives in 2008⁵⁰. At the sub-regional level, in South and West Asia, public expenditure on education as a proportion of GNI rose slowly with a zig zag trend over the period suggesting that the level of public expenditure on education was on a rise but not steady. In contrast, there was a decreasing trend in East Asia and the Pacific (Graph 6). Central Asia maintained a consistent pattern of public expenditure for education, albeit a period of volatility between 2000 and 2003.

Graph 6: Public expenditure on education as % GNP

⁴⁸ Delors, 1996.

⁴⁹ Calculated based on UIS data on public expenditure on education as % of GNI 1998-2008

⁵⁰ Source: UIS data on public expenditure on education as % of GNI 2008



Source: UIS

Sources for financing education

Education is largely financed by the government in many countries in the region and thus taxation is the major tool for the government to generate income to finance education. Arguably, the capacity and/or willingness of the government to raise tax will affect sources of funding for education. Some countries have a separate tax for education, for example Republic of Korea and China, which is seen as a good practice in ensuring the stability and predictability of funding for education. Most other developing countries do not have taxation policies that allow a guaranteed source of public revenue for education. Quite often, funding for the education sector is not committed and has to be shared with other public sectors depending on taxation revenue raised. This results in education expenditure being unstable and sometimes fragile as it has to compete with funding for other sectors, especially when the economy experiences difficulty in increasing public revenue. In addition, the level and share of public funds for education also depends on many political and/or economic factors.

The scale of private expenditure

Another modality that many countries, both developed and developing, have employed in ensuring funding for education is sharing costs with other stakeholders, in particular the households. This costs sharing has been highest at the secondary and tertiary levels. However, the data indicates a large percentage of private enrolment at pre-primary education level in many countries, for example Indonesia, Republic of Korea, Viet Nam, Nepal which suggests that a substantial source of funding especially for pre-primary level maybe coming from the households. It should be noted that except for some countries such as Australia, Republic of Korea, private schools in many other countries do not receive subsidies from governments. Governments may rationalize the willingness of households to pay for their children's education as a justification of the user-pay concept to counter the need for increasing taxation.

In the absence of data on expenditure on education contributed by private (non-state) sources, a proxy indicator of expenditure is the level of enrolment in private schools. According to available data, a

decreasing trend in private enrolments is observed at the pre-primary level in the developed countries (Australia, Hong Kong, Republic of Korea) which reflects a decreasing population and an ageing trend in these countries. For the majority of the developing countries with available data, the number of students enrolled in private pre-primary and primary schools has increased significantly since 2000 which may suggest that private expenditure on pre-primary and primary education in developing countries is on the rise.

Table 3: Private enrolment in Pre-primary and Primary Education, selected countries in Asia – Pacific (Number of pupils)

	2000		2005		2009	
	Pre-primary	Primary	Pre-primary	Primary	Pre-primary	Primary
Central Asia						
Kazakhstan	16,154	5,531	15,428	7,312	17,555	7,710
Kyrgyzstan	513	963	506	1,340	2,639	3,208
Mongolia	2,889	2,339	1,160	7,986	5,897	13,336
East Asia and the Pacific						
Australia	170,939	518,776	174,613	563,028	167,403	608,461
Brunei Darussalam	6,007	15,945	7,784	16,435	9,308	16,401
Cambodia	14,698	36,371	23,198	13,243	39,814	26,925
China	6,680,925	3,889,464	9,820,338	4,804,015
China, Hong Kong Special Administrative Region	171,138	...	130,157	50,409	137,630	54,703
Indonesia	2,077,750	4,444,350	2,803,721	4,852,612	4,139,810	4,897,475
Japan	1,946,163	68,037	2,030,199	69,415	2,059,322	77,048
Lao People's Democratic Republic	6,287	16,881	11,820	21,020	19,947	27,058
Malaysia	264,195	...	285,842	26,602	357,654	38,618
Myanmar	37232	68,015	54,098
Philippines	283,860	...	363,275	996,374	410,778	1,092,781
Republic of Korea	424,088	58,734	418,171	52,239	412,521	48,352
Samoa	5,392	4,468	...	5,362	4,080	...
Thailand	513,700	796,641	...	944,353	537,413	985,933
Viet Nam	1,084,980	30,595	1,603,984	28,739	1,690,607	40,402
South and West Asia						
Bhutan	358	1,382	416	1,964	294	2,786
India	535,469	1,878,0153
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	31,856	276,048	42,252	...	81,273	401,716
Nepal	216,399	238,121	...	613,415	109,044	644,653

Source: UIS

*Notes:

Australia: Data of 2001 is used for 2000 at pre-primary level

China: Data of 2006 is used for 2005 for both pre-primary and primary levels

Nepal: Data of 2001 is used for 2000 and data of 2010 is used for 2009 for both pre-primary and primary levels

Lao PDR, Malaysia: Data of 2008 is used for 2009 for both pre-primary and primary levels

Philippines: Data of 2008 is used for 2009 at pre-primary level

As Table 3 indicates, the rate of private enrolment is generally highest at the pre-primary level (except for Mongolia, India, Nepal and Thailand). This confirms the trend observed in the absolute number of private enrolments at pre-primary and primary levels. In addition, these data also indicates a trend where private expenditure is highest at the post primary levels, especially for technical/vocational programmes at the upper secondary level. It should also be noted, however, that cross-national data on private enrolment is often misleading because the definition of private school varies across countries. For example, many students in Fiji and the Solomon Islands attend private schools but these schools receive a great deal of funding from the government and are generally considered part of the public sector of education.

Table 4: Private Enrolment, selected countries in Asia – Pacific, selected years

	Kazakhstan	Mongolia	Cambodia	Indonesia	Lao	Korea	Thailand	Viet Nam	India	Nepal
Year	2009	2009	2009	2009	2008	2009	2009	2009	2003	2008
% of private enrolment. Pre-primary.	4.68	5.75	33.35 (2008)	98.49	28.61	76.62	20.20	51.15	4.49	62.57
% of private enrolment. Primary.	0.81	5.28	1.18	16.38	3.00	1.39	18.36	0.60	17.04	10.25
% of private enrolment. Secondary.	0.69	6.79	1.97 (2007)	43.27	1.92	31.84	16.11	11.39 (2007)	41.89	14.36
% of private enrolment. Lower secondary. General programmes	0.58	4.72	1.27	36.75	2.42	18.20	12.74	1.09	33.50	13.02
% of private enrolment. Upper secondary. General programmes	0.70	9.01	4.19	43.96	1.13	45.23	11.44	21.25	54.52	15.36
% of private enrolment. Upper secondary. Technical/vocational programmes	1.97	16.21	..	66.25	..	47.42	35.75	87.01

Source: UIS

The Republic of Korea saw a greater rise in the growth of private expenditure on education, expressed by the education price index, than that of the consumer prices index. Using the price index in 2005 as the base, the education price index in 2000 was only 77.6% but in 2007, it increased to 111.1%⁵¹. In India, between 1995-96 and 2007-08, the household share of education remains relatively steady and significant at one third of the total education expenditure, and annual household expenditure on

⁵¹ Source: Republic of Korea's Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development (2007) "A statistically view of human resources trends" as quoted in the presentation by Dr. Sang-Jin Ban, Chonbuk National University, Republic of Korea.

education per student increased 2.82, 2.28 and 2.76 times for primary, middle and secondary education levels respectively⁵².

Remittances

A special type of private source of funding for education that is increasingly significant in Asia – Pacific comes from remittances⁵³. Diaspora communities working in the global economy play a more significant role in increasing private funding to family and friends in developing countries via remittances. Remittances tend to rise during crisis, natural disaster, or conflict in the recipient country, contributing to greater financial stability during hard times. Studies in the Philippines⁵⁴, Kiribati, Tuvalu, and Papua New Guinea suggest education is part of household spending using remittances received⁵⁵. Remittances thus may encourage more private investments in education, health and physical capital. Increased remittances to the Philippines, for example, led to enhanced human capital accumulation and entrepreneurship in origin households, with greater child schooling, less child labor, more hours worked in self-employment, and a higher rate of entry into capital-intensive enterprises⁵⁶. However more research is required in order to provide robust evidence about receiving and spending patterns from remittances in the Asia-Pacific.

In 2010, remittance inflow revenues in the Asia-Pacific region were over \$189,911 million USD⁵⁷. As a global trend remittances have succeeded ODA in nominal volume since 1995⁵⁸. Remittances were more than twice the level of Official Development Assistance (ODA) flows to developing countries in 2007. The five single largest recipients of remittances in the Asia-Pacific region in 2003 were: India, China, Philippines, Pakistan and Bangladesh. It is important to note that of the total inflow of remittances to the Asia-Pacific region, more than 40% were to South Asia in the period 2003-2006⁵⁹. This suggests that migrant remittances to the South Asia sub-region may contribute to household financing for education, and that the impact of remittances in increasing education spending impact may be significant if measured only for recipient households rather than for the population as a whole.

Foreign aid

In some countries, the education budget relies heavily on external aid and therefore, donors have become one of the important funding sources for education. Although there is not sufficient data to draw an absolute conclusion, country presentations at the seminar suggests that 30% to 70% of the total required education budget comes from foreign aid, varying between countries and years. For example, Nepal currently has about 30% of their total education budget being met by donors' funding; Cambodia expects donors to contribute 70% and 49% of their funding requirements in 2010 and 2011 respectively to meet the costs of their annual operational plan⁶⁰.

Intra sector share of expenditure

⁵² Calculated based on the figures provided by Jandhyala Tilak in his presentation.

⁵³ Ratha and Sanket, 2007.; Jongwanich, 2007.; Yang, 2006.; Sander, 2003.

⁵⁴ Yang, 2005.

⁵⁵ Connel and Brown, 2005.

⁵⁶ Schiff, Maurice, 1994 How trade, aid, and remittances affect international migration. World Bank

⁵⁷ World Bank 2010

⁵⁸ Kapur & McHale, 2003.

Sander, 2003.

⁵⁹ Jongwanich, 2007.

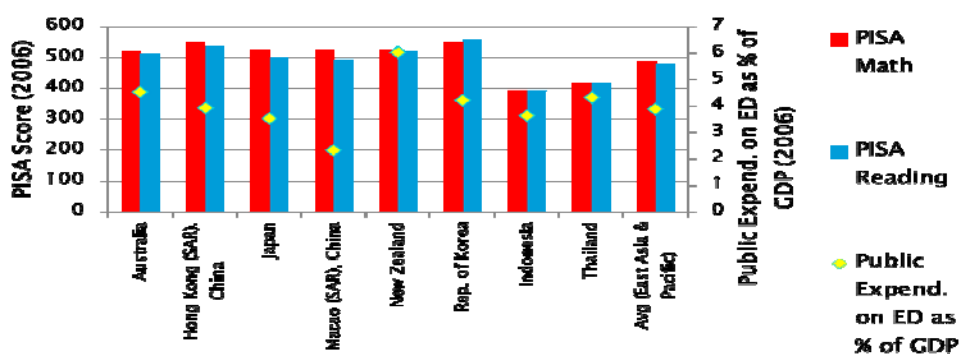
⁶⁰ According to the presentations by Sereyath and Bunroeun, 2011.

Despite the use of different indicators to present the breakdown of education expenditure by sub-sector, for example as a proportion of GDP (India), as a proportion of recurrent expenditure (Nepal), as budget allocation to different departments within the ministry concerned (Cambodia), or as a proportion of total education budget (Republic of Korea), the common finding in these countries is that the majority of education expenditure is allocated to the primary or elementary level. This indicates that investment in education is still weighted towards the primary level. There is not enough evidence to suggest whether countries adopt this pattern of expenditure based on past practices or an exercise of donor intervention.

4.2.2 Relationship between spending and PISA test scores

As illustrated by Graph 7 below, the evidence drawn from the available data in the region shows an unclear correlation between public spending on education as % of GDP and learning outcomes as expressed in the form of PISA test score in mathematics and reading. However, there is an evident correlation between spending per student and PISA scores which is consistent with other research findings. This highlights the importance of funding per student in achieving outcomes as measured by PISA test scores.

Graph 7: % of Public Expenditure and PISA scores



Source: Compiled by UNESCO Bangkok

Education expenditure pattern by level of decentralization

Except for the Pacific Islands, the Asia – Pacific region is home to many of the world’s populous countries (Bangladesh, China, Indonesia, India, Pakistan) and decentralization has become a policy feature of this region. When it comes to financing, the major trend shows that for many countries, education budget and expenditure are funded by sub-national levels. The exception is Republic of Korea where a very high level of funds comes constantly from the central government (on average 74.8% over the past 40 years⁶¹). Due to insufficient data, it is difficult to make a thorough analysis on the likely effects of decentralized fiscal policies and more autonomous financial management practices on learning outcomes. However, the country experiences seem to indicate that an education system characterized by overly centralized power or unclear allocation of school management may adversely affect students’ PISA test scores⁶².

Share of teacher salary in the education budget/expenditure

⁶¹ As presented by Ban, 2011.

⁶² See also Huang, 2011.

It is evident that the actual level of spending per student is an important factor in improving learning outcomes (measured by PISA test scores), however it is not clear how the spending should be broken down. Education delivery is largely provided by human resources that are teachers and other education personnel. Thus teacher salary is a major component of education budget, either by unit cost or by total education budget. One option is aligning teacher salary to improved learning outcomes or linking the level of pay with teacher qualification, experience and performance in ways to promote improvement of student learning outcomes. Much more work is need to determine the definition and measurement of learning outcomes and/or improvement in learning outcomes taking account both academic and social outcomes.

4.2.3. Highlights of concerns and challenges in view of financing for quality learning

The growing attention to providing quality education for all children in the Asia – Pacific region means that not only more resources should be given to areas or factors affecting student learning, but also more effective mechanisms are necessary to finance for a desired level of learning outcomes. The seminar discussions raised a number of concerns and challenges in relation to financing policies in view of improving quality of learning.

Sufficient funding is required for quality learning

Sufficient funding refers to the amount of money needed to produce a desired level of student learning achievement. In the broader context of education sector policies, it concerns the level or amount of funding and whether it is sufficient for implementing the set education policies. There is a concern that the financing commitment, as suggested by the benchmark of 6% of GNP in the Delors (1996) report, has not been met by many countries. Despite the efforts of many countries to raise public expenditure for education, notably in West and South Asia, very few countries have achieved this benchmark. In addition, many countries depend on external funding to meet expenditure for education, for example Cambodia, Lao PDR, Nepal. This dependency on foreign aid creates risks of unstable source of funding because quality improvement efforts normally require continuous commitment in resource funding. There was a general trend in increased external aid to basic education between 2001 and 2004, reduced aid in 2005 and stagnant until recently which suggests the fragility of the aid-dependent countries in their financing capacity for education which may impact quality improvement practices.

Clear and effective linkage between funding and learning outcomes

Many countries have increased their emphasis on improving the quality of learning. However most fail to establish a clear and an effective linkage of the level, nature and modality of funding to target outcomes. Few country reports and presentations correlated financing policies and learning outcomes. Lack of evidence on how to improve learning achievement using funding policies suggests an inadequate evidence base to inform policies to raise learning outcomes. Many countries still do not generate the information they need to guide funding policies and mechanism of funding to improve learning outcomes. Formulation of financing policies is not informed by research findings on the factors contributing to improved student learning outcomes and how financial and human resources (for example, the type, quality, and level of remuneration of teachers) can be better allocated taking account of these factors. This poses challenges not only in appropriate resource allocation but also for monitoring possible linkages between financial and human resource allocations, increased outputs and student achievement.

Improving quality needs governance and an adequate financing mechanism

The challenge is appropriate and sufficient resources are mobilized and allocated to ensure quality of learning. It is important that there are appropriate mechanisms to allocate funds with adequate

weighting between matching funds with educational objectives focusing on quality learning and ensuring the equity and national capacity for sound financial management. A good financial database with analytic tools that allows data storage and tracking to monitor how and where monies are spent is also required.

4.2.4. What works to improve student learning: Some lessons learnt

Inclusiveness of financing policies

Many countries are recognizing the aggregative importance and complementarity of access and quality. If access is expanded without relevance and quality, high drop-out rates will continue which in turn counters the impact of increased access and thus impedes expansion of initiatives to increase access. At the same time, if quality is achieved without equity, that achievement is not meaningful. The choices that many countries, especially when there is a limited budget, have taken are often trade-offs between funding for quality and access as measured by enrolments, or vice versa. Therefore, policies of education financing for improved quality learning should address access, quality and equity at the same time.

Investing more and better in teacher quality

A critical factor in improving education quality is improving the quality of teachers. As discussed in section 4.1, teacher training, professional support and development, and teacher performance evaluation are critical in enhancing teacher quality. While mass training of teachers is necessary, the experiences by countries point to the need for having formal and continuous professional support and development for teachers in order to update them with good practices to enable them to increase their effectiveness in teaching. To increase the effectiveness of teacher education, training should move away from one-time, individualized programs to more regular and ongoing professional support and development with incentives scheme that are aligned with performance. Financing policies ought to target resources allocation and evaluation taking account of these elements in more and better ways that address teacher quality and learning achievements.

Understanding fiscal arrangements that improve student learning

It is important that education expenditure is reported at both the government level as well as at school level, with clear education objectives including details of all investments in target areas of teacher recruitment and training, professional development and performance evaluation. This will allow monitoring and tracking of expenditure, and methodical evaluation of funding which allows an understanding about effectiveness of policies from both a fiscal and program perspective on aspects that improve student learning. This data will enable policy makers and practitioners to engage in evidence-based policy making and practices to allocate resources to more effective uses. The challenge that many countries face is the lack of detailed information on financial and fiscal arrangements in EMIS, especially at the decentralized levels and key factors that affect learning outcomes.

Funding formula

Articulation and mechanisms to measure, assess and monitor student enrolment and learning outcomes should be enhanced and be provided as inputs to decision-making policies concerning resource allocation to education. Evidence based research and findings from learning assessment tools should be used to confirm the linkage between factors, and the context that they operate within, and student learning improvement. The goal for education expenditure should be holistic, sector wide and long term in order to successfully implement and realize the positive impacts of various targeted funding initiatives in curriculum, instruction, assessment, teacher quality, school leadership as well as various cost elements in funding for schools and students. In summary, a funding formula should take into account

variables in ensuring its cost effectiveness and objectives of equity, relevance and improving learning achievements.

4.2.5. Evidence from the Asia-Pacific: Country cases

Cambodia

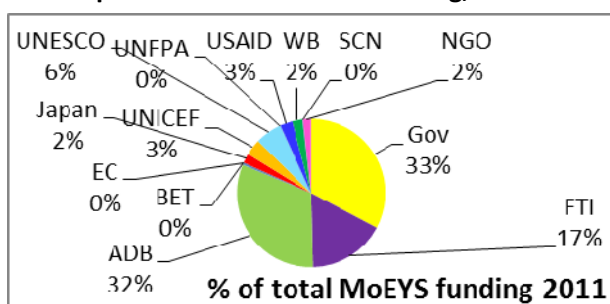
Background and overview of education finance policies

From a historical perspective, education in Cambodia was traditionally provided in Buddhist wats and only to male students. The Khmer Rouge abolished education in 1975 and in 1979 the new Royal Kingdom of Cambodia was challenged to re-build its education system⁶³. This resulted in a reduction of teachers across all levels, in particular female students in teacher education. The implications for education finance policies are profound with much focus on equitable access for disadvantaged communities.

The Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports (MoEYS) Education Strategic Plan 2009-2013 provides good direction and focus for the education sector, which has been reflected in the strong investment in school construction to service more areas. The Department of School Construction was allocated over half of the total education sector budget in 2011. There were conditional cash and/or goods transfers established to incentivize households, who may be reluctant to schooling of their children due to hidden schooling costs, to send their children to school. More than half of the education budget comes from external aid so the joint work between the Cambodian government and their development partners has been vital for the education sector. MoEYS prepares its Annual Operation Plan (AOP) to make the education budget transparent to all stakeholders. Currently each development partner operating in education development in Cambodia has a specific program area that they fund. For example, Fast Track Initiative (FTI) funding is focusing on building the capacity of teachers to teach early literacy, and both the Asian Development Bank (ADB) and the World Bank (WB) support school construction goals.

Discussion

Graph 8: % of total MoEYS funding, 2011



Cambodia has focused much of its financing policies on equity related initiatives including the use of scholarships or conditional cash transfers and the expansion of lower secondary schools to encourage access and completion of the basic education cycle (Grade 1 to 9). MoEYS made a commitment to build one lower secondary school in each of the 1,621 communes in the country to increase access to basic education (Grade 1-9). In 2006-2007 Cambodia had

846 lower secondary schools to serve 1,621 communes in the country; by 2010-2011 Cambodia reported a total of 1,189 lower secondary schools but did not provide data on the distribution of these schools in the various communes⁶⁴. Scholarships and conditional cash transfers are utilized to keep low socio-economic status students, girls, and remote area children in school. Many NGOs in Cambodia offer services on the condition that targeted students remain in school – the assumption here is that the conditional transfer is a more sustainable strategy for local actors.

⁶³ Ayres, 2000.

⁶⁴ Bunroeun, 2011.

The Solomon Islands

Background and overview of education finance policies

Under current education plans and strategies, the Solomon Islands' education objective is to provide universal access to quality basic education (defined as primary school - ages 6-12 and lower secondary schools -ages 13-15) for all children by 2015. The country is broken down into nine administrative provinces that have ownership of the majority of schools. In the Solomon Islands education system, provincial level governments, private organizations and churches own and manage schools.⁶⁵

Since 2007, the budget for recurrent education sector expenditure in the Solomon Islands has a larger share of the national budget than any other public sector (31% of the entire government budget in 2007). The majority of recurrent education funding is spent on basic education. An interesting trend is the exponential increase in education spending in tertiary education, and correspondingly a reduction in spending on TVET programs and upper secondary education. While there was a relative drop in funding during the period of global financial crisis, education spending has resumed to much higher levels, suggesting the continued commitment of the Solomon Islands to achieving its education goals. However, 20% of the education budget is dependent on external donor funding and is therefore subject to fluctuation.

Discussion

A main component of the Solomon Islands education system is a commitment to fee-free basic education. Households contribute fees only at the upper secondary and TVET level. At the tertiary level, the government sponsors over 75% of students with funds provided by Overseas Development Aid (ODA).

One of the government's key achievements is increased efficiency and transparency in the budget allocation process. In the past the education sector struggled with corruption when administrative staff members were caught misappropriating resources for personal use. Auditing systems have been put in place to prevent and recognize corrupted activities. Additionally, in the period from 2007 to 2010, budget performance has improved. A challenge for the Solomon Islands is to design and implement ways to align funding to improved outcomes. The Solomon Islands have struggled to achieve a level of learning outcomes in both PISA literacy and numeracy scores⁶⁶. Lastly, there is a high rate of dropout, approximately 20% of 15-year-old children attending school⁶⁷, which may be attributable to the lack of relevance- both cultural and relative to skills demand in the market place. Given that there is a current lack of funding priority in TVET and upper secondary, this mismatch in skills development and high level of dropouts is likely to persist.

Nepal

Background and overview of education finance policies

The government of Nepal formulates resource allocation policies to the education sector based on the commitment to Universal Primary Education (UPE), Education for All by 2015, and the Millennium

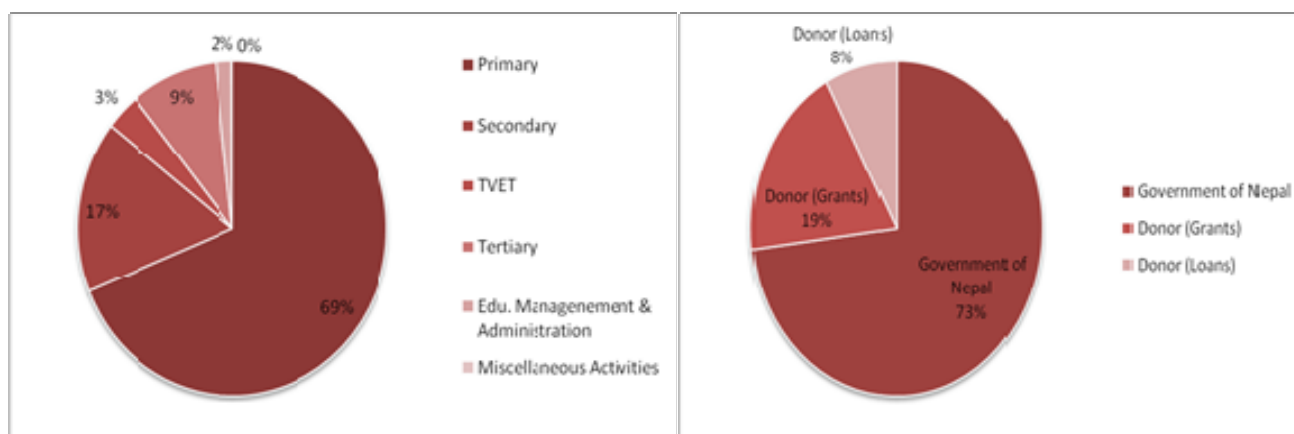
⁶⁵ Ririmae, 2011.

⁶⁶ Test results were taken from Solomon Island Standardized Test of Achievements (SISTA). Test given in year 4 and 6. Students are ranked on numeracy and literacy on the scale of L0 – L5, with L0 showing no mastery of the learning outcome, and L5 full mastery of the learning outcome. The Solomon Islands government considers below L3 (moderate mastery of learning outcome) to be inadequate. Thus, results are often measured on students achieving L3 (L3+) and higher and those under L3 (LC). In 2010 41% of students were still scoring in the LC category in both literacy and numeracy.

⁶⁷ Pacific Regional Information System (PRISM) cites to Solomon Islands Statistics Office 2004.

Development Goals (MDGs). In 2011, the proportion of public expenditure on education as a % of total government expenditure was 19.46%. The primary education level was allocated almost 70% of the education budget⁶⁸.

Graph 9: Nepal education finance by source and level, 2007/2008



Education in Nepal is supported by the government budget, external assistance, and household contributions. In 2007/2008, the education budget comprised 78% from the Government of Nepal, 19% from donors' grants and 8% from donors' loans. Households also offer labor and services, and monetary contribution by paying fees, such as admission fee, examination fee, school uniform costs and providing education materials.

Discussion

In the Federal Democratic Republic of Nepal access and education quality are critical issues in the education sector. At the primary level, there is a high incidence of grade repetition and a high dropout rate. Access to primary education is still limited, especially for economic and socially disadvantaged people including the Dalits, the Janajatis, and girls. They live in remote areas and often do not speak Nepali which is the language of instruction. In addition, they are discouraged to attend school and have to work instead. The percentage of children of primary school-age who are out of school is 26%.

To enhance the equity of education, the Government of Nepal provides free primary education for all students, free secondary education for disadvantaged and marginalized children living under the poverty line, and scholarships for Dalit students, students with disability, marginalized students and girls. The government also provides grants to schools to cover the cost of free textbooks for all primary level children, scholarships and some teaching/learning materials. However, the disadvantaged children still struggle with having to work and social barriers that limit their motivations to attend school.

Lao PDR

Background and overview of education finance policies

Lao People's Democratic Republic (Lao PDR) is an ethnically diverse country of 6.7 million people. While recent years have seen rapid economic development, approximately 34% of the population still lives on less than \$1.25 per day and the country has some of the weakest education indicators in Asia. Lao PDR

⁶⁸ Pant and Pokhrel, 2011.

became independent in 1975 and with centralized public finance. In 1986 the government adopted a decentralized model which resulted in economic and educational inequalities between provinces. In 1991 another reform re-centralized control of education finance to the Ministry of Education⁶⁹. 75% of the population in Lao PDR practices subsistence agriculture and traditionally households contributed fees toward school maintenance, supplies, uniforms, etc. creating both an opportunity cost in foregone labour and an economic burden to households in sending a child to school. Teacher salary has remained low with frequent delays in salary disbursement which has motivated many teachers to take on additional work to meet their financial needs⁷⁰. Additionally, there is a mismatch between teachers supply by location and needs of the sector. These issues have shaped education finance initiatives in Lao PDR.⁷¹ Lao People's Revolutionary Party reaffirmed the government's two priority areas for education: achievement of universal primary education and a 75% participation rate in lower secondary education by 2015.

Education finance in Lao PDR is guided by the April 2009 Education Sector Development Plan (ESDF)⁷²; The government of Lao PDR plans to invest 30% of total education sector funding, approximately 70% from external sources, 5% from the NGO community and 1% from the private sector, over five year period from 2010 to 2015. The current challenge is to work with country's external partners to align funds toward the ESDF goals. Currently the education sector receives 12.2%⁷³ of total public expenditure, and of this approximately 30% is for the primary level⁷⁴. The provincial government is responsible for education personnel salary. Figure 4⁷⁵ indicates that 35% of public wage related expenditure is for education personnel. The central budget is supposed to fully cover all education salary, however in practice insufficiency of resources results in 50% of District Education Bureaus (DEB) reliance on the provincial governor and 30% DEB on community and household contributions⁷⁶. Only 2.1% of central education sector funds go for non-wage recurrent expenses

Graph 10: Lao PDR education budget share by type, central and local by budget chapter, 2010/2011

⁶⁹ Rana, 1993.

⁷⁰ World Bank, 2008.

⁷¹ Souvong and Didaravong, 2011.

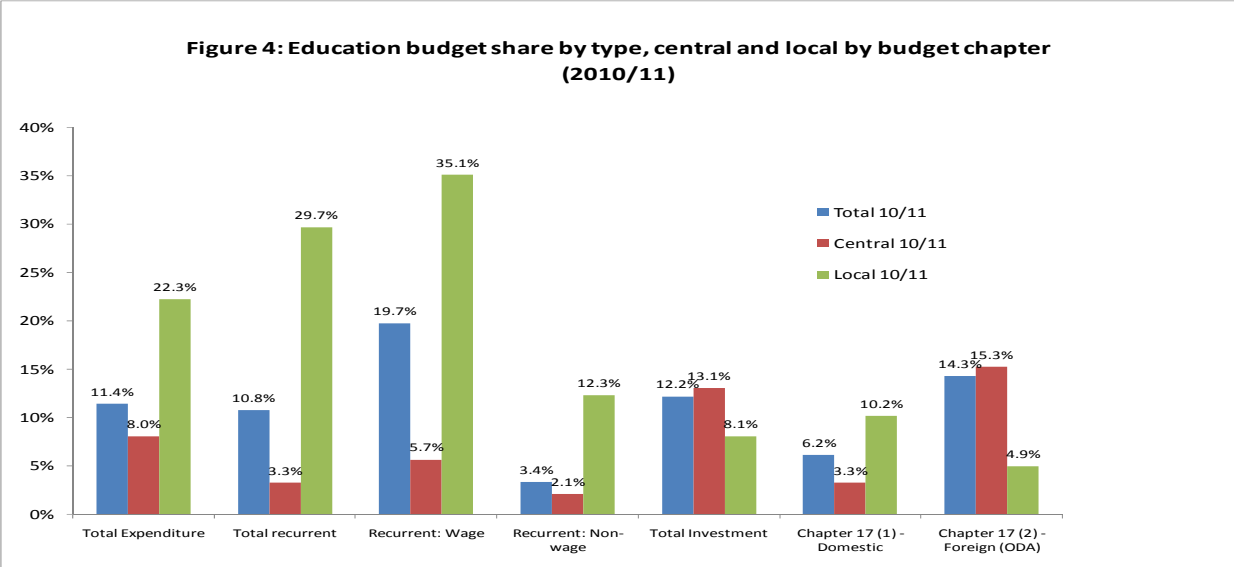
⁷² The Education Sector Development Framework is accompanied by the Education Sector Development Plan (ESDP), monitoring framework, and Policy Planning Matrix – all of these form the five-year education sector development plan, which informs education financing goals and targets, (Souvong and Didirivong, 2011, 4).

⁷³ UIS, 2008.

⁷⁴ ESDF, 2009.

⁷⁵ Souvong and Didirivong, 2011.

⁷⁶ World Bank, 2008.



Source: Souvong & Diravong, Laos Country Report, pg. 11.

Discussion

Three key goals of Lao PDR’s education policies are decreasing inequality between provinces, eliminating cost-barriers for the economically disadvantaged, and increasing teacher supply to meet geographical and sector demand. Funding allocations are calculated by district areas and education participation indicators. Of the 143 districts in Lao PDR, 56 are considered educationally disadvantaged and thus prioritized. Also, all schools are allocated Block Grants⁷⁷ with the intention to eliminate household contributions and fees, and correspondingly, allow all children to participate in education. Block Grants can be used at the discretion of schools to mobilize these funds for timely disbursement of teacher salary. This will enable school leadership and autonomy to manage their finances independently. This will take time to implement and realize.

4.2.6. Towards an effective financing strategy for improved quality of learning

An effective financing system for improved quality of learning needs to be holistic, sector wide and long term in order to realize the positive impacts of various initiatives.

Adequate resources

There is a need for an evidence-based method of identifying an “adequate” level of resources that matches countries’ specific needs and priorities. The method should provide data on the level and types of resources that enable countries to dramatically increase student academic achievement, for example as measured by international assessment test scores.

Linking funding to factors impacting quality learning

An effective financing system for improved quality of learning needs to link resource levels and resource use more directly and adequately to student learning, and seek to avoid unpredictability and fluctuation in the level and sources of revenue for education. It is important that policy makers know more about how resources are deployed and how they are linked to factors impacting quality learning. Gaining that knowledge would represent a first step toward knowing how better to use these resources to produce higher levels of student achievement.

⁷⁷ not fully implemented as of 2011/2012

Implementing new forms of teacher remuneration and professional development

Teacher compensation structures can link remuneration levels to performance measured through improved student achievement indicators. Practices in the region suggest that increases in teacher pay should not be based on education degrees or years of experience (except for the first 3 years), but rather on indicators linked to student learning gains and measured using scores on a performance-based evaluation system. New compensation strategies should encourage teachers to constantly evolve and use more effective instructional strategies.

There is a need for processes and procedures to justify resources spent on professional development and designing ways to redeploy those dollars to more effective strategies. With this information, countries, particularly populous ones, can reallocate substantial professional development resources to more intensive programs that focus on improving teachers' instructional practice in core academic subjects like mathematics, and reading. It must remove fund shortages, offer prioritization and equity through targeted funding, invest more and better in teacher quality, and provide better information to enable financial management and monitor outcomes.

4.2.7. Conclusion

- Policies of education financing for improved quality learning should address equity, quality and relevance at the same time.
- Many countries face the challenge of:
 - Insufficient funding and dependency of foreign aid to meet education expenditure;
 - Lack of clear and an effective linkage of the level, nature and modality of funding to target outcomes;
 - Lack of adequate information to allocate, track and evaluate funding to improve learning outcomes.
- Recommendations:
 - Holistic, sector wide and long term goal education expenditure to target resources allocation and evaluation taking account factors that address teacher quality and learning achievements.
 - Design of education financing systems to understand and assess the effectiveness of policies from both a fiscal and program perspective on aspects that improve student learning by monitoring and tracking expenditure, and linking targeted resources to teacher remuneration, performance measured through improved student achievement indicators.

4.3. International cooperation for quality learning

4.3.1 Scope of international cooperation

International co-operation is discussed here as international aid and other means that influence improvement of quality, relevance of education as well as equitable delivery of education. The scope of discussion through country presentations are mostly situated within the boundary of international aid. In order to achieve any model of international cooperation successfully, the aid flow must reflect a high commitment on the part of the donor and a strong dependence by the recipient. The large presence of donor aid is also reflective of the country's high levels of needs and good governance that is countries that are "needy and deserving". Efficiency of the countries' aid administration is also an important factor that influences the level of aid and number of aid donors as it paves the way for designing, testing and implementing "new" aid instruments such as budget support. A case in point is Viet Nam whose pioneering use of several processes and aid instruments derived from the new aid architecture,

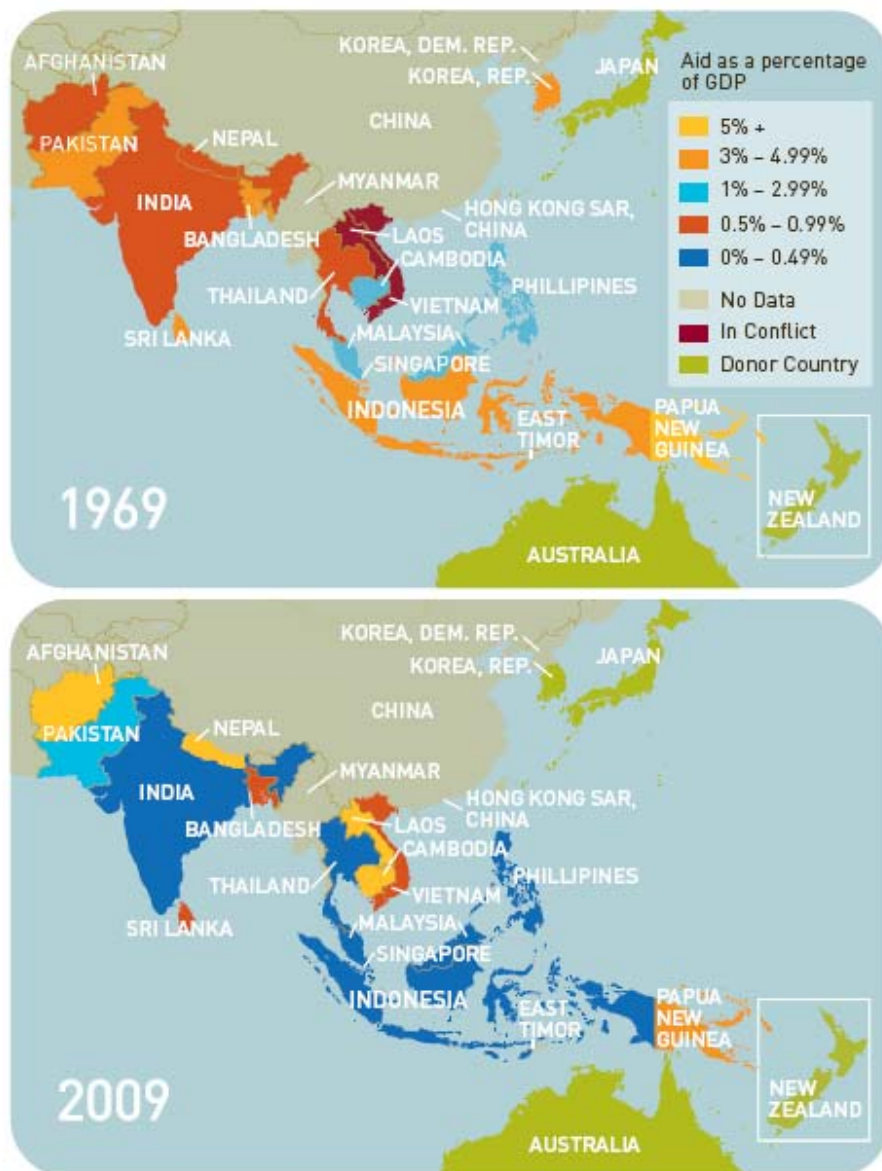
capacities and attitudes of the Vietnamese administration, and the presence of wide range of donors facilitate the implementation of a new type of development aid, which is more aligned with the current international aid agenda.

Aid is beneficial to countries that adopt appropriate and stable policies otherwise it is wasted. The allocation of aid that has the maximum effect is a function of the recipient countries' level of needs which aid is targeted and the quality of its institutions and policies, especially economic policies. When the developing world has good capacity to provide public services, including critical ones needed by the poor or marginalized communities to participate in the economy and education, then aid can accelerate the process. Aid increases the benefits from good policy while at the same time good policy increases the impact of aid. Thus the combination of good policy and aid produces especially good results in terms of growth, poverty reduction and improvement in other services such as health and education.

The synthesis of findings presented in this report focuses mainly on the role of external aid in contributing to learning outcomes in the field of education personnel and the importance of policy environment in allowing aid to be better justified and targeted in areas that link resources allocation to improved learning outcomes. In this context, it is important to understand the policies and instruments to ensure that external aid aligns with countries' national agenda of improving quality learning and relevance of education systems for all learners. Other means of international co-operation such as partnership with international organizations and education institutes will also be discussed using evidence from country experiences.

4.3.2 Notable patterns of international aid in the Asia-Pacific

In the two maps below, it is evident that countries in the Asia-Pacific region have Official Development Aid (ODA) as a portion of national Gross Domestic Product (GDP) has reduced over the past forty years. Many countries have experienced remarkable development, for example, the Republic of Korea was a recipient country in 1969 and by 2009 has become a donor country. There are exceptions, for instance, in 1969 ODA was 0.5-0.09% of Afghanistan's GDP, by 2009 ODA has increased to 50.4% of GDP. This is due to conflict in the country. On average, more countries in the Asia-Pacific have experienced positive economic development and reduction in receiving ODA in the period from 1969 to 2009.



Source: Gates, 2011, p.4

ODA in the Asia-Pacific region typically comes from three main types of donors: multilateral, bilateral Development Assistance Committee (DAC) countries, and bilateral non-DAC countries. Bilateral donations are those from a donor country to a recipient country. Multilateral ODA contributions are funds managed by autonomous entities for development purposes that are not controlled by the donor. If the donor controls the disposal of the funds by specifying the recipient, purpose, terms, etc. then the ODA is classified as bilateral. Bilateral ODA also includes transactions with national and international non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and other development related spending. In short, bilateral ODA as calculated in OECD data is effectively designated aid, and most ODA falls into this category in the Asia-Pacific region. In 2009 bilateral ODA made up 70% of total ODA disbursed to education⁷⁸.

⁷⁸ Winthrop, Abetti, Beardmore, Tapp, 2001.

From 2002-2009, DAC Country Bilateral ODA disbursed on average 15.537 Billion USD⁷⁹ annually to South and West Asia⁸⁰, 13.160 Billion USD annually to East and South East Asia⁸¹, and 1.024 Billion USD annually to the Pacific⁸². The total ODA levels to Asia and the Pacific have remained relatively steady over time. However there is a gradual rise in ODA targeted toward the education sector. Of the total ODA for the region, one third is given to five recipient countries: Afghanistan, China, Indonesia, Pakistan, and Viet Nam. Except for Afghanistan and Viet Nam, this pattern indicates a trend whereby populous countries such as China, Indonesia and Pakistan receive more ODA for education than other countries in the region.

From available data, Tuvalu has the largest ODA as a percentage of Gross National Income (GNI) at 43.6% and Thailand has the lowest at -0.03%. This reflects Thailand's transition from a recipient country to a more self-sustaining economy. On average in 2009 countries in South and West Asia received ODA at approximately 3.59% GNI; East Asia and the Pacific approximately 14.2% GNI; and Central Asia 4.15% GNI⁸³. The current trends reveal that on average, ODA is more than three times larger as a share of GNI in East Asia and the Pacific in comparison to other sub-regions.

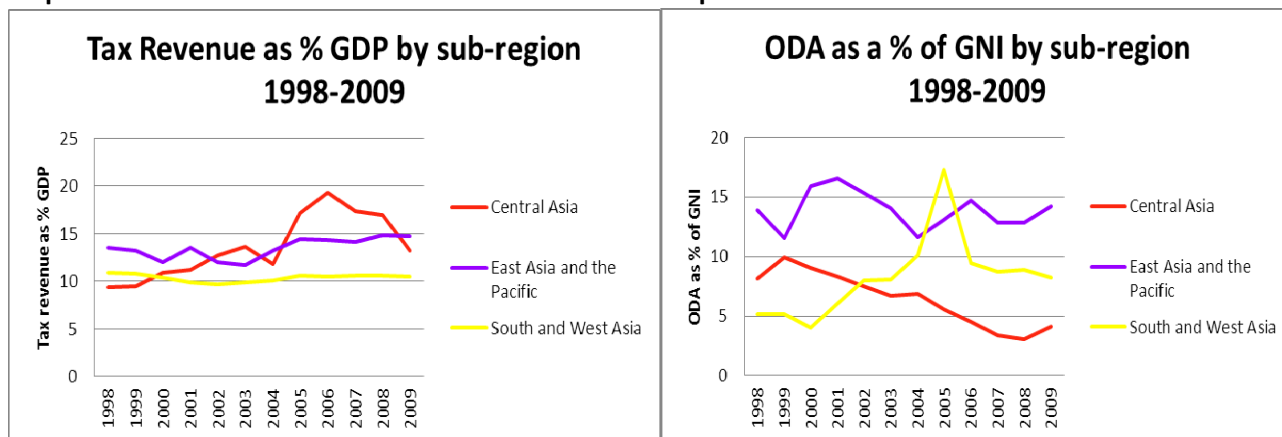
Official development aid (ODA) in perspective

For developing countries in the Asia-Pacific, the main source of education financing is domestic resources. ODA is one funding source among several sources employed by countries to meet public expenditure such as health and education. In most countries in the Asia-Pacific region, ODA is an additional source comprising 0 – 0.5% of national GDP.

For many countries in the region, domestic funding is growing at a greater rate than ODA. For instance, in Graph 8 below there is an increasing trend in tax revenue as % GDP for Central Asia as well as East Asia and the Pacific. However, in South and West Asia domestic funding in the form of tax revenue has been consistent around 10% of GDP.

Graph 11:

Graph 12:



⁷⁹ In 2008 constant prices

⁸⁰ Afghanistan, Iran, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, Sri Lanka

⁸¹ Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Viet Nam, China, Korea DPR, Macao, Mongolia

⁸² Cook Islands, Fiji, Kiribati, Marshall Islands, Nauru, Niue, Palau, Papua New Guinea, Samoa, Solomon Islands, Tokelau, Tonga, Tuvalu, Vanuatu

⁸³ World Bank, 2009.

Source: World Bank Data, accessed November 2011

Graph 8 above displays trends by sub-region in ODA as a % of GNI. It appears that ODA as a % of GNI has decreased over time in Central Asia; in East Asia and the Pacific the portion of ODA fluctuates but has remained under 15% of GNI since 2003. However in South and West Asia, ODA has grown more steadily over the time span than tax revenue. It is important to note that the main source of education financing in South and West Asia on average still stems from domestic resources. Afghanistan's place in this sub-region slightly skews the trend due to the country's unique reliance on ODA funds. Also the South Asia sub-region receives a greater share of private revenue from migrant remittances than other sub regions. The implications of this will be discussed in greater detail below.

Table 5 below reveals that in 2008, Afghanistan, China, Indonesia, Pakistan, and Viet Nam in aggregate received one third of the total ODA to the region. Except for Afghanistan which has a unique context as a conflict country, ODA sources for these countries comprised less than 4% of GDP while tax revenue made up a greater share of GDP in 4 out of 5 of these countries.

Table 5: ODA and tax revenue as a percentage of GDP, selected countries, 2008

Country	GDP (2008) US\$ current	ODA flow as a % of GDP (2008)	Tax revenue as a % of GDP (2008)
Afghanistan	11,757,405,533	50.4%	5.2%
China	4,521,826,899,540	3.2%	10.2%
Indonesia	510,226,662,255	0.25%	13.03%
Pakistan	163,891,676,021	0.9%	9.8%
Viet Nam	90,273,764,945	3.01%	..

Source: World Bank Database 2008

Table 6: Importance of Remittances to Low Income Countries in the Asia-Pacific

Country	Remittance Inflows (USD millions)	Remittance as a % of GDP	ODA disbursements (USD millions)	ODA flow as a % of GNI
Afghanistan	5,980.51	45.7%
Bangladesh	10,523	11.8%	1,943.73	1.3%
Bhutan	132.16	10.2%
Cambodia	338	3.2%	760.61	7.3%
Kiribati	28.14	15.6%
Korea, Democratic Republic	71.7	..
Kyrgyzstan	992	28.7%	308.61	7%
Lao PDR	38	0.6%	481.25	7.1%
Maldives	4	0.3%	50.22	2.6%

Marshall Islands	58.91	32.1%
Mongolia	200	4.8%	424.94	8.5%
Myanmar	116	..	370.01	..
Nepal	2,986	23.8%	1,016.42	6.6%
Pakistan	8,717	5.4%	3,338.11	1.7%
Samoa	131	26.5%	84.38	16.1%
Solomon Islands	2	0.4%	221.6	43.5%
Sri Lanka	3,363	8%	1,216.57	1.7%
Tajikistan	1,748	35.1%	435.74	8.3%
Timor-Leste	224.13	9%
Tonga	94	30.3%	41.47	11.9%
Tuvalu	17.38	43.7%
Vanuatu	6	0.9%	108.28	17.4%

Source: World Bank Database 2009, OECD classification of countries 2011, OECD 2009

However, as Table 6 indicates, the low and least developed countries in the Asia-Pacific region are more dependent on ODA than others as a financial source of funds for the public sector. This is expressed in the magnitude of ODA as a percentage of GDP. The range is wide: in Afghanistan in 2009, ODA was close to half the total GNI at 45.7% whereas at the other end of the spectrum ODA only accumulated to 1.3% of GNI for Bangladesh in the same year. In fact, many low income countries rely more heavily on remittances than official development assistance as a source of funds to the education sector and other critical needs. For example, in Bangladesh, Kyrgyzstan, Nepal, Pakistan, Samoa, Tajikistan, and Tonga, remittances embody a significantly larger portion of national income than official development assistance. The countries in the Asia-Pacific region most reliant on development assistance are Afghanistan, Marshall Islands, Solomon Islands, and Vanuatu. ODA disbursements in 2009 comprised over 30% of GDP in these countries.

Share to Education

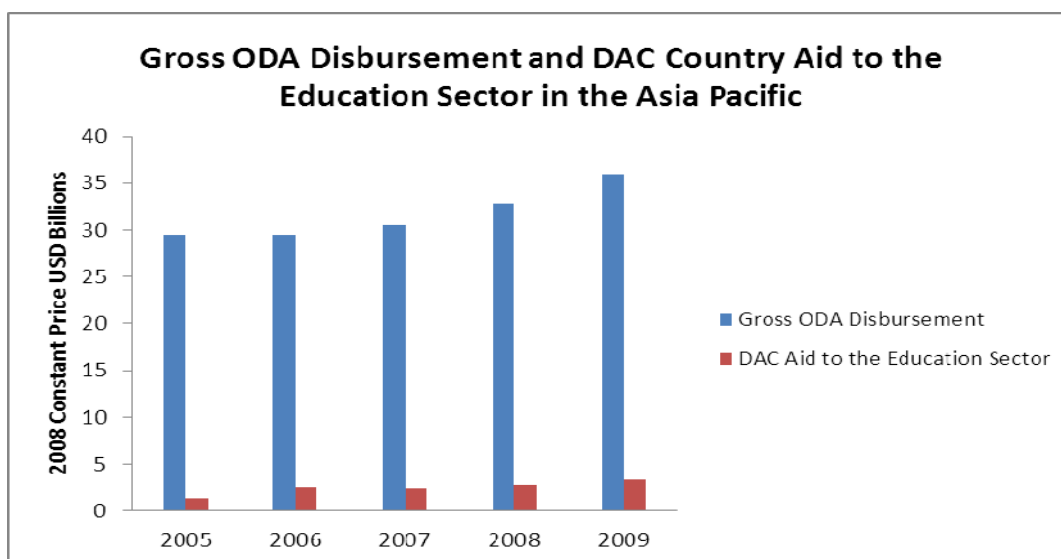
The ODA to the education sector has been on the rise in the Asia-Pacific region. The volume more than doubled from 2005 (1.37 USD Billion) to 2009 (3.29 USD Billion) as displayed in Graph 10 below. Approximately one third of ODA to education is allocated to basic education, which has been a consistent trend in the period from 2002 to 2009⁸⁴. It is important to note that aid funds are often granted with limitations regarding their use. For example, some donors report university scholarships to students from developing countries to study in the donor country as development aid – and this is valid. However, this aid is rigid and cannot be applied to other education sector needs in the recipient country

⁸⁵

Graph 10:

⁸⁴ OECD 2011

⁸⁵ Abetti, Beadmore, Tapp, & Winthrop, 2011.



Source: OECD data base, author calculations 2011

Approximately one third of ODA for education to the Asia-Pacific region is given to 5 countries out of 46 – China, Pakistan, Indonesia, Viet Nam and Afghanistan. In the case of countries with large population such as China, Indonesia, and Pakistan, this suggests that ODA for education may be based on school age population. For Afghanistan, the requirement may be due to conflict and associated logistical challenges. Viet Nam is unique in its favorable position for receiving ODA. ODA as a percentage of Viet Nam’s total expenditure has been rising considerably from 0.8% in 2006 to 2.46% in 2010⁸⁶.

Sufficiency of aid for education financing

The 2010 Global Monitoring Report estimates that \$US 16 billion in external aid is needed each year to fill the financing gap required to achieve the Education for All goals by 2015. Effectively anticipating the actual cost to achieve the EFA goals is the first task toward ensuring success, yet many countries in the Asia-Pacific lack this capacity. For many countries in the Asia-Pacific region, insufficient financial resource to fund the education sector is a critical issue. In addition, those countries that lack resources also lack the technical capacity to quantify resources needed to meet the goals of the education sector.

The Cook Islands is taking steps to understand and quantify the costs of education in their country and the projected costs to achieve specific goals within the sector. In 2009/2010 the Ministry released their Education Master Plan and accompanying Statement of Intent that links forecasted education expenditure with priorities and targets for the next five years⁸⁷. These key documents will better inform the Cook Islands government and their development partners in determining a sufficient level of financial resources to meet important goals in education development. Cambodia will lose five bilateral donors to education (Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Germany, and the United Kingdom). From 2006-2009 about one-fifth of ODA to education in Cambodia stemmed from these five bilateral development partners. Their simultaneous departure will result in sufficiency issues for Cambodia to achieve their national plans for the education sector. It also may signify a lack of donor harmonization⁸⁸.

⁸⁶ Hai, 2011.

⁸⁷ Townsend, 2011.

⁸⁸ Abetti, et. al., 2011.

According to the 2011 GMR, as the number of youth in developing countries rises, more children will be out of school in 2015 than are out of school today. Between 1950 and 2000, Asia's population grew by 258% - from 1.3 to 3.5 billion⁸⁹. Eighty-one percent of Asia's population growth from 2000-2050 is projected to rise mainly in six countries: Bangladesh, China, India, Indonesia, Pakistan and Philippines⁹⁰. The rapid growth of youth population exerts pressures on governments to expand health, education, and employment prospects for young people.

It is difficult for countries to forecast ODA flows, especially since it also involves the political consideration. For example, the World Bank is the single largest multilateral education financier. Additionally the United States historically has been a top donor country of bilateral aid to education. The recent debt ceiling legislation in the US will reduce the ODA budget by 20% or more in the future, which may lead to reduced aid to education for some recipient countries. Developing countries with greater reliance on ODA as an external funding source for the education sector lack confidence in their ability to maintain or accelerate progress on national education sector plans due to uncertain position of ODA in general and to the education sector specifically.

4.3.3 Aid Effectiveness and Quality Learning: Highlights of concerns and challenges

The Paris and Accra declarations, signed by 136 donor and developing countries, multilateral agencies, and civil society organizations emphasize five principles of aid effectiveness. The five principles are: 1) ownership by developing countries; 2) alignment of aid to national priorities; 3) harmonization among donors; 4) results based management; and 5) mutual accountability (High Level Forum on Aid Effectiveness, Paris, 2005).

Donor and recipient countries are still working to realize the principles of aid effectiveness. For many countries that rely on aid to fund education, the challenge is complying with conditions of aid as these may not be in line with their national agendas. It is important that there is alignment and harmonization of donor guidelines and countries regulations.

Countries that rely heavily on aid experience unpredictability in aid funding which may impede their commitment to target funding toward initiatives to improve learning outcomes as these initiatives take some time to show positive results. It is important that expenditure on education using external aid is deployed appropriately and effectively to encourage long term and consistent funding modality and discourage continuous reliance on aid. As countries transition from lower income status to middle income status (as in the case of Viet Nam), it is important that their education financing system is improved in line with their economic development (such as Republic of Korea) so as to enable them to adequately raise and mobilize resources effectively without fear of reduced ODA.

The funding conditions and guidelines of donors, especially in targeted areas, have allowed countries to consider outcome based rather than input based approach to education financing. For example targeted ODA funding towards teacher training, remuneration and performance based evaluations; employing approaches and methodologies of allocating funding in line with improved learning outcomes; creating education finance system that allow monitoring and tracking of funds aligned with quality improvement objectives. As discussed in section 2 on Education Finance, there are still many challenges in this area, but country experiences have suggested progress has been achieved by willingness of donors to take on country strategic plans. The participatory approach has also encouraged governments to review their

⁸⁹ Westley, 2002.

⁹⁰ Westley, 2002.

own national agenda and education system objectives in view of improving quality education. However, more partnership between donor and recipient is needed to promote evaluation through results based management, rather than monitor of aid flow and usage, and allow ownership of countries' responsibility to improve education quality. It is important that the accountability built upon this partnership allow countries to build their public financial management system and develop confidence and long term capacity that are in line with their strategic and political objectives.

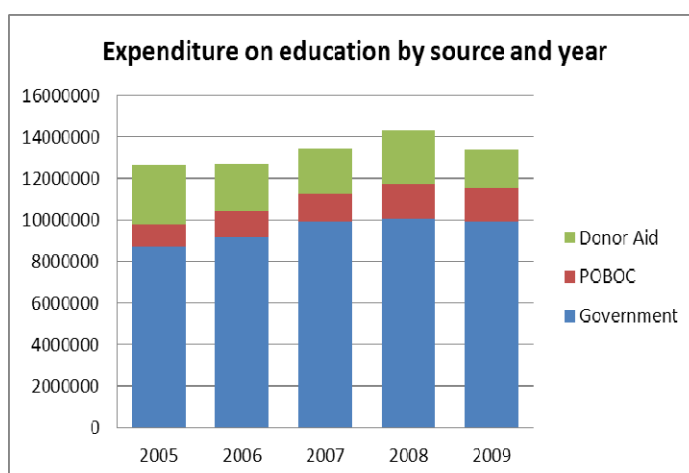
4.3.4 Evidence from the Asia-Pacific: country cases

The Cook Islands

Background

The Cook Islands has a relatively small population with approximately 22,300 people total and of these only 4,461 are in school - at the pre-school, primary, and secondary levels⁹¹. The resident population is spread out across 15 islands and an area of ocean as big as India, this context contributes to unique equity challenges in the service of education. In particular in the Northern group of islands, only 20% of students were at or above the numeracy standard in 2010. It should be noted that there were 378 students in total in all schools ECE-Secondary in 2009/2010 in this cluster⁹². Very small remote schools present unique equity issues for education finance and quality of which little has been written.

Graph 13: Cook Islands expenditure on education by source, 2005-2009



International cooperation and impact on quality learning

In the Cook Islands international aid does not comprise a large proportion of total education sector expenditure. According to OECD available data, from 2002 to 2009, Pacific Island countries received on average 10.57 million USD of ODA per country per year and the Cook Islands received on average 3.6 million USD per year⁹³. Graph 13 illustrates that in 2009, external donor funds contributed approximately 14% of the funding to the education sector, payments on behalf of the crown contributed 12%, and the government of the Cook Islands supplied approximately 74% of the total. From 2005-2009

⁹¹ Statistics Office of the Cook Islands, 2011.

⁹² Paio, Townsend, and Tua, 2010.

⁹³ Aid from DAC country donors only, 2002-2009, independent calculation of average, countries with data included: Cook Islands, Fiji, Kiribati, Marshall Islands, Nauru, Niue, Palau, Papua New Guinea, Samoa, Solomon Islands, Tokelau, Tonga, and Vanuatu only. Data accessed via QWIDS < <http://stats.oecd.org/qwids/>>.

the government has been responsible for 70% of education sector funds or more. The country's current emphasis is the need for efficiency in managing aid funding for small countries. The Cook Islands is trying to guide all stakeholders toward holistic and sector wide priorities of the Ministry of Education shifting away from segregated projects. In 2009/2010 the Ministry released their Education Master Plan and accompanying Statement of Intent that links forecasted education expenditure with priorities and targets for the next five years⁹⁴. The Ministry of Education also coordinated several donors to implement and fund school library development. There is evident effort by the Cook Islands to optimize ODA in line with their national objectives. There is a recognition of the risk of reliance on external aid and that budget support must be managed by the country. The challenge for the Cook Island is the strengthening of their internal management capacity, to accelerate priority outcome based achievement and ensuring stability of long term funding through partnership with donors.

Lao PDR

International cooperation and impact on quality learning

The Government of Laos is committed to supporting the Aid Effectiveness agenda, as articulated in the Vientiane Declaration of December 2006, further elaborated in the revised Country Action Plan (CAP) 2007-2011 and re-affirmed in the Accra Agenda for Action 2008. Within this context, the role of the Education Sector Working Group (ESWG) is strengthened to further aid effectiveness to improving planning, promoting harmonization, maximizing the impact of investment on education outcomes and enhancing the education sector's contribution to national development. To encourage a sector wide and holistic approach, the ESWG has endorsed the Education Sector Development Framework (ESDF) 2009-2015 as the overarching framework to guide investments in the sector, both domestic and external, and the Education Sector Development Plan 2011-15. To further promote harmonization, alignment, management for results, reduce transaction costs, and mutual accountability, the ESWG also endorsed the Ministry of Education's Annual Monitoring Process as the mutually agreed framework for all stakeholders to measure progress on ESDF implementation and sector performance on an annual basis.

Lao PDR has adopted the new approach of policy-driven planning. However there is much weakness identified in the education policy development and management, in particular linking planning and budgeting at both central and provincial levels using real budget allocated from the National Assembly and planning. The partnership between external advisors in developing ESDF with Department of Planning and Co-operation has enhanced capacity building among staff from the Department and other departments and PES offices. Major policies and strategies and the completion of a detailed policy planning matrix were identified with minimal support from advisors. This suggests that capacity building is enhanced when donors employ government financial management processes or procurement systems rather than project implementation units with external consultant teams. A major impediment to capacity building across the sector is the lack of a comprehensive and systematic capacity-building plan. There are many capacity-building activities supported as part of donor funded projects but these typically focus on capacity needs linked to the project and end when the project finishes. There is a critical need to develop a national education sector capacity building plan linked to the 5-year sector plan for 2011/15. To maximize broad ownership of such a plan, development must be led by the ministry with financial and technical support from a broad range of donors to maximize "buy-in" from all stakeholders. Meaningful and sustainable quality improvements will only be achieved if ministry staffs have the capacity to implement, manage and monitor activities.

⁹⁴ Townsend, 2011

Development partners are increasingly aligning their strategies to the ESDP Policy Planning Matrix, and demonstrating commitment to supporting the ministry to further its aid effectiveness agenda, strengthened collaboration has fostered mutual trust, and created space for increasingly frank and open dialogue. One result has been to build MoE capacity to take the lead on aid-effectiveness and make rapid progress to implement its reform agenda. Through collaborative dialogue processes, the sector has also made progress towards a more program-based approach, which has succeeded in leveraging significant additional funds to support implementation. Technical assistance has also been provided by ADB, AusAID, European Union, JICA, Luxembourg, World Bank and UN agencies. The Government has made significant improvements and increased transparency of education management and information systems. The Government is looking for financing arrangement that would enable the ministry to better balance funding across subsectors and between access, quality and governance improvements and to ensure that external aid aligns with the national agenda for improving the quality of student learning.

A pre-requisite to improving the quality and relevance of national education systems is increased capacity building of all education staff. This will need not only international cooperation but an increased share of the national non-wage recurrent budget. It is through an increase in the non-wage recurrent share of the national budget that sustainable quality improvements can be made, including education personnel policy implementation. Without assured recurrent support from the government, donors are reluctant to make large investments in education personnel development. For the education sector in Lao PDR, international aid effectiveness will be increased through better alignment of external funding to the sector 5-year plan through greater use of program approaches or joint financing arrangements.

Viet Nam

Viet Nam is a case for examining how good practices amongst donors can be applied at country level to overcome inequalities in the quality of education. As an FTI country it is committed to allocating 20% of the national budget to education and allocated 66% of education funds specifically towards the 4 EFA groups between 2001 and 2006⁹⁵. Despite a rising trend in foreign aid as expressed by the percentage of ODA in the national budget from 0.86% in 2006 to 2.46% in 2010⁹⁶, there is still a high level of aid fragmentation in the education sector with the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) being involved in over 30 ODA projects in 2011 alone totaling \$1.5 billion.

Initiatives to address education quality issues have focused on improving access to minimum standards of quality while also addressing equity by consistently targeting the most disadvantaged and excluded groups in education. Based on initial national assessments in 2001 and the introduction of new curriculum in 2002, the overall design of the quality reform was strategically set out in the National EFA Action Plan 2003-2015 where outputs in terms of levels of student achievement are clearly set and measures to better address wide variations in learning outcomes among and within provinces are proposed⁹⁷.

Foreign assistance to education in Viet Nam has gradually moved away from a mix of large-scale projects and budget support to the introduction of targeted budget support (TBS) for decentralized implementation of the EFA plan. In particular, support to the Education National Targeted Program (ENTP) helped to build the management and oversight capacity in the education sector facilitating the

⁹⁵ Bartholomew, 2010.

⁹⁶ World Bank, 2010.

⁹⁷ World Bank, 2004.

management of funds provided through TBS. This capacity building appears to have encouraged a better medium term policy and resources framework within which TBS programmes could be delivered on a multi-donor basis. Evidence also suggests that TBS has generated higher value added in education through innovation to policy and institutional reform by enabling a change in the quality of policies and efforts by government and donors to improve the efficiency and impact of these policies⁹⁸. For example TBS directly addressed quality issues by focusing on ensuring the achievement of FSQ standards in primary school by targeting donor resources on 5 sub-components of the Education National Targeted Programme using existing NTP procedures and mechanisms.

Strong country ownership is also a factor in enabling Viet Nam to deal with highly fragmented assistance to the education sector. Its low dependency on aid to education and rapid economic growth has afforded it discretion in accepting terms from donors and may have promoted a more open dialogue around supporting reforms to the quality of education. This dialogue between partners in part depends on mutual confidence in the data collected but also on partners maintaining consistency and clarity of purpose along with high quality national development strategies to direct donors to articulate responsibilities.

In Viet Nam's case, flexibility in accepting the diverse approaches to accountability of such a wide variety of partners appears to be a strategy for effective co-operation and dialogue. It seems that demanding high levels of transparency from partners in linking performance and the disbursement of funds may have served to encourage mutual accountability and to build a stronger consensus over technical issues as well as between political systems meet the diversity of needs.

The World Bank Poverty Reduction Support Credit (PRSC) mechanism, which triggers disbursement of funds, may have encouraged greater donor partner inclusiveness and harmonization and brought benefits in terms of encouraging consistency and a clearer agenda with better dialogue and assessment. Although there appears to be trade-offs with this mechanism, it may be particularly appropriate for Viet Nam due to its relative emphasis on supporting rather than "buying" government policy reforms in the context of stronger country ownership in this case.

In dealing with international assistance coordination and encouraging better dialogue Viet Nam has achieved better coordination in the education sector. This is evident through the Hanoi Declaration and the creation of donor groups such as the five bank group (ADB, AFD, JBIC, KfW, and WB) and the Like-Minded Donor Group (EU, UN, DFID and the Japan group) along with the Partnership Group for Aid Effectiveness, as well as sector groups such as the ESG and the One-UN Secretariat.

In sum, the move between different aid modalities may have strengthened the focus and impact of efforts to raise the quality of education although both project and programme modalities seem to have played different enabling roles in facilitating dialogue and developing a focus around quality issues. These efforts seem to have been effectively supported by Viet Nam's strong ownership in its approach to decentralized planning allowing it to build local capacity and to draw lessons from large-scale projects and to find ways to deal with multiple donors more effectively.

As Viet Nam moves into middle-income status, reduction in concessional loans, credits and aid is likely and on the other hand there are new donors emerging. The challenge for the country is to seek innovation in donors' financing policy and procedures that is sector wide, aligns with country's agenda and emphasize on quality and sustainability rather than quantity of schooling.

⁹⁸ Clarke, 2007.

Conclusion

- International aid is effective in promoting quality learning when aid is aligned to national priorities, harmonized among donors, and deployed through results based management that encourage mutual accountability and ownership by recipient countries.
- Many countries have progressed towards outcome based objectives rather than input based which have enhanced capacity development in government and administrator personnel, and progressed to building education financing system that focuses on targeted education quality outcomes
- The challenges that many countries face is the need to build capacity of government personnel and education personnel drawing on technical assistance with donor partners.
- Recommendations:
 - Countries to build on education finance system that allows evaluation of aid flows to better justified and targeted spending rather than monitoring to comply with donors guidelines.
 - Decrease in dependency on short term funding and focus on long term consistent funding modalities.
 - Public financial management reforms to build confidence in country's long term funding strategies that are in line with country's development objectives.
 - Increase in partnerships with international organizations to enhance education personnel that are directed at improving learning achievements.

Annex: Agenda

Regional Policy Seminar “Towards Quality for All in Asia and the Pacific” Co-organized by UNESCO and KEDI, Seoul, Republic of Korea, 28-30 July 2011

DAY 1: 28 JULY, THURSDAY

- 8:00 – 8:30 **Registration**
- 8:30 – 8:45 **Welcome Remarks**
Tae-Wan Kim, President, Korean Educational Development Institute (KEDI)
- 8:45 – 9:30 **Keynote Speech**
Gwang-Jo Kim, Director, UNESCO Bangkok (Asia and Pacific Regional Bureau for Education)
- 9:30 – 10:00 **Break**
- 10:00 – 10:30 **Introduction and Seminar Flow**
Chair: *Jong-Hyeok Yoon*, KEDI
Facilitator: *Le Thu Huong*, UNESCO
- 10:30 – 12:00 **Quality Learning for All in Asia and the Pacific**
Chair: *Ian Whitman*, Head, Programme for Cooperation with Non-member Economies, Directorate for Education, OECD – Teacher Policies for Better Education
Speakers: *Gwang-Chol Chang*, Chief of Education Policy and Reform Unit, UNESCO Bangkok – Quality of Education in the Region: Issues and Challenges
Sung Bin Moon, Research Fellow, Center for International Education and Development Cooperation, KEDI–Korean Experience in Improving Quality of Education
- 12:00 – 13:30 **Lunch (Welcoming)**
- 13:30 – 15:00 **Session 1: Education Personnel Management**
Chair: *Maung Thynn*, Professor, Meiktila University – Myanmar
Speakers: *Ian Whitman*, Head, Programme for Cooperation with Non-member Economies, Directorate for Education, OECD – Teacher Policies for Better Education
Mr. Mohammad Nuri Bin Hussien, Assistant Director Teacher Training Division, and
Ms. Zurimah Binti Laja Besar, Senior Assistant Secretary, Finance Division, Ministry of Education, Malaysia
Gogot Suharwoto, Expert for the Task Force on Teachers for EFA Secretariat, Division for Planning and Development of Education Systems (PDE), Education Sector, UNESCO Headquarters – TEFAS programs and activities
Tipsuda Sumethsenee, Director, Bureau of Policy on Lifelong Learning, Thailand
- Discussion
- 15:00 – 15:30 **Break**
- 15:30 – 17:00 **Session 1 (continued)**
Chair: *Cliff Meyers*, Regional Education Adviser, UNICEF EAPRO

Speakers: **Gwang Ho Kim**, Director, Office of General Affairs, Chungju National University – Current Status of Teacher Management Policy in the Republic of Korea and Challenges
Joe Maeriu Ririmae, Evaluation and Monitoring Officer, Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development – Solomon Islands – Teacher Management and Challenges for Quality Results in the Solomon Islands
Maung Thynn, Professor, Meiktila University – Myanmar – Teachers Training for Quality Learning in Myanmar
Gulmira Smagulova, Head of the Department of Management Education, National Center of Educational Quality Assessment, Kazakhstan - National System for Assessing the Quality of Education in Kazakhstan

Discussion

DAY 2: 29 JULY, FRIDAY

8:30 – 10:00 **Session 2: Education Finance**

Chair: **Jandhyala B G Tilak**, Head, Department of Educational Finance, National University of Educational Planning and Administration, India

Speakers: **Yog Raj Pokharel**, Head of Finance and Under Secretary, Ministry of Education and, **Tap Raj Pant**, National Programme Officer (Education), UNESCO Kathmandu, Nepal

Dr. Nath Bunroeun, Secretary of State, Ministry of Education, Youth, and Sport, Cambodia and, **Mr. Sam Sereyrath**, Director of Planning, Ministry of Education, Youth, and Sport, Cambodia

Discussion

9:30 – 10:00 **Break**

10:30 – 12:00 **Session 2 (continued)**

Chair: **R. Agus Sartono**, Deputy Minister for Education and Religion, The Coordinating Ministry of People Welfare, Indonesia

Speakers: **Sang Jin Ban**, Professor, ChonBuk National University – Changes of Education Finance Policy in Korea and Challenges

XiaoTing Huang, Title, China Institute for Educational Finance Research (CIEFR), Peking University, Beijing, China

Jandhyala B G Tilak, Head, Department of Educational Finance, National University of Educational Planning and Administration, India

Discussion

12:00 – 13:30 **Lunch**

13:30 – 17:00 **Field visit (to KOICA)**

DAY 3: 30 JULY, SATURDAY

8:30 – 10:00 **Session 3: International Cooperation for quality learning**

Chair: **Gail Townsend**, CEO: Planning, Policy, and Review, Ministry of Education, Cook Islands

Speakers: **Hyeseung Maria Chang**, Research Fellow, Center for International Education and Development Cooperation, KEDI – Current Status of Development Aid in Improving Education Quality
Tran Dai Hai, Acting Manager, ODA Management Unit, Department of Planning and Finance, Ministry of Education and Training – Viet Nam
Chaleun Souvong, Director General of Primary and Pre-primary Education Department, and
Somkhanh Didaravong, Director of Education Statistics and Information
Discussion

9:30 – 10:00 **Break**

10:30 – 12:00 **Session 3 (continued)**

Chair: **Le Thu Huong**, Programme Specialist, UNESCO Bangkok

Speakers: **Gail Townsend**, CEO: Planning, Policy, and Review, Ministry of Education, Cook Islands – Brickbats and Bouquets
Luis Crouch, Team Coordinator, Global Good Practices, Fast Track Initiative

Discussion

12:00 – 13:30 **Lunch**

13:30 – 15:00 **Strengthening Cooperation and Partnership**

Chair: **Hyeseung Maria Chang**, Research Fellow, Center for International Education and Development Cooperation, KEDI

Facilitator: **Gwang-Chol Chang**, Chief of Education Policy and Reform, UNESCO Bangkok

Topic:

- The way forward for improving quality learning for all: options, recommendations and suggestions for further investigation and cooperation
- Inputs for HLF, Busan

Discussion

15:00 – 15:30 **Conclusion and Closing**

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